

Teacher cognition of grade 8 teachers on teaching  
speaking in English as a foreign language in The Faroe  
Islands and its impact on teachers' pedagogical praxis:  
seven case studies

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## Abstract

Teaching is influenced by myriad factors and a significant player in this context is the teacher and his/her cognition. Teacher cognition is ‘the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think’ (Borg, 2003). In recent decades, much research has been conducted on English as a foreign language teaching and teacher cognition, which continues to highlight the crucial significance of the role of teacher cognition in teaching.

Research in teacher cognition covers various aspects of teaching language and language skills, with grammar enjoying predominance, while language skills, particularly speaking and listening, play second fiddle. Teaching speaking in English as a foreign language is important as foreign language learners desire to learn to speak the language and use it actively to communicate with peers and others.

The purpose of my qualitative case study is to: glean teacher cognition about teaching speaking in English as a foreign language teaching of seven grade 8 teachers in The Faroe Islands; ascertain the impact of teacher cognition on their teaching speaking praxis; and attempt to identify the reflection of the ‘state of the art’ in teaching speaking in English as a foreign language. The case study attempts to identify themes and categorise teacher behaviour and events rather than testing theory or hypotheses. It is a collective parallel case study, where seven cases are viewed concurrently. This case study attempts to add to the significant and under-researched field of teacher cognition on teaching speaking.

Semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis were used to elicit data to fulfil research aims. The results show that teacher cognition of grade 8 teachers does impact teaching speaking and congruence between the two appears to be the norm, with lesser representation of incongruence.

The congruence between teacher cognition and teaching speaking is a result of two factors: firstly, the strong influence of ‘apprenticeship of observation’ i.e. the influence of teachers’ personal experiences as students from years of school, university and teacher education, which influences the way they teach and think about teaching. Secondly, teacher interpretation of teaching speaking as facilitating student spoken performance in the classroom, i.e. ‘doing speaking’ instead of teaching speaking i.e. using specific strategies to teach students to speak.

The teacher education curriculum up to 2008 in the department of Education in The University of The Faroe Islands, to which most of the participants belong, did not include second language acquisition theories or language pedagogy. The incongruence therefore arises from the teachers functioning based on ‘apprenticeship of observation’ and experiential knowledge gleaned from teaching experience to create their models of teaching speaking. As for the post 2008 participants, new and inexperienced teachers are more likely to be concerned with classroom management before being able to practise subject pedagogy when teaching a language.

Though congruence predominates, there is minor incidence of incongruence between teacher cognition and teaching speaking, which may indicate the core-peripheral beliefs dichotomy. Core beliefs find expression in teaching and are chosen over peripheral beliefs, which account for the gap between cognition and teaching. Phipps and Borg (2009) posit that core beliefs are experience-based and tend to be more stable. They exert an influence greater than that of peripheral beliefs, which are theory-based and have not been tried and tested in practice by teachers to become part of the teaching repertoire. In the case of feedback, grade 8 teachers desist from using it actively as the core belief that feedback may discourage student participation in class overwhelms the peripheral belief about the usefulness of feedback for student learning.

The ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’ of Goh and Burns (2012) has been chosen to identify the reflection of the ‘state of the art’ in grade 8 praxis in teaching speaking. It subsumes earlier teaching speaking models and advocates a holistic approach to teaching speaking with specific activities to be carried out successively to promote the teaching of speaking. There is sporadic reflection of aspects of the model in grade 8 teaching speaking praxis, emphasising that there is ‘doing speaking’ i.e. opportunities for speaking rather than teaching speaking.

The study underlines the pivotal role of teacher education in equipping teachers for their profession and proactively helping pre-and post-service teachers to be critically self-aware of the influence of teacher cognition on their praxis. It pinpoints the importance of continued professional development for teachers during their careers and makes a case for educational research to impact teaching and make a difference in education.

## Resumé

Undervisning er påvirket af et utal af faktorer og et væsentligt aspekt i denne kontekst er læreren og hans/hendes kognition. Lærerkognition er, “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think” (Borg, 2003). I de seneste årtier, er megen forskning om engelsk som fremmedsprogs undervisning og lærerkognition blevet udført, hvilket kontinuerligt fremhæver den afgørende betydning, lærerkognition har i forhold til undervisningen.

Forskning i lærerkognition dækker over forskellige aspekter af sprogundervisning og sprogfærdigheder, hvor grammatikken udgør størstedelen, mens sprogfærdigheder, især tale og lytning, spiller anden violin. At undervise i at tale engelsk som fremmedsprog er vigtigt, fordi fremmedsprogs elever ønsker at lære at tale sproget og bruge det aktivt til at kommunikere med jævnaldrende og andre.

Formålet med mit kvalitative casestudie er: at søge at identificere betydningen af lærerkognition hos lærerne i syv ottende klasser på Færøerne, i forhold til undervisning i at tale fremmedsproget, der bliver undervist i. Dette, for at stadfæste, hvorvidt der er nogen sammenfald mellem kognition og undervisning samt med henblik på at forstå årsagerne til misforholdene, såfremt der er nogen af disse. Case undersøgelsen forsøget på at identificere temaer og kategorisere lærer adfærd samt begivenheder hellere end at teste teorier og hypoteser. Det er en kollektiv parallel case undersøgelsen, hvor syv cases bliver observeret samtidig. Dette case undersøgelsen bestræber sig på at føje til det væsentlige område der er forsket for lidt i - af lærerkognition i forhold til at undervise i at tale engelsk som fremmedsproget.

Semi-strukturerede interviews, spørgeskemaer, observationer og dokument analyser er blevet brugt til at fremkalde data til at opfylde forskningsmålene. Resultaterne viser, at lærerkognition hos ottende klasses lærere har indflydelse på undervisning i tale. Overensstemmelsen mellem de to, synes at være normen, med en mindre repræsentation af uoverensstemmelse.

Overensstemmelsen mellem lærerkognition og undervisning i tale er et resultat af to faktorer: for det første, den stærke indflydelse lærernes personlige erfaringer som elever/studerende fra tiden som studerende i skole, på universitet og gennem læreruddannelsen 'apprenticeship of observation', som påvirker måden, de underviser, samt tænker om det at undervise. For det andet er lærerens fortolkning af undervisningen i at tale fremmedsproget, det at gøre det lettere for eleverne at fremlægge talen i klasseværelset, det vil sige at tale sproget, i stedet for at undervise i at tale sproget ved at bruge særlige strategier til at lære eleverne at tale. Læreruddannelsens læseplan frem til 2008 i uddannelses institutionen på Færøernes Universitet, som de fleste deltagere tilhører, omfattede ikke andetsprogs tilegnelses teorier eller sprogpedagogik. Inkongruensen opstår derfor fra lærerne, som arbejder på basis af eget erfaringsmæssig grundlag, som er hentet fra undervisnings erfaring til at skabe egne læringsmodeller. Hvad angår deltagerne efter 2008, er nye og uerfarne lærere formodentlig mere tilbøjelige til at beskæftige sig med klasseledelse, inden de praktiserer fagpedagogik, når de underviser i et sprog.

Selvom kongruens er fremherskende er der en mindre forekomst af inkongruens mellem lærerkognition og undervisning i at tale, hvilket kan indikere den kerne-periferale overbevisning dikotomi, som tegner sig for kløften mellem kognition og undervisning. Phipps og Borg (2009) argumenterer for, at grundlæggende overbevisninger er erfarings baserede og synes være mere stabile. De har en større indflydelse end de perifere overbevisninger, der er teori baserede og som ikke er blevet afprøvet i praksis af lærere til at kunne udgøre en del af undervisnings repertoire. Hvad angår feedback, afstår lærerne fra ottende klasserne fra at bruge den aktivt, da den grundlæggende holdninger er, at tilbagemelding kan modvirke elevernes deltagelse i klassen, overskygger den perifere overbevisning om nyttiggørelsen af tilbagemelding vedrørende studerendes læring.

Til at identificere refleksioner over 'state of the art' i at undervise i at tale et fremmedsprog i forhold til ottende klasses praksis, er Teaching- speaking' cycle af Goh & Burns (2012) blevet valgt. Den inkluderer tidligere tale undervisnings metoder og er fortaler for en holistisk tilgang til at undervise i at tale med specifikke aktiviteter, der har til formål at fremme undervisningen i tale. Der er en sporadisk refleksion af aspekter af modellen i ottende klasses praksis i sprog undervisningen, som vægter, at der er tale i praksis - muligheder for at tale, fremfor udelukkende at blive lært, hvordan at gøre det.

Undersøgelsen understreger den afgørende rolle i læreruddannelsen til at udruste lærerne til deres profession og ligeledes forebyggende at hjælpe med at være kritisk selvbevidste over den indflydelse, som lærer kognition har på praksis. Der peges endvidere på betydningen af kontinuerlig efteruddannelse for lærere igennem deres karriere og argumenteres for uddannelses forskning, som kan påvirke undervisningen og gøre en forskel i forhold til uddannelse.

# **Dedication**

In loving memory of

My dear pappa, Prof. H.J.K Suganthan

For his unconditional love, nurturing guidance & unfailing conviction in my abilities

My maternal grandfather, Edwin Anbudaiyan &

My paternal grandmother, Flora Koilpillai

For their loving affection and encouragement that instilled in me the courage and confidence to meet the world and believe that I can.

All of you taught me the value of education and instilled in me respect for it.

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## List of abbreviations

CALL	Computer assisted language learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CK	Content knowledge
CS	Case study
EC	English content course
EFL	English as a foreign language
FL	Foreign language
FLL	Foreign language learning
GT	Grammar translation method
ICT	Information Communicative technolgy
KOS	Knowledge of students
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
MMR	Ministry of Education
MT	Mother tongue
NÁD	Department of Education
NÁM	The Courses department
NNS	Non-native speaker
NNETs	Non-native English teachers
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PPK	Personal practical knowledge
SS	Student speak
TC	Teacher cognition
TE	Teacher Education
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
TS	Teaching speaking
TT	Teacher talk
WTC	Willingness to communicate

# Chapter 1: Introduction

In recent decades, research in teacher cognition (TC) has cast much needed light on English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching (Borg, 2003). The teacher's role, identity and cognition are acknowledged as playing a key role in the profession. Gaining an understanding of how teachers' beliefs, thoughts and knowledge shape their approach to teaching is pivotal to creating a culture of critical self-reflection in education.

Understanding teachers' cognition would be a way to map the complexity underlying the art of teaching, and ideally, fine tune it to serve the needs of the learners to making teaching fit for purpose.

Speaking is highly valued by most learners of foreign languages who need to be taught to speak the target language. It is crucial to give teaching speaking (TS) importance in education. In this context, EFL teaching becomes significant given that English holds undisputed sway as the most taught and learnt foreign language in the world.

The teachers are the principal players - how their TC influences their approach to TS in EFL is the specific focus of my study. This case study explores TC about TS by studying the cognition of seven grade 8 teachers in The Faroe Islands about their teaching speaking in EFL.

## 1.1 Contextual background to the study

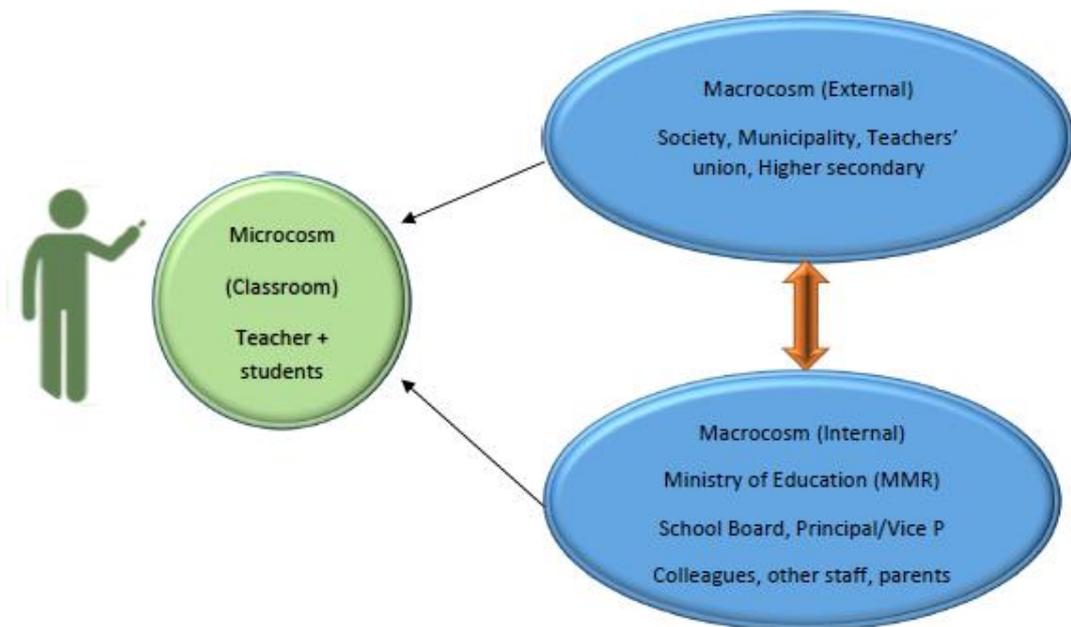
The school system in The Faroe Islands is closely modelled on the Danish system given the political and historical relationship between the two nations. Education is compulsory up to grade 9, which ends with a school leaving certificate examination offering students entry to higher secondary education. As designated by the Ministry of Education (MMR), English is mandatory from grade 4 to grade 9. For the assessment of English in grade 9, the written and spoken components are weighted equally in the school leaving certificate of marks. English is an L3 for ethnic Faroese learners, with Danish as L2, while it maybe L1 or L2 for many second-generation immigrants, making Faroese their L2 with Danish their L3 or Faroese L3 and Danish L4.

For grade 8 English, there is an end of year exam, but the marks are not carried over to the school leaving grade 9 certificate, and thereby, less significant than grade 9 marks.

Essentially, this means that two years contribute to the learning outcomes of Grade 9, potentially facilitating a well-planned teaching and learning strategy to fulfill the learning outcomes for the language skills in EFL.

Teachers are an important variable in student learning and are central to it. In the figure below, the organisational hierarchy and stakeholder mapping are combined to indicate the various players in the educational environment. The stakeholders may have formal or informal influence on the teacher.

Central to the idea of pedagogical leadership is the view that a teacher is a leader who leads a class by using both organisational skills and teaching skills. If classroom management were to be an umbrella term, then teaching belongs within it as the direct pedagogical duties of the teacher together with administrative duties that constitute the teaching profession.



**Fig 1.1 Stakeholders in the educational environment**

If we were to see teachers as straddling both the tactical and operational levels of an organisation, then their actions become pivotal to the creation and management of the learning environment. In this environment, while teachers are part of an overall hierarchy,

they are masters of their own domain with responsibilities to their students, colleagues, the management, the school and society at large.

The placement of the teacher in his/her environment is crucial in any discussion on TC, TS and TC about TS as context has a pivotal impact on teacher action in any moment in time. Context creates the microcosmic reality within the teaching profession, which underpins the interactive decision-making that influences teacher actions in the classroom (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). This has a significant influence on the learning environment, where teacher and student communicate and negotiate their way together towards achieving goals to fulfil learning outcomes.

TC has been documented as being influenced by the way teachers themselves were taught in school, i.e. what has been termed their ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975 in Borg, 2004). This experience offers teachers a scheme of reference to evaluate theories and experience which they are exposed to in the course of their teacher education (TE); it is seen as exerting a greater impact on teacher behavior than teacher education (Woodcock, 2011). This places some responsibility on TE, which has to take into account prior influence on pre-service teacher cognition. In so doing, TE may actually have a chance to design a strategy that proactively makes pre-service teachers understand their cognition on various issues and be self-aware and critically reflective in their approach to education.

## **1.2 Purpose of the study**

In conducting this study, a small, yet crucial area of language pedagogy comes under scrutiny i.e., the teaching of speaking in EFL. The cognition of grade 8 teachers regarding TS is gleaned through semi-structured interviews and their approach to teaching speaking is studied through classroom observations. An attempt is made to compare and contrast the TC and TS of the grade 8 teachers to understand the reasons for congruence or incongruence between the two. Simultaneously, the study ascertains the presence of the ‘state of the art’ in TS in EFL grade 8 praxis.

The following objectives underpin three distinct but integrated parts of this case study:

- To elicit grade 8 teachers’ cognition with regard to TS in EFL through interviews.

- To observe EFL lessons to discover the activities used for TS and determine aspects of speaking taught in the classroom.
- To compare and contrast TC of teachers and their TS praxis and interpret the findings to identify the relationship between these.
- To identify reflection of the ‘state of the art’ in TS to facilitate insight into TS in grade 8.

These objectives dictate the choice of theories and concepts that create the foundation for the study and are delineated below.

## **1.3 Theoretical framework**

The aims of the study guide the theoretical constructs that underpin my case study. These constructs are defined to offer clear perspectives on the framework within which the case study finds its bearings and context in the academic field.

### **1.3.1 Teacher Cognition**

Teacher cognition in this study is the mental reality of the teachers, i.e., their beliefs and attitudes, knowledge and thinking in the context of their multifaceted profession (Borg, 2003). Research reveals gaps between teacher cognition and praxis wherein teachers say they believe something and claim to be expressing this through their teaching, but do not actually do so (Ruesch, Bown & Dewey, 2012).

The caveat is that teacher behaviour is not always fully influenced by their cognition, and TC, in its partial influence on teaching, is in turn influenced by the experience of teaching. It is this dichotomy and reciprocity of influence on teaching which may well give teacher education its role and significance in shaping TC to engender teacher understanding of how to teach, and in creating effective and efficient teachers.

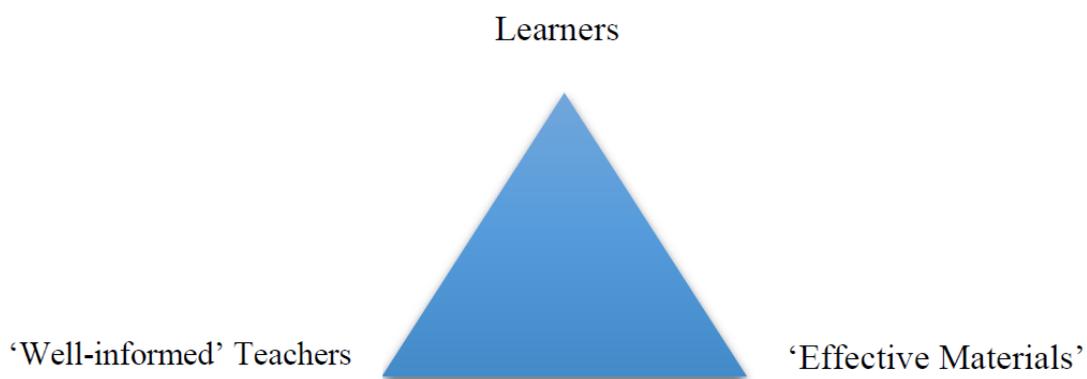
### 1.3.2 Speaking and Teaching Speaking

Speaking is a significant actor in a learner's experience of functioning in the target language. It is 'the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts' (Chaney & Burke, 1998, p. 13). Florez (1999) defines speaking as a process of interaction wherein both form and meaning are context and participant dependent, keeping in mind that participant experiences, environment and purpose of speaking are all important.

Speaking in the classroom comprises: talk as interaction - emphasis on social function, talk as transaction - emphasis on what is said or done and talk as performance - emphasis on conveying information before an audience (Richards, 2008). Each, it is said, requires its own different teaching approach. Brown and Nation (1997) express the idea that form-focused instruction, meaning focused instruction and fluency-oriented instruction should all be present in teaching speaking.

Therefore, teaching speaking requires a two-pronged approach: one to teach specifically towards attaining speaking skills to facilitate communication in the target language and the other to create opportunities for students to participate in speaking activities in interaction with the teacher and each other.

The influence of TC about teaching speaking (TS) on teacher praxis is the crux of this study. Three factors are outlined as instrumental in students learning speaking as illustrated below:



**Fig 1.2 Three key success factors in L2 speaking development** (Adapted from Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 6).

Learners are placed on the apex of the triangle as their learning outcomes, needs and goals are the focus of TS. While TC of the teachers is the prime focus of this study, the learners and teaching materials are important as together with TC, these form the basis for teacher behaviour in the classroom, which then is to be juxtaposed with what teachers believe they do in the teaching of speaking. Learners and materials, while peripheral to my study, are an inextricable part of the pedagogy and of importance to the teaching profession. They serve to illustrate a valid teaching context and environment for my study of TC about TS in grade 8 EFL.

The ‘state of the art’ in TS in EFL in the context of my study refers to the ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’, the brainchild of Goh and Burns (2012). A metamodel that subsumes other models of TS, it offers a kind of ‘best practice’ to create a holistic basis for TS in EFL through its structured approach to TS.

### **1.3.3 Teacher Cognition and Teaching Speaking**

Research in TC about TS is not common in the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL). The main trend seems to be to view studying speaking as specific skills like making presentations, conversation skills, pronunciation, vocabulary, interaction in the class room and the like or speaking as a subset of a skills-based approach. Borg (2006a) points out that listening and speaking instruction have been covered very little in EFL cognition research. Borg’s (2009) observation that research on teacher cognition on speaking among young learners being under-studied appears to hold good even today. Chen and Goh (2014) too underline the dearth in research on TC and speaking. They say there is evidence that many EFL teachers are disadvantaged because of their limited knowledge of teaching speaking.

## **1.4 Research questions**

This case study aims to answer the following research questions to address the aims of the project:

1. What is the grade 8 teachers’ TC about teaching speaking in EFL?

2. How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?
3. How does their TC impact TS?
4. How does TS in grade 8 in The Faroe Islands reflect the ‘state of the art’?

These research questions are answered based on analysis of data collected through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, questionnaires, policy documents and teaching materials.

## **1.5 Significance of the study**

The following factors render the study significant.

- ✓ TC is proved to have a critical influence on why teachers behave the way they do, and any attempt to influence teacher behaviour must be based on understanding the teachers. As no TC studies, have been conducted in The Faroe Islands, this study may afford insight into the complex reasons for teacher actions for teachers, teacher education and education authorities.
- ✓ Speaking of a foreign language (FL) is used as a yardstick to measure success in learning the language, and the study may offer ideas for useful teaching praxis to facilitate the learning of speaking in EFL.
- ✓ The existing dearth in research in TC on TS in EFL makes this case study relevant in its attempts to contribute to this field of research.
- ✓ The importance of English as *lingua franca* for oral communication for Faroese students has been recognised by the national educational policy. This study, in dealing with how speaking can be taught, fulfils a strategic goal of the authorities.
- ✓ It offers a basis for similar studies in other language skills in foreign language pedagogy.

## **1.6 Organisation of the dissertation**

This dissertation has six chapters. The first chapter (the current one) identifies the aims of the study, offers the background to the study and gives information about the overall structure of the dissertation.

The second and third chapters constitute the literature review with an indepth view of relevant literature in TC in chapter 2, and TS plus TC about TS in chapter 3. This provides a platform to understand the main themes of significance and relevance to the aims of this study.

The fourth chapter is the methodology chapter that offers a roadmap to the study, provides background information, identifies the researcher and participants, and charts researcher actions in data collection, coding procedures and ethical issues used to establish academic rigour.

The fifth chapter elucidates the combined results of the seven cases and analyses them critically through the lens of theoretical underpinnings to give perspective to the discussion in the context of the research questions.

The sixth and final chapter offers a summary of the results of the cases and further discusses relevant perspectives for this study to anchor it in the field of TC about TS in EFL. Conclusions are drawn and recommendations made to emphasise the importance of TS in grade 8. In addition, the chapter includes pedagogical implications for teacher education and TC. Finally, future research interests in teaching speaking and teacher cognition in EFL teaching are explored.

## **Chapter 2: Review of Literature on Teacher Cognition**

### **2.0 Introduction**

The literature review, which serves as a springboard for this study, explores research in the fields of teacher cognition (TC), teaching speaking (TS) in English as a foreign language (EFL) and TC about TS in EFL. These fields are indispensable in providing a relevant backdrop and context in which to explore the various concepts that may contribute towards an understanding of the teaching of speaking in the grade 8 EFL classroom in The Faroe Islands.

The review is intended to facilitate the study of the implications of teacher actions in the EFL classroom for promoting learning in the speaking skill, which may be influenced by the teachers' epistemological understanding of the subject. It endeavours to offer a valid platform to contribute a qualified analysis of the complexity involved in understanding why Faroese teachers do what they do when they teach speaking, and how they do it.

In recent decades, researchers and experts in teacher education have focused their attention on the cognition of EFL teachers, i.e. what teachers know, believe and think. Borg (2003) has charted a concrete overview of TC in EFL education with the various perspectives that exist in the field. This has subsequently benefitted and gained impetus from continued research in TC. Hitherto, research in the field of teacher cognition in EFL highlights elements of TC in its complex, variegated forms, and its applicability in facilitating an understanding of the pedagogy involved. Focus is placed on the unequivocally critical role of teachers, the teachers' considerable influence on their praxis through their thinking and planning, and the resultant influence of their praxis on the students.

While the paucity of research on TC in TS makes it difficult to find comprehensive materials, very recent publications in the field of TS in EFL benefit this study as they offer relevant insights into the TS praxis. However, it appears that research in TC is taking a new direction towards an increasingly applied TC mode to improve the teaching of EFL as a whole, and TS in instances. In these studies, TC in TS concentrates mainly on the perceived self-efficacy of teachers in their ability to speak and teach English as non-native speakers (NNS) and their knowledge of teaching EFL speaking. This is particularly significant as globalisation has

ushered in an era of unprecedented interest in English language usage, which is a distinct trend in the expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1985), where English is taught by non-native speakers (NNS) of the language to other NNS. NNS are said to account for more than 80% of the English teaching profession globally (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999 in Braine, 2010).

It is of further interest and significance to my own study for two reasons: firstly, the Faroese setting is an EFL one and the teachers are NNS, and secondly, English is not a *lingua franca* in the country i.e. it is not the primary language for commercial or social purposes with that role being given to ‘Scandinavian’, which is a blend of Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Faroese.

English is a foreign language because it is not used in daily conversation, and the input outside formalised teaching is through media and the Internet. Formally, students have input in English in their EFL classes through their textbooks and less through teachers and peers speaking English in class. Students are taught English mainly through Faroese in the context of teachers speaking in the classroom, and through Danish, in the sense that Danish textbooks are used with Danish instructions and Danish to English glossary. These factors may colour both teaching and learning in the classroom.

The section below throws light on the relevant and significant issues in TC research.

## **2.1 Literature review for TC**

Research in TC and language teaching bears witness to the prodigious interest in this field. Some criteria for selection is required if one is to make sense of a nearly overwhelming amount of literature available. As the main areas of my study are TC and TS, it was essential to explore available materials for these as separate constructs and then in combination to provide a robust framework to study my cases.

The literature review will be divided into two chapters: chapter 2 is on TC and chapter 3 on TS. In chapter 2, I elucidate the concept of teacher cognition, its nature and components from a review of literature. I follow this with an examination of the congruence/incongruence dynamic between TC and praxis, which is one of the aims of the study. I reserve the ‘state of the art’ in the TC section for perspectives I perceive as being of specific relevance to the contextualisation of my study.

## **2.2 Definition of Teacher Cognition**

The concept of teacher cognition which underlies this study is perhaps best expressed in the words of one of the leading scholars within TC, Simon Borg, who defines teacher cognition as ‘the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think’ (Borg, 2003, p. 81) and later, ‘the study of what teachers know, think, and believe, and how these relate to what teachers do’ (Borg & Burns, 2008, p. 457). Borg (2006) includes assumptions, attitudes, beliefs, conceptions, knowledge, principles, theories, thinking and decision-making about the teaching environment, the actors involved and all the activities involved in the context of being a teacher within this definition. Borg further qualifies TC:

An often tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers which are dynamic, i.e., defined and redefined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers’ lives (Borg, 2006, p. 35).

The investigation of teachers' thoughts and beliefs reveals rationales behind their pedagogical decisions, which can be interpreted, judged, reviewed and applied as a universal approach when studying teachers anywhere in the world (Borg, 2009), which makes it relevant to the TC Faroese study. It is applicable to all disciplines of teaching and need not be confined to just language teaching in education. According to Graham, Santos and Francis-Brophy (2014) ‘cognition’ seems to encapsulate knowledge, beliefs and conceptualisations, and these are often used interchangeably in TC literature. Teacher cognition is key when attempting to gain an understanding of teachers’ actions, studied in the microcosm of their classrooms, or from a macrocosmic perspective, which sees them as a part of the larger social and educational environment.

## **2.3 A Brief Overview of Research in TC**

TC research seems to have focused on a variety of topics with grammar finding maximum representation, mirroring the profusion of studies on it in second language acquisition (SLA) research.

Borg’s (2015) TC bibliography highlights teachers’ knowledge of grammar, and their beliefs about teaching grammar and TC in literacy instruction which includes reading and writing

as fields that have been studied extensively. One article on TC on listening and two on TC on speaking were included, which suggests, that in general, these two skills are under-represented in TC studies. Other topics, classified broadly, comprise: pre-service teachers' knowledge, teacher training and change during teacher education, error correction and feedback, use of technology or how technology might distract from learning in the classroom, interactive decision-making, TC and language teachers' classroom practices focused on pedagogical knowledge, influence of contexts and student needs. This evident diversity in TC is seen to become even more complex when the varying contextual factors of the teaching-learning environment become significant players in research studies.

## **2.4 Components of Teacher Cognition**

Given the encompassing nature of the term 'teacher cognition', it is useful to attempt to chart a concise overview of the main 'components' of TC – teacher beliefs, teacher knowledge and teacher thinking (teacher thinking on any aspect of their roles), which are chosen from Borg's (2003) definition of TC as mentioned in 2.2. This is not to say that other aspects like emotion, attitudes, principles, etc., are not part of TC. This explication is specifically conducted to organise a complex research area into manageable chunks for processing to provide a workable, academic platform for my study. The three terms explicated are: teacher beliefs, teacher thinking and teacher knowledge.

TC research has engendered a plethora of terms which sometimes overlap for similar or identical concepts. Teacher values and beliefs have been explored by many researchers and to name but a few often-cited ones: Kagan (1992), Pajares (1992), Richards and Lockhart (1994) and Richardson (1996), and teachers' decision-making and planning processes by Borg (2003, 2006a; Woods, 1996, 2003, 2006).

Nias (1996) and Zembylas (2005) add yet another dimension to TC - teacher emotion, which is viewed as a significant influence on teacher classroom behaviour. Borg (2001) opines that regardless of whether beliefs are conscious or otherwise, they are influenced by 'emotive commitment' (p.186), which is important as teaching must involve emotions dealing as it does with interaction between people.

It is important to acknowledge that it is not possible to separate TC into its constituents when talking of an individual teacher's cognition. These individual constructs within the concept

of TC often blend together and run into shades of grey, depending on the idiosyncrasies of the studies involved as evidenced in the sections below. So, in using the term TC, I use it as an umbrella term in line with Borg’s definition:

Language teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work, and this can be described using various psychological constructs, which I collectively refer to as teacher cognition (Borg, 2006, p. 283).

In this sense, teacher cognition may be used interchangeably to refer to the concepts of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs in this study, in isolation or in combination.

### 2.4.1 Teacher Beliefs and Characteristics

Watson (2012) classifies the ways beliefs have been conceptualised by the various researchers. This table not only indicates the key characteristics of beliefs, but it also highlights what makes research in TC the challenging and difficult undertaking it is.

**Table 2.1 Conceptualisations of beliefs** (Watson, 2012, p. 37)

Propositional, expressed in statements	Rokeach 1968; Basturkmen 2004; Fives and Buehl, 2008
Tacit – implicit in language / statements / action, but not fully possible to render explicit	Kagan 1992; Calderhead 1996; Sahin <i>et al.</i> 2002
Conscious and unconscious	Calderhead 1987, 1996; Kagan 1990; Borg, M. 2004; Borg, S. 2003; Rim-Kaufman <i>et al.</i> 2006
Possible, difficult or impossible to articulate	Clandinin 1985; Calderhead 1987, 1996; Braithwaite 1999; Sahin 2002; Davis 2003; Tillema <i>et al.</i> 2006
Contextualised or decontextualised	(Pajares 1992; Twistelton 2002; Wyatt-Smith and Castleton 2005; Tillema <i>et al.</i> 2006; Phipps and Borg 2007
Consistent or inconsistent	Pajares 1992; White 2000; Basturkmen <i>et al.</i> 2004; Olafson and Schraw 2006
Static or transient; coherent or fragmented	Clandinin 1985; Doucet and Authner 2008

The crux of TC research is that teachers' thinking and actions are influenced by beliefs that are, as already outlined, idiosyncratic, personal, practical, tacit, systematic and not always identifiable by the teachers (Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1998).

Teacher beliefs have long been understood to affect teaching and influence student learning (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Beliefs about teaching and learning belong to a 'loosely bounded' belief system, which Rokeach (1968) defined as 'having represented within it, in some organized psychological but not necessarily logical form, each and every one of a person's countless beliefs about physical and social reality' (p. 2). Many studies have shown the direct effects of teacher beliefs on classroom practices (Borg, 2006; Li & Walsh, 2011; Ng & Farrell, 2003).

Individual teacher's beliefs about language learning and teaching are dynamic and differ based on different contexts and sometimes vary within the same contexts. Beliefs are unique to and true for the person who holds the beliefs shaped by experience as a teacher (Larenas, Hernández, Neira, Suárez & Navarrete, 2013; Freeman, 2002; Kasouta & Malatmisa, 2009 & Northcote, 2009). Beliefs 'appear more inconsistent than they perhaps are because of their context-specific nature' (Pajares, 1992, p. 319). Nespor (1987) sees belief systems as idiosyncratic and says that they do not require group consensus, which would be the case with knowledge systems.

Phipps and Borg (2007) indicate that teachers are markedly influenced by the way they have been/are taught. They present beliefs as the filter through which teachers interpret new information and experience, and say that beliefs resist change because they are deeply embedded in teachers' systems. As the influence of experience is greater than that of teacher education, it would be politic for teacher education to take note. Beliefs may be categorised in various ways as explained below.

#### **2.4.1.1. Categorisation of beliefs**

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) classify beliefs as stable with resistance to change or unstable and incorporating change over a period. In their view, depending on whether beliefs are implicit or explicit, the research methods used to elicit beliefs should be varied with research suggesting that the former be inferred from observation and the latter through interviews. The authors claim when studying what is implicit itself involves change, as the

very act of a teacher explicitly stating a belief leads to the implicit belief being modified while the teacher expresses it. The caveat of course is, as indicated earlier, teachers are not always able to voice their beliefs.

To attempt to understand the dynamism of beliefs, the role of context in TC studies becomes an imperative factor (Gao & Ma, 2011). Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) further reiterate that despite professing to have certain beliefs, teachers may seem to change these depending on the context of their actions. In their opinion, the best way to understand and document specific and general beliefs would be **in the context of a classroom at any given point in time** (my emphasis).

Fives and Buehl (2012) argue that beliefs are not hard to define, but it is ensuring consistency in usage of terms by authors in this field that proves problematic. Based on their studies of over 627 articles on TC up to 2005, they offer key facets of beliefs and provide a convenient and important thumbnail view of a complex area dividing beliefs into categories such as: implicit/explicit; stable/dynamic; knowledge and belief as distinct, related or same and whether they are individual or system based.

Skott (2015) defines what he views as the core concept of belief reflected in TC:

Individual, subjectively true, value-laden mental constructs that are relatively stable results of substantial social experiences & have significant impact on one's interpretations of and contributions to classroom practice (Skott, 2013, in Skott, 2015, p. 19).

Thompson (1992, p. 140) declares:

Belief systems are dynamic, permeable mental structures, susceptible to change in light of experience... The relationship between beliefs and practice is a dialectic, not a simple cause-and-effect relationship.

It could be argued that this dialectic relationship poses a significant challenge to my study when studying teachers in action, as congruence/incongruence between beliefs and action may be fully or partially evident or accessible, but not necessarily the reasons for them. While teacher beliefs may defy a unilateral definition, this does not undermine its validity as there is 'sufficient consensus' (Skott, 2015) about the fundamental aspect of the concept to justify research in TC because research has incontrovertibly documented that teacher beliefs impact behaviour in the context of the teaching environment. Beliefs appear to be

hierarchical in the individual teacher's schema and influence teacher decision-making in the context of a dynamic environment.

#### **2.4.1.2. Tension between core and peripheral beliefs**

Kumaravadivelu (2012) distinguishes between core and peripheral beliefs. He sees core beliefs as being more dominant in shaping teachers' instructional approaches than peripheral beliefs, which may account for the divergence between what teachers claim they do and indeed do.

Core beliefs are seen to be 'experientially ingrained, while peripheral beliefs, though theoretically embraced, will not be held with the same level of conviction' (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 381). The authors found that teachers may have domain-general epistemological beliefs influencing their approaches in various areas of teaching, while concurrently holding beliefs specific to the areas i.e. a teacher may believe that fluency is important in a foreign language, while holding that teaching grammar and making students learn conjugations by rote will contribute to making them good speakers. However, peripheral beliefs may not be expressed in action if teachers have not accepted them through 'personal first hand experience' (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 388). Therefore, personal and professional experiences appear to be pivotal to teachers embracing certain beliefs in specific contexts. According to these authors, teachers' practice will not indicate tension when both kinds of beliefs co-exist harmoniously.

Fives and Buehl (2012) posit that core beliefs are more intransigent than peripheral beliefs, and therefore, have a significant impact on practice. The former are strong beliefs and stable compared to the latter peripheral beliefs, which are weaker, and do not involve teacher commitment in the same way as core ones. There could be tension between these subsets of beliefs as cited earlier (Birello, 2012).

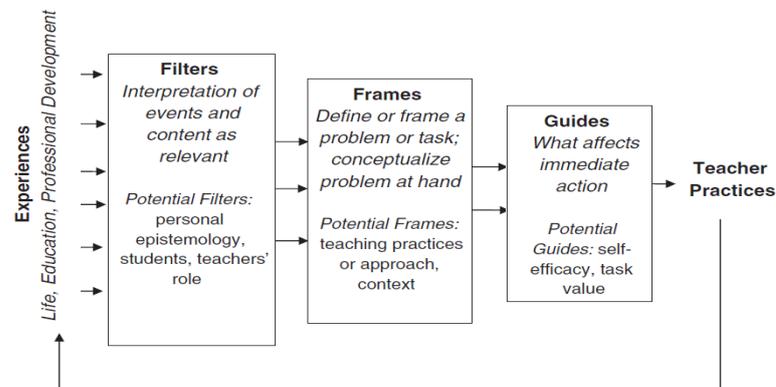
The change in core beliefs seems to be a much slower process than the one in peripheral beliefs. The core beliefs highlight the methods teachers may have used with some degree of success, i.e. they are highly related to and influenced by experience and become intrinsic to the individual teacher. These beliefs may remain in the teaching repertoire by virtue of habit even though they may not fulfil the teaching goals given the dynamic nature of teaching

contexts. Borg (in Birello, 2012) makes it clear that possible tensions between core and peripheral beliefs are an indication of the complexity of TC.

Farrell (2013) makes the point that teachers who wish to establish change in their management of teaching and learning may benefit from reflecting on the correspondence between beliefs and practice to understand their own actions and empower the intended changes. Borg (in Birello, 2012) notes that when beliefs lie in opposition, the indications are that peripheral beliefs may be discarded in practice, thereby sacrificed to the vagaries of classroom environments and teachers' decision - making. This may be a weakness in the teacher's arsenal of praxis if the peripheral belief is one that is sound and can contribute to an effective way of teaching.

### 2.4.1.3. Functions of beliefs

Fives and Buehl (2012) identify three functions which beliefs serve in relation to teachers' actions: filters for interpretation, frames for defining problems, and guides or standards for action. They illustrate this as follows:



**Fig. 2.1 Functions of beliefs** (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 478)

*Filters for interpretation:* It stands to reason that one's grasp of reality is viewed through the lens of personal experience which colours the world we see. For teachers, this means they must have been influenced by how they learnt during school, teacher education and what they gleaned from their experience as pre- and in-service teachers. This would in turn colour their teaching in terms of what they choose to teach and the teaching approach they adopt.

*Frames for defining problems:* Beliefs are used to frame or design a problem or task. Once beliefs filters have influenced the information teachers receive from the environment, these beliefs shape the way tasks are framed or conceptualised to achieve a match between task and belief.

*Guides/standards for action:* Teachers' beliefs about their self-efficacy, their expectations of success in outcomes and the value they put on their tasks are said to be motivational. These guide their actions when it comes to setting goals, making efforts to fulfil these goals, overcoming challenges and the emotions experienced during their teaching. Teachers' self-efficacy is a pivotal issue as their self-confidence in, for example, being able to teach speaking will influence how they carry out TS and if they teach it at all in EFL.

There is distinct consensus in the field that teachers are a key factor in teaching, their beliefs significant and the influence beliefs have on their actions seen to be tremendously important, notwithstanding the direct transferability of beliefs to praxis or otherwise. How beliefs may in turn underpin actions is dealt with in the next section.

#### **2.4.1.4 Theories of action and beliefs**

According to Li and Walsh (2011, p. 39), teachers' beliefs are said to be:

... stated or enacted (cf. 'professed' and 'attributed', Speer 2005), and there is considerable disagreement as to the precise relationship between stated/professed and enacted/attributed beliefs, partly because this is a highly complex relationship and partly because it is dependent on other factors, such as local context.

Underlying all the views of beliefs, context emerges as a significant key player in the relationship between TC and teaching.

According to Argyris (1995), there is a distinction between espoused theories and theories-in-use. Espoused beliefs are used to describe one's behaviour and the justification for it. They characterise explicitly stated beliefs when people are asked to account for their behaviour, e.g. through interviews. They are shared with others and are beliefs that individuals appear to value and hold dear. Argyris (1974) defines theories-in-use as beliefs which determine action. They may or may not enjoy compatibility with espoused theories,

and can be inferred from observation of behaviour. The author argues that theories-in-use may not be accurate in their depiction of the behaviour they describe.

Beliefs weave an intricate web of influence that guides teacher actions and strategies and underscores the importance of studying beliefs, while simultaneously posing a dilemma for the researcher given the complexity of the variables that contribute to their shaping and existence. The next section looks at yet another component of TC, teacher knowledge and deals with the kinds of knowledge and the nature of knowledge with the intention of stressing the multifaceted nature of the TC construct.

### **2.4.2 Teacher knowledge**

Some researchers view beliefs and knowledge as discrete concepts (Calderhead 1996; Kagan 1990; Pajares 1992), while others see them as non-discrete, synonymous or interchangeable. Another distinction as propounded by Woods (1996) sees beliefs as subjective and knowledge as objective with the former being implicit and the latter explicit. He underlines the changeable nature of BAK, i.e. teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge wherein those experiences, which are at odds with their BAK, contribute to a dynamism of TC, as cognition absorbs, processes and works with the input received to modify itself over a course of time, despite possible initial resistance.

Grossman and Richert (1988) define teacher knowledge as professional knowledge with a duality i.e. constituting knowledge of general pedagogical principles and skills and knowledge of the subject matter. Knowledge, to quote Richardson, (1996, p. 104 in Fives & Buehl, 2015, p. 472) 'implies an epistemological warrant', and he therefore makes a distinction between the knowledge of the subject and the knowledge of teaching the subject.

According to Shulman (2004), teacher knowledge base can be categorised as follows: content knowledge (CK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts and knowledge of educational ends. Given below is Shulman's (1986) overview of teacher knowledge.

• General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
• Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
• Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
• Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds
• Content knowledge
• Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade” for teachers
• Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding

**Fig. 2.2 Shulman’s major categories of teacher knowledge** (ETS, 2011, p. 2)

Clark and Peterson (1984) present the nature of teacher practical knowledge as posited by Elbaz (1981), who identifies curriculum, subject matter instruction, milieu and self as comprising practical knowledge. She qualifies teachers’ practical knowledge in terms of structural forms: i. rules of practice (a guide with brief formulated statements to cope with varying teaching situations, with the rule being implemented in an appropriate situation) ii. practical principles (gleaned from personal experience, exemplifies a purpose and is a result of contemplation. Principles do not only guide teacher action, but elucidate the reason that promotes the action), and iii. images (personal images of what constitutes good teaching embedded in the consciousness of the individual, which finds intuitive expression through metaphors and analogies). Teacher knowledge in the author’s view is acquired and developed through field experience and cannot be acquired solely through teacher education.

Other facets studied within the umbrella of knowledge include teachers’ personal practical knowledge (PPK), which Connelly & Clandinin define as ‘a moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life’s educational situations’ (1988, p. 59). According to Clandinin (1985), PPK exerts a distinct and powerful influence on teachers’ lives even if it remains tacit or logically indeterminate.

Meijer, Verloop and Beijaard’s (1999) study on similarities and differences in teachers’ practical knowledge about reading instruction revealed that the shared knowledge of teachers was 13.1%, while extensive differences were seen in their praxis, showing that knowledge does not always transfer into practice in a logical manner or in a convenient one to one congruity.

Turner-Bisset (2001) speaks of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as an ‘amalgam’ (p. 19) of all kinds of knowledge. In her words, it is ‘as the nine-tenths of the iceberg below the waterline: the observable aspects of teaching are the visible one-tenth of the iceberg’ (p.

144). Turner-Bisset's (2001) division of knowledge of learning into empirical knowledge of learners (promoting understanding of students and their requirements, which can govern teacher decision-making in selection of materials and approaches to suit varying teaching contexts and influence teacher-student dynamic) and cognitive knowledge (providing insight into theories of how learners develop and knowledge unique to a group of learners) is noteworthy as it hints at the complexity of the concept of teacher knowledge.

Tsui (2003, p. 65 in Andrews, 2003) sees PCK as 'an integrated coherent whole'. Therefore, it is inextricably linked to the act of teaching. It can be viewed as '... two intertwined dimensions, the management of teaching and learning and the enactment of the curriculum in the classroom' (Tsui, 2003, p. 66 in Andrews, 2003). In reflecting on their work, teachers establish the link between their knowledge and praxis.

Buehl and Fives (2009, p. 5) identified the following sources for teachers' epistemological beliefs about knowledge for teaching: formal education, formal bodies of knowledge, observational learning, collaboration with others, personal teaching experiences, and self-reflection. CK and PCK are crucial for teacher competence in their professions and are related to student achievement.

Kleickman, Richter, Kunter, Elsner, Besser, Krauss and Baumert (2013) studied the PCK and CK of four groups of mathematics teachers from Germany in varying points of their profession. They found that teachers' instructional practice and their students' achievement gains are influenced by subject-matter knowledge and PCK is documented to have a pivotal impact on instructional quality. The authors outline that CK involves the teacher's comprehension of the subject he/she is teaching, while PCK is knowledge required to convey or communicate the subject to the learners. 'According to Shulman (1986), [t]he teacher need not only understand that something is so, the teacher must further understand why it is so' (Kleickmann *et al.*, 2013, p. 91). The authors identify two pivotal aspects which comprise PCK: knowledge of student conceptions and misconceptions in a subject, and knowledge of teaching strategies and representations of the said subject.

Werquin (2010 in Kleickmann, *et al* 2013) identifies three sources of subject matter knowledge that contribute to building teacher knowledge: 'the apprenticeship of observation' from schooling, teacher education with professional development, and finally, experiences gleaned from teaching. The first three are formal and deliberate learning opportunities, and the last one is informal and incidental. Within formal learning, there is a

non-formal aspect, *viz.*, mentoring programmes, learning in peer groups, seeking learning of specific skills consciously and the like which are deliberative, but are neither *in situ* nor awarded qualifications. According to Kleickmann *et al.* (2013), CK can be acquired through schooling (i.e., formal input), and PCK through ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (i.e. non-formal input). Teacher education and professional development create opportunities for acquiring CK and PCK both formally and informally. ‘...teaching experience is a prototypical form of informal learning’ (Kleickmann *et al.*, 2013, p. 92).

Beliefs colour knowledge and actions. ‘Beliefs are anchored knowledge. They exhibit the knowledge that is most worth and has proven itself in action’ (Larenas, Hernandez, & Navarrete, 2015, p. 172).

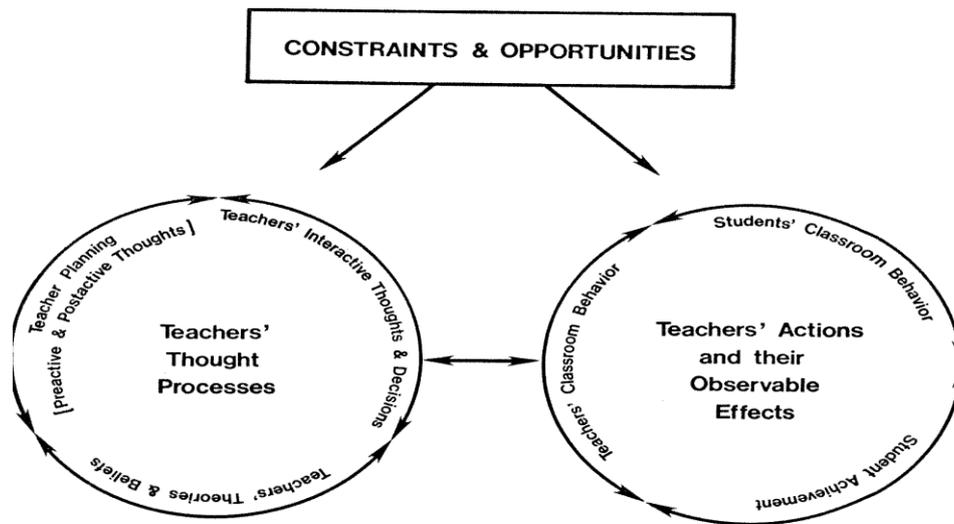
The distinction between declarative (‘knowing that’) and procedural teacher knowledge (‘knowing how’) focuses on understanding how knowledge transfers to teaching performance in the classroom. L2 teacher knowledge research in curricular areas includes sources of teacher knowledge, the relationship between teacher knowledge and classroom teaching practices, and components of teacher knowledge.

The aim of the following section is to explore the final construct of TC to be studied, which is teacher thinking, and the impact this has on classroom actions.

### **2.4.3 Teacher thinking**

In their study of teachers' thought processes, Clark and Peterson (1984) establish that ‘a major goal of the research on teachers' thought processes is to increase our understanding of how and why the process of teaching looks and works as it does’ (p. 7). ‘Teacher behaviour is substantially influenced and even determined by teachers’ thought processes’ (Clark & Peterson, 1984, p. 2). Research indicates that teachers’ interactive thoughts are primarily about students (anywhere between 39% and 50%), then instructional behaviour and procedures, content, materials and learning objectives (Clark & Peterson, 1984). ‘It is believed that teachers make decisions frequently (one every two minutes) during interactive teaching’ (Clark & Peterson, 1984, p. 126).

They identify teachers as ‘reflective and thoughtful professionals’ (p. 127) with a purposive approach to their praxis.



**Fig. 2.3 A model of teacher thought and action** (Clark & Petersen 1984, p. 8)

The circles represent observable and unobservable teacher behaviour, with reciprocity of influence. The causal relationship between these two sections is cyclical rather than linear and exhibits a dialectic relationship. Teacher thinking, in the authors' view, comprises three facets with the first two being distinct in time frame.

- i. Teacher planning including pre-active thoughts and post-active thoughts.
- ii. Teachers' interactive thoughts (which occur during the active process of teaching), and decisions that occur within the classroom while the teacher is teaching.
- iii. Theories and beliefs that teachers hold.

Clark and Peterson (1984) put store by the distinction between teachers' thinking while teaching as categorically different from the thoughts that teachers have when not having student interaction. They use the term teacher planning as the covering term for pre- and post-active thoughts. This represents the thoughts teachers have prior to class time and their reflections on their work post class time, which feeds forward to subsequent classroom interaction.

Teachers' thoughts and beliefs affect their planning and classroom interaction and, in turn, teachers may build theories and beliefs during interaction and during planning as the arrows in the figure indicate. Constraints and opportunities are perceived as the external factors (like

school environments) that influence teacher thinking in many ways. Thus, teacher actions are seen to impact and be impacted by thought processes.

Teachers' interactive decision-making is defined by Richards (1994) as 'improvisational performance' (p. 10) in classrooms, and its impact on student behaviour within tasks reveals that teachers constantly make rapid decisions and seemingly group diverse events and cues into manageable categories to deal with appropriately. The teachers appear to rank them in order of significance and exhibit a great deal of flexibility in changing classroom interaction as required (Doyle, 1977; Morine & Vallance, 1975). Nunan (1992) found that classroom management and organisation issues encompassed majority of teachers' interactive thinking, with pre-activity planning playing a beneficial role in this changeable context. In this manner, it appears that the stage for interactive decision-making could be constructed to support teacher actions.

Shulman (1984) in his studies of teacher planning and decision-making within the classroom environment highlights that teachers face very many interrelated and complex decision-making situations without a perfect solution. Lampert (1985) notes that these conundrums can only be sorted on an incidental basis using knowledge accrued from teacher experimentation and learning to arrive at tried and true methods of action to achieve learning outcomes. This experimentation enables teachers to acquire a store of personal practical knowledge about how to get their job done (Clandinin & Connelly, 1984; Elbaz, 1981) as previously mentioned.

Classroom problems result in practical dilemmas (Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Lampert, 1985) that can be solved in interaction with students, but nevertheless create an environment marked by extreme uncertainty and 'knot' teachers' thinking (Wagner, 1984). Context moulds the teacher's thinking and allows the teacher to make sense of his or her environment in a way that facilitates the operational demands of the profession.

A large part of teacher thinking and planning must be spent on creating an acceptable, ideally functioning environment to facilitate learning and motivate learners. Teachers must work hard to identify common denominators in student interests, ensure they have effective tactics to meet students' social and emotional needs, and overall help students to become self-reliant individuals with a view to inculcating lifelong learning ability. This implies that teachers need to know their students and reflect on and know themselves. Richards (1994) points out

that it makes more sense to see teacher expertise as an experiential, tried and tested theory of teaching than speak of teachers mastering principles and theories outlined by others.

Verloop, van Driel and Meijer (2001) make the point that teachers construct their concepts, ideas and views on matters important to them as professionals, but may do so without definitively compartmentalising whether they are dealing with beliefs, thoughts or knowledge in their minds. These may well be overlapping concepts in teachers' minds - 'components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions and intuitions are inextricably intertwined' (Verloop, van Driel & Meijer, 2001, p. 446).

Research in this field is not only challenging, but nearly confusing, as it cannot fully capture the intricacies of teacher actions based on their thoughts. Teachers are required to perform their conceptually and cognitively complex jobs daily, and their actions seldom reflect this turbulence. What is evident is that the characteristics of TC cast light on the complexity of the construct to be studied in conjunction with teaching speaking.

To capture this complexity of teachers' 'inner lives' (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436), the term teacher cognition, comprising as it does the constructs outlined, seems appropriate terminology for the study. Within the scope of TC, the years of teaching experience become a valid variable of TC as is explained in the section below.

#### **2.4.4 Experienced versus inexperienced teachers**

It is useful and necessary to focus on teacher action in the framework of TC, where the contrast between experience and inexperience and its role in teaching become valid parameters. In teacher development, inexperienced teachers cannot have stability in their teaching approach and thought processes in planning and teaching to the extent the experienced teachers do. It is safe to assume that this is normally the premise of the experienced teachers. Obviously, it is important to acknowledge that inexperienced teachers are in the process of growing as teachers, and therefore, it is assumed that with increased experience, they too would have acquired processes that make their teaching more rounded. A comparison of the the concept of experienced and inexperienced teachers is enumerated in the table below:

**Table 2.2 Differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers** (Henriksen, 2015, s.6. own translation)

Experienced teachers	Inexperienced teachers
Their formal/theoretical and experiential knowledge are integrated. Can anticipate problems. Are sensitive/listen to students and show flexibility in responding to them. Enjoy greater professional discourse. Focus on both general and subject specific pedagogical knowledge. Automate routines. Pre-activity and multi-interactive decision making. Here and now decisions with greater overall flexibility in changing plans.	Have compartmentalised knowledge. Are inflexible and less varied in their processes. More focus on general pedagogical than subject-specific knowledge. Lack automatization of routines. More pre-activity planning and less online decision making.

According to Basturkmen (2012), experienced teachers have more experiential beliefs that have been influenced by their teaching experience than inexperienced teachers. She adds that presumably, experientially-derived knowledge is more anchored in teacher action than knowledge derived from study. In this phase, knowledge and belief are comparable, and in time, teachers may automatise explicit knowledge and their implicit ability might manifest through noticing, reflection and discussion.

Gess Newsome and Lederman (1999) see an expert teacher as one who can draw upon knowledge bases easily and flexibly to meet the various teaching requirements. Gatbonton (2008) believes that stability of experienced teachers can be attributed to the many opportunities they have had to hone their skills through trial and error.

Leinhardt and Greeno (1984) described the cognitive structures that teachers use to accommodate the reality of the classroom environment in their pre-planned activity and found that experienced teachers showed mastery of the ability to retain classroom dynamics and be student-oriented. They could think on their feet and cope with new developments, and successfully maintain the focus of the session.

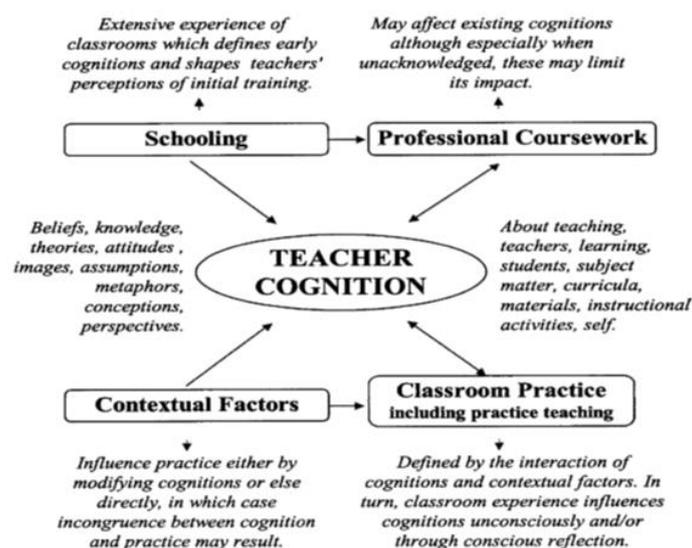
This is not to say that experienced teachers are left with no scope for further development. Indications are that they do so in the later stages of their careers (Tsui, 2005). It is also important to note that experienced teachers are not necessarily better teachers. They are also the most resistant to change (Gooya, 2007, Fives & Buehl, 2012), and if change is imperative

in their teaching approach in the context of school demands and efficacy, this can be problematic. Newer teachers with less experience may be more knowledgeable about new teaching approaches and theories and may be more willing to adapt either because they are still open to change or do not feel threatened by new developments.

The next section explores the various sources of TC and contributes to understanding why TC is of pivotal importance when we try to probe teacher action in the classroom context. These attributes are powerful and indicate the personal/professional routes that teachers must and do travel in constructing their modes of teaching. It is this proverbial ‘burden’ acquired through the various stages of teacher development that may seem impermeable and resist change.

## 2.5 The sources of TC

Borg (2003) places teacher cognition in the context of its significant role in teachers’ professional lives. The four sources of beliefs and the uni-directional (schooling and contextual factors) where the influence on TC cannot be reciprocal or bi-directional influence (classroom practice and professional coursework) where the relationship with TC is reciprocal, is illustrated below:



**Fig. 2.4 Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education and classroom practice**  
(Borg 2003, p. 82)

The concept of teacher beliefs embedded in TC is qualified by Richards and Lockhardt (1994) who assert that teachers' belief systems are entrenched in numerous sources: personal experience as language learners, what worked best in their language learning journey, the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975 in Borg, 2004), the already existing teaching practice, personality traits, principles inspired by education or research, and preference for principles of a particular approach. Richards, Gallo and Renandya (2001) argue that teachers' first perception of teaching is their subjective experience of learning in school.

Richardson (1996) outlines three forms of experiences viz., personal experience (as a student before teacher education), experience with schooling and instruction (in the context of teaching practice in the field), and experience with formal knowledge, which could be active influences on TC in different periods in a teacher's life. Borg (2003) says teacher cognition about learning and language learning originates in teachers' 'apprenticeship of observation' and is the basis for their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching in the course of teacher education, and may impact teachers throughout their careers.

The next section studies the congruence and incongruence between TC and praxis with a view to emphasising the difficulties involved in studying TC in context and the validity of constructing a framework to analyse the focus area of this study. Therefore, studying TC in context is not only relevant, but valuable.

## **2.6. Congruence and Incongruence between TC and praxis**

The significance of TC gains purpose from the relation it has with practice and ultimately to student achievement and outcome. The inherent difficulty in establishing the parameters of TC makes the relationship between TC and praxis problematic too. Studies from late 1990s and 2000 onwards explore the dichotomy between beliefs and praxis. They range from macro studies of overall teaching and learning (Olafson & Schraw, 2006; Lam & Kember, 2006) to micro studies which concentrate on aspects of a curriculum (Miller and Smith, 2004; Wyatt-Smith & Castleton, 2004; Wray, 2007). They reveal that grammar teaching is heavily represented in TC studies.

There are many studies that establish both congruence and incongruence between TC and praxis. Farrell and Kun, (2008) and Basturkmen (2007) indicate that English language teaching studies seem to show a mismatch, a slight connection at best or incongruence.

Interestingly, as the authors point out, even within the TC of an individual teacher, there are conflicting beliefs which exert their influence to contribute to a greater chance of mismatch. Li (2013) in her review of literature on the methodology of TC research, reiterates Borg's findings (Borg, 2003; 2006) that EFL research has not enjoyed much attention and argues for the importance of research in this area to facilitate a better understanding of language teachers and their pedagogy. She classifies three distinct trends as paraphrased below:

- i. Research conducted using the cognitive aspect of beliefs as fixed images of teachers' mental lives devoid of interaction and contextual influence. (Studies have been conducted which do look at beliefs within context, but at the macro level of educational policies).
- ii. Research eliciting teachers' perceptions through questionnaires and interviews, as a basis for comparison with their classroom activities generally. (Moment-by-moment decisions and their impact on interaction, learning and teaching practices not represented).
- iii. Empirical research of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice has focused on ESL (English as a second language) contexts to the detriment of research in EFL with NNS and foreign language speakers of English. Breen et al. (2001), Phipps and Borg (2009), Li and Walsh (2011) are cited as giving focus to EFL.

In EFL teaching, factors that appear to promote congruence appear to be teacher expertise and level of development (Basturkmen, 2012; Buehl & Beck, 2015). If beliefs are in the process of development, they are transitional beliefs, and there is less chance they will be enacted in the classroom. The reverse must be true too - new practices would not have had the time to impact TC. Praxis which proves successful or unsuccessful will take time to make an impression on TC.

Behavioural change and cognitive change are varying, but relevant concepts. Behavioural change is seen in action, however incremental, based, for example, on the response to a school policy change, while cognitive change indicates a new way of understanding that may engender change. In teacher education, the distinction between the two are important as Borg (2003) points out that behavioural change does not mean there is cognitive change or vice versa, and cognitive change is slow to manifest itself.

On the other hand, Lockwood (2007) says factors that lead to incongruence can be attributed to teachers' lack of knowledge of instructional practices, lack of self-awareness in the sense that they do not register what they are doing, and the impact their teaching has on students.

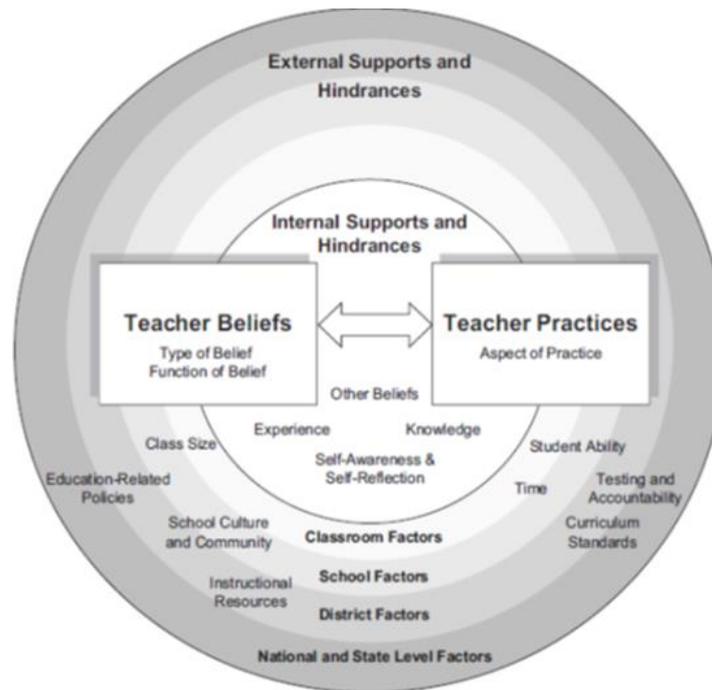
Other factors include contextual elements and the culture of teaching practice. Carlman (2004) attributes mismatches to the teachers being at ‘different points in their ability to examine their teaching practices’ (p. 197).

Buehl and Beck (2015) have reviewed studies in the field from 2008-2012 and speak of grades of congruency or incongruency in studying praxis given the overweening role of contextual factors in the field of education. They make a convincing case for the intricacy inherent in the reciprocity of influence between TC and practice. The writers see TCs as both ‘precursors’ and ‘predictors’ of teacher practice, and controvertibly, practice shapes teacher beliefs and may have an influence on several beliefs simultaneously. These may vary depending on the context and the individuals involved.

### **2.6.1 Supports or hindrances to TC and praxis**

Fives and Buehl (2012) say that in the relationship between beliefs and practice, neither a total match nor complete mismatch exists. This must be kept in mind, and as Buehl and Beck (2015) argue, researchers must seek to understand the reasons for congruence or incongruence and the consequences of this match or mismatch. Their explanation of their model below offers interesting insight into the complexity of TC and praxis.

Buehl and Beck (2015) classify factors that hinder congruence as internal or external to the teacher. They describe that internal factors influence whether teachers’ cognitions allow teachers to practice or otherwise, and the factors are usually the role of other cognitions, knowledge, experience and teachers’ self-awareness and self-reflection. Teachers’ knowledge and skill clearly influence whether they can enact their cognition in the content they teach. The beliefs they have in student ability and their interest in student performance makes an impact on TC. Self-reflection is valid as teachers can identify beliefs and practices that require revamping and take steps to achieve this, thereby creating the thinking professional who can best serve the teaching and learning communities.



**Fig. 2.5 Relationship between teachers’ beliefs & practices in a system of internal & external supports & hindrances (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 74)**

External factors are those that influence classroom settings: student ability, student attitudes, their preferences for instruction, and class size. At the school context level, perceived barriers prove to be: administration, availability or dearth of resources for teaching and professional development, and organisational culture of the school. These authors see a correspondence between classroom practice, teacher self-efficacy beliefs, and the overall teaching efficacy in a school.

To sum up, the contextual barriers to a one-to-one correspondence between TC and praxis include: the kind of classes taught and student response, the organisational culture, educational policies, relationship with colleagues and the identification of teaching success with student outcomes (Curtiss & Nistler, 1998; Braithwaite, 1999; Borg, 1998, 2006; Miller & Smith, 2004; Smith, 2005; Olafson & Schraw, 2006; Lee, 2009). Lam and Kember (2006) indicate that increasing contextual influence is directly proportionate to the way teachers teach; in the case of strong contextual influences, a complete disassociation may be effected between TC and action, of which, examinations may be one such influence.

Research on beliefs points to the fact that teachers who are in possession of clearly defined beliefs reflect these in their teaching (Youngs & Qian, 2013; Zhang, 2013). Implications of

belief and action congruency or incongruency for teaching as described in 2.6 are explored next.

### **2.6.2 Significance of congruency and incongruency**

Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) indicate that there are differences between stated beliefs and observed teaching praxis which could lead to inconsistency, but claim that these gaps should be regarded as ‘potentially conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent’ (p. 268) because the kinds of beliefs under study and their characteristics impede the chance of a simple one-to-one correlation between TC and praxis.

For teachers to remedy their teaching to achieve alignment is potentially challenging as Fang (1996) explains that the demands on the time and resources of the teacher in the classroom environment may be the barrier which prevents total alignment between cognition and praxis. Borg declares that it is ‘simplistic’ (Birello, 2012, p. 91) to expect teachers to have a fixed set of beliefs that result in specific teacher actions. In his opinion, the significant issues would be the reasons for the incongruence, and not the congruence or incongruence of beliefs and actions per se.

Northcote (2009) concludes that a lack congruence between teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices should be used as an opportunity to analyse and interpret language learning and teaching, without seeing it as a flaw.

It is important to mention that congruence between TC and praxis need not always be desirable, especially, if the beliefs held are dysfunctional and diametrically opposed, or even unsuitable to the teaching goals to be fulfilled to achieve learning outcomes. Congruence, in this instance, may well result in inefficient practice.

Researchers and teacher educators are viewed as playing a role in enabling teachers to identify and explore their own beliefs, so as practitioners they are encouraged to reflect upon, modify and prioritise their beliefs (Wyatt-Smith & Castleton, 2004; Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, given that the contextual factors (be they social, institutional or physical settings) impact teacher action, it is of paramount importance to follow up on what research indicates (Farrell, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Masuda, 2012) is a strong link between beliefs and practice in teacher education.

TC is perceived as a composite construct, and the role it plays when teachers take decisions about their teaching suggests a maelstrom of issues to sort through to derive TC about TS in context.

## 2.7 TC and the classroom environment

The multifarious factors that shape TC and their impact have been discussed in earlier sections. They are pivotal to understanding teacher action in the classroom environment as a complete or partial expression of TC on TS. Speaking in an EFL classroom is shown to be a problematic issue (this will be discussed in chapter 3), which makes understanding the role of classroom environment to my study contextually indispensable.

TC and its significance to the classroom environment is an important factor. It is the classroom that is the central environment to the teacher's profession. To quote Rubie-Davies (2015, p. 266):

The classroom climate can be understood as a combination of the interrelated instructional (**teaching and learning** - my insertion) and socioemotional (**interactions between people with varying power relationships** - my insertion) environments shaped by teachers and created with students in classrooms.

The former finds its roots in the instructional practices and 'pedagogical decisions', and the latter through interaction of teachers with the students, their relationship with them, and the relationships established by students with other students.

Rubie-Davies (2015) reiterates that TC on teaching and student learning has a direct effect on how teachers establish relationship with their students through their choice of teaching methods. Learning in the classroom then is under the two-pronged influence of instructional context and socioemotional context. This is key as in the words of Rubie-Davies (2015):

'...the core of teaching and learning are relationships' and these can have a positive or detrimental effect on the process: ...interpersonal relationships of the classroom contribute substantially to the classroom climate' (p. 269).

The positive synergy generated by these relationships must be pivotal in creating a climate conducive to learning. Anxiety is a very present element in foreign language learning -

further exploration of the topic in terms of anxiety associated with speaking in EFL classrooms will be kept for chapter 3.

The following section affords an insight into the ‘state of the art’ in the field of TC in recent years. In doing this, I attempt to create a platform that is current in the field solely for the contextualisation and focus of my study.

## **2.8 Development in TC research**

In the last couple of years or so, different perspectives have been brought to bear upon TC. Current research reveals significant, different paradigms, which highlight specific dimensions of the concept and place an unequivocal emphasis on context. This does not necessarily undermine the relevance of prior TC research, but insists on making the field more dynamic and accountable towards improving teacher education. This is done with a view to impacting teaching proactively, and demands a kind of commitment and accountability – a moral, ethical one from research in this field.

### **2.8.1 Ontological Generations in Studying the Language-Teaching Mind**

Burns, Freeman and Edwards (2015) attempt to map the ‘Language-teaching mind’, which is where teachers are ‘... making decisions and negotiating competing contextual demands to shape curriculum and pedagogy towards learning’ (p. 587), and draw attention to the developments in TC research, which places the teachers as the principal actors in the classroom as the point of departure. They attempt to provide an overview of the trends in TC research and describe their classification as an attempt to organise the TC field. The third and fourth generations are still in their inception phases.

Burns *et al* (2015) chart the ontology of teacher as thinker in TC research, and classify four periods from 1990s to 2010s using a seminal publication to classify a period and highlight the characteristics of these four phases as seen in table 2.3 and the description that follows. (The generations are not viewed as discrete or completed, because current studies may still fall within the ethos of these four periods).

**Table 2.3 Ontological Generations in Studying the Language-Teaching Mind** (Burns et al., 2015, p. 589)

<b>Ontological Generations</b>	<b>Conceptual Unit of Study</b>	<b>Prevailing Research Methodologies</b>
Individualist [1990 ff]	Decisions, thoughts, beliefs	Often quantitative, surveys (belief inventories), observations and stimulated recall interviews, frequency tallies.
Social [1995 ff]	Meaning and explanations, situated in social contexts	Qualitative, introspective methods such as diary studies and in-depth interviews.
Sociohistorical [2000 ff]	Thinking as a function of place and time, through interaction and negotiation with social and historical contexts.	Qualitative, interviews and narrative inquiry. Researcher positioning is important, and often the research process consists of co-constructed researcher–participant dialogue.
Complex, chaotic systems [2010 ff]	Dynamic, emergent systems that involve the interaction of multiple interconnected elements.	Qualitative, interviews, diary studies, analysis of interactions. Research includes analysis of social, cultural, historical and political factors.

### **Phase 1: Individualist ontology in language TC research 1990s**

In the first half of the 1990s, the ontological focus was individualist and cognitivist, examining the beliefs the language teacher held, how and why these beliefs were constructed, and how they related to practice. The predominant analytical unit used in this phase of research was the decisions and decision-making processes that could be discerned in teacher practice. Cognitions were shown to be complex, conceptual processes that were interrelated and that teacher decision-making could not be viewed in isolation.

### **Phase 2: Social ontology in language TC research 1995**

Research focused on the contextualised nature of language teacher cognition with teacher thinking and beliefs viewed both as shifting and contextualised. Teaching and learning were viewed as occurring in sociocultural contexts. TC appears sensitive to contextual factors from the microcosm of the individual classroom to the macrocosm of the community. Context was seen to be of two kinds: context of place and context of mind. This second generational ontology is considered social because it factors in a combination of internal and external factors. Studies moved away from the quantitative paradigm to one of qualitative interpretation and meaning. It also signalled a shift in perspective from the researchers'

views to looking at the participants' conceptualisations and combined the emic and etic views.

### **Phase 3: Sociohistorical ontology in language TC research 2000**

The focus of this research was sociohistorical concentrating on studying the development of expertise. The setting for language teaching was the interaction in context between teachers' personal predilections and social practices (Burns *et al.*, 2015). Research analysis gave importance to depicting thinking as a function of place and time expressed through interaction or negotiation. Techniques such as narrative inquiry were adopted to glean language teacher knowledge and development. Focus was given to the emotional aspects of language teacher learning and teacher identity. The role of the researcher in representing meaning and the researcher stance on TC were contributing to the research process. In the sociohistorical ontology, according to Burns *et al.* (2015, p. 597):

... the context becomes a text that accompanies the text of the teacher's cognition; it is thus a context that weaves together the teacher's actions and thoughts. Attention shifts from the objects themselves - what the teacher thinks - to how that cognition is interwoven in place, time, and relationship.

### **Phase 4: The complex, chaotic systems ontology in language TC 2010**

Complex and dynamic systems theory are slowly beginning to impact TC research in the way they view the connectedness of TC and practice. They highlight the role of context while eschewing reductionism and giving importance to reciprocal relationships rather than a causal one. They reveal how teachers see themselves from three referent standpoints: learner, teacher and administrator. Therefore, in comprising the past, present and future of teachers, TC is temporally diverse and dynamic.

## **2.8.2 Current trends in TC**

An outline of the direction that current trends in TC research are taking follows in the next section.

### **2.8.2.1 TC and philosophy of teaching**

Crookes (2015) argues for a shift in perspective on TC and makes a case for extending TC studies into the ethos of philosophy of teaching. He views TC as only one variable among others and advocates a macrocosmic approach to studying teaching. His arguments are that philosophy of teaching is a much broader term and encompasses TC; he sees it as entrenching TC in the context of time and institutional context from where it can afford value and contribute to the fundamental ethos of education. He speaks of the ‘philosophies of teaching’ which he declares should work in conjunction with the TC of language teachers as both are rooted in thought and overlap each other in one form or another.

The author calls for critical pedagogy that helps a teacher be guided by certain philosophies of teaching based on ‘moral, ethical and socio-political grounds’ (p. 486). He deems these grounds to be a natural setting in which to explore the actions of teachers in the cultural context of a school, as opposed to studying one or certain aspects of TC, which would not be comprehensive and cannot justify why one cognition was chosen for study over another.

Crookes (2015) agrees with Pratt (2005) that a philosophy of teaching ‘should reveal deeper structures and values that give meaning and justification to an approach to teaching’ (p. 487) and concurs with Casanve (2004) that teachers must have ‘... knowledge of educational purposes and philosophies’ (p. 487). In other words, teachers should consciously contemplate and commit to a philosophy of teaching after fully exploring the ethos of their professional approach and be aware of the significance of their actions.

The accountability of teachers is seen to have a critical impact on the development of language teachers in the plying of their trade. One can interpret Crooke’s (2015) viewpoint as reclaiming TC from the world of cognitive psychology into the realm of educational research. His point of view may seem to be running contrary to my research with its focus only on TC on TS, but given that TC on TS is little reflected in research and TS is a clear challenge for TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) teachers, my study can potentially claim some relevance.

### 2.8.2.2 TC studies and emergent sense making

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) argue for moving away from a top-down approach to the study of the scope of TC, which they claim offers only a ‘partial epistemological platform for understanding cognition’ (p. 436). They speak of the importance of studying the connections between teacher actions, the reasons for them and the impact of teacher actions on students through using the concept of intentionality as ‘the mentally specified goals or aims that carry a commitment to act’ (p. 440). This is relevant for TC and teacher education in two ways: firstly, helping teachers’ reflective practice in classroom actions in conjunction with what they want both for themselves and their students in education, and secondly, to make a difference in their students’ lives as part of their professional ethos.

The authors advocate viewing TC through the lens of ‘emergent sense-making in action’ (p. 436) and advocate a bottom-up approach which factors in the complexity of the field and the significance of contextual variables to tie into the complexity of teachers’ ‘inner lives in influencing teacher learning, teaching practice and students’ experience’ (p. 436). They wish to study TC as ‘ecologies of language teachers’ inner lives, as they relate to what language teachers do, why they do it and how this may impact how their students learn’ (p. 436) in context and acknowledge that second language teaching research has touched upon these, but not exhaustively. They claim that this perspective is useful in maintaining the crux of studying teacher thinking as intrinsic and purposeful at the individual level of ‘mental processes’ (p. 440), while placing the teachers’ inner lives within the macrocosm of larger social, cultural and historical environments. In this manner, they state that a connection can be established between what they term personal intentionality and collective intentionality.

Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) zoom in on TC research in the context of individual classrooms and make a passionate case for studying TC with an understanding of the macrocosm environment of the teacher and its inescapable impact on the microcosm of the individual classroom. In their opinion, this would offer a justifiable basis for studying the unobservable dimensions of TC within a given time frame of teacher development either over the span of a career or **a moment in time** (my emphasis).

Like Crookes (2015), they favour a macrocosmic perspective, but believe in starting bottom-up from the teachers’ intentionality and actions in the classroom, and then move on to their cognitions towards getting a holistic perspective on teaching, and eschew a TC-determined top-down approach as the starting point in studying teaching. They argue that the conceptual

basis for TC research ought not to be predetermined, but arise during the research process through researcher knowledge and experience. They call for action from TC research, which should be transferable to and find expression in improving teaching in the classroom.

The angle which I find of significant interest and believe actively transforms perspective within the current research milieu is what can be termed the ‘applied’ approach to TC, which Kubanyiova & Feryok (2015) emphasise. The question that seems to fundamentally concern them is what actions can be taken based on studying teacher cognition to serve teaching and learning. In other words, they are emphatic that teacher education must benefit from a TC study and contribute proactively to developing core teaching praxis that benefits students and teachers alike. Research in TC cannot be satisfied with occupying the realms of conceptual discourse, but must transform to meaningful action in teaching, i.e. to coin a metaphor, planes must land.

### **2.8.2.3 TC and Non-native English teachers (NNS)**

Li and Walsh (2011) have identified 20 studies that compared teachers’ beliefs with their classroom practices, and indicate that only a few focused on non-native speaking. They are clear that it is important to have more studies on NNS teachers and TESOL for two reasons: to avoid ignoring a growing field of EFL and to understand TESOL practices. My study falls into this category and may have implications for TESOL.

The section below contextualises the ‘state of the art’ in TC research for my study and attempts to tie together various issues to offer a conceptual platform to identify the challenges these may pose to my study, and simultaneously throw light on the implications for my study.

## **2.9 TC research: Implications and challenges for my study**

If research is to pay dividends to the field of TC about TS, the findings of Sahin, Bullock and Stables (2002) that teachers have trouble expressing their beliefs, and that the way they are questioned has a significant impact on what they say must be recognised as noteworthy factors in the research setting. Interviews isolate teachers from their context and try to elicit

beliefs in an ‘artificial’ setting. This elicitation cannot cover implicit beliefs and other pedagogical beliefs that are shaped by their contexts.

As evident from section 2.4.1.4, interviews may elicit ‘espoused beliefs’ but not ‘theories-in-use’ which become evident in classroom usage. This means that the processes of data collection, interpretation and any representation of the data will be influenced by this factor. At best, it appears that one receives a truncated picture of TC through interviews with its focus on ‘espoused beliefs’ and through observations with its focus on ‘theories-in-action’ given the dialectical relationship between TC and action.

Li (2013) makes a valid observation about the dichotomy between ‘espoused beliefs’ and ‘theories-in-use’ and establishes a framework that can guide the researcher. When examining the relationship between these two, she cites Argyris (1985) who identifies that ‘espoused beliefs’ and ‘theories-in-action’ may not match in a similar vein to the mismatch between beliefs and practice. If the theories match, they offer insight into the individual teacher’s intentions and actions and their impact on praxis. If they do not, they offer a valuable opportunity for reflection and discussion, and should find their place in TC research to benefit from insights teachers have to offer.

A researcher should be conscious of the sensitive nature of classroom interaction between teacher and student, which calls for mutual trust and respect, as this has a decided influence on learning. This is particularly pertinent for my own PhD study as it includes student speak in EFL, which is heavily influenced by student ability, self-confidence, motivation and sense of trust and security in the classroom environment in facilitating performance.

Walsh (2006 in Li 2013) claims that TC research neither gives importance to how beliefs are impacted by contexts nor the moment-by-moment decision-making that teachers perform almost routinely within lessons. She goes on to add that an interactionist perspective would view beliefs as being changed or created based on teacher interaction with students, and beliefs would be the result of social interaction, rather than something present in the realm of reality of the teachers.

This discussion underlines that researchers must define the aspects of TC under study, identify those that are relevant to the study, assess the role of TC in establishing connection between TC and action, and consider the complexity posed by the ‘embedded nature of the supports and hindrances’ (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 80) in the congruence or incongruence

between TC and praxis. All this is to be done under the umbrella of the context in which these actions are being studied to have any meaningful significance to the field of research.

Speer (2005 in Li, 2013) points out that there is no central theory that accounts for the relationship between beliefs and practice. Therefore, inconsistencies might arise in TC studies simply because the researcher and participant do not have a 'shared understanding' (p. 177), and the researcher must enable this 'shared understanding'. Another pertinent observation made is that inconsistencies between certain beliefs and teacher praxis could stem from the theoretical constructs and methodological approaches adopted for a study.

Li (2013) underscores this 'gap' by highlighting that while interactionist studies study the relationship between beliefs and praxis, they do not 'address the methodological issue of achieving shared understanding of the relationship between beliefs and practice as it takes little or no account of the teacher participant's interpretation of their classroom practice.' (p.177)

This has implications for me as a researcher having to be conscious of the context in which TC is elicited. Therefore, it must be acknowledged that any apparent inconsistency between theory and praxis may well stem from the complexity of TC and the inherent challenges in fully identifying or defining TC influence, as it might from the robustness of the methodology and to the extent that the teacher participants and I have a 'shared understanding'. Thus, the researcher must acknowledge the vulnerability of any model created to identify and study TC.

It is crucial to respect that the complexity of TC demands an acceptance that the picture of TC, be it of individuals or groups, cannot but be flawed as it is impossible to plumb the depths of the cognition process in its entirety or represent it fully. At best, a combination of interviews and classroom observations together might give a better picture of the range of TC than either in isolation. When analysing data of this nature, a researcher must understand that the very act of writing is reductive in nature and the scope of insight inherently skewed. It is the specific context that gives value to studying TC, and it is this specificity that may minimise the inherent weaknesses otherwise associated with TC studies, and may throw some light on the actions of teachers and the cognition behind it *in situ*.

In the view of these claims, the current study, which is based on interviewing teachers to elicit their TC on TS in the context of both the teaching environment and observation of their actions in the classroom community, could be a source of insight into general and specific

beliefs about TS, within a context at a point in time. It may seem to be in contradiction to what current research claims should be a bottom-up approach, but in factoring in TC in the context of TS in the grade 8 EFL classroom, I believe that I can claim that contextual factors are given due importance and validity.

As a researcher, I endeavour to understand what teachers think about teaching speaking; how they teach speaking in the EFL classroom; why they do so in the way they do; identify and account for gaps that become evident between that which they profess and do, and attempt to study Faroese praxis in the context of the ‘state of the art’ in TS, which may be directly relevant for the teaching contexts explored in the setting of my case studies.

It is acknowledged that only a small specimen of TS may be accessible and the possible enactment of TC *in situ* may well be ephemeral, but in tying TC to direct application within the context of place, time and specificity of environment, the metaphorical planes may land. The intention of the researcher is to contribute, even if infinitesimally, to existing TC research on TS in EFL.

It is my contention that the attempt to create a ‘state of the art’ is not just to plumb participant TC or hold a mirror to TS praxis in Faroese grade 8 classrooms, but to offer an insight into TS in EFL that might be beneficial to the teaching community as inspirational input that could be adapted to meet student needs and fulfil learning outcomes.

The insight into TC is sought to understand why teachers teach speaking in EFL, not as an end in itself, but with a view to proactively opening avenues of thoughts and ideas for action that teachers may choose to practise in TS.

## **2.10 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has afforded perspective into the concept of teacher cognition, and the relevance it holds for teachers and teaching. To arrive at a definition of TC specific to the context of my study, I have used Borg’s (2003) definition which acknowledges the multifarious aspects that constitute TC in its complexity. In the context of my study, I am interested in teachers’ cognition about their TS, which may find complete or partial expression in their professional decision-making and implementation in classroom activities.

While interviews and observations afford an insight into teacher cognition, no claim is made that it is an exhaustive mapping of the TC of the seven teachers about TS. Fully identifying TC is not possible, given the integrated nature of the teacher as person and professional, where no clear boundaries can be identified. Consequently, the TC identified is never going to be the complete sum of the cognition of the individuals in the study. Therefore, TC on TS can only give a partial insight into the TC of the seven teachers involved in the study with its significance being enhanced by contextual relevance.

The next chapter on speaking and teaching speaking explores the skill central to this study, the 'state of the art' on speaking and TS, and the theories surrounding the teaching of the skill as a foundation for mapping TS of the teachers in the study.

## **Chapter 3: Literature review on Teaching Speaking in EFL**

### **3.0 Introduction**

In chapter 3, I study the teaching of speaking (TS), the relevant theories in the field, and establish the ‘state of the art’ in TS as contextualisation for this study. TS is examined from the perspectives of learning and teaching, students and teachers, and TC about TS. This should offer a foundation for commencing the complex task of understanding the TC and TS interdependence in the context of my case studies.

### **3.1 Significance of speaking for EFL learners**

The ability to communicate orally is an invaluable and vital component of EFL learners’ communicative competence in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Goh (2014) outlines the life skills that educational systems aim for as critical thinking, problem-solving, innovation, collaboration and cross-cultural communication to prepare young people to participate in a globalised society. The ability to display these competencies and showcase them in English is viewed as a prime asset for education and employment. English is increasingly used for communication internationally, and apart from being the European Union’s second language (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000), it offers membership in a vast global community with rich opportunities in education, business and culture. All this underlines the importance of having competence in English for NNS learners of English.

Several authors indicate that speaking is the most difficult skill language learners must face and master. Despite this, teachers fail to teach speaking and have relegated it to a place behind writing, reading, listening and grammar (Brown & Yule, 1983; Bueno, Madrid & McLaren, 2006). Nunan (1999) and Flores (1999) underline speaking as an important primary language skill for second language learners, though it creates certain challenges for learners for various reasons. Davies and Pearse (2002 in Mart, 2012, p. 91) qualify successful ELT and learning thus: ‘Real success in English teaching and learning is when the learners can actually communicate in English inside and outside the classroom.’ It is by this skill that

EFL learners judge their success in second language learning as speaking is closely related to the speaker and allows for instant judgement of the speaker (Khoshima & Shokri, 2016). Burkart & Sheppard (2004) declare that the ability to carry on a conversation in the foreign language must be a measure of success in language learning.

Ur (1996) identifies the speaking skill as the most important of the four language skills. Speaking can be advantageous to the learner's academic achievement and professional success (Saunders & O'Brien, 2006). Haung (2006, in Razamjoo & Ardekani, 2011) claims that NNS find speaking the target language as one of the most important and demanding tasks in everyday parlance.

### **3.1.1 Oracy versus speaking**

The term 'oracy' covers the skills of listening and speaking for first language educational contexts, but lends itself well to second language too (Wilkinson, 1965 in Goh, 2014). It includes the view of language skills as both exhibiting communicative competence and as tools for thinking and learning subject matter (Barnes, 1988 in Goh 2014). As my study deals only with speaking, I use the term 'speaking' and not oracy. The other skills, particularly reading, and more prominently listening, contribute to developing speaking, but as they fall outside the premise of my study, they are not included.

The section below attempts to highlight the skill under study. An attempt is made to define speaking, explore its characteristics, and its distinctiveness from writing.

## **3.2 Definition of Speaking**

According to Burns and Joyce (1997), speaking is being capable of speech, expressing or exchanging thoughts through the medium of language. Both form and meaning are context, participant and purpose dependent. Not only is the speaker required to cope with varied simultaneous processes, but he/she has also to process the information listened to on the spot often under external pressures and perform in real-time (Basturkmen, 2002), which is certainly the case with the classroom environment.

Bygate (1998) asserts that speaking has been traditionally viewed and evaluated using writing as the norm, and is not accepted as a distinct area to be considered for itself. He views speaking as a complex human activity because it demands much from the human brain in terms of the subsidiary processes involved and the planning required.

Two main approaches are used in the definition of speaking: the bottom-up and top-down. Bygate (1987) describes the bottom-up approach, which sees speaking as an auditory skill having primary focus on motor perceptive skills. Sounds are combined in a specific manner in a specific language to produce utterances to elicit varying responses in a listener. This view appears to ignore the interactive and social aspect of speaking. It poses challenges for TS as teachers must facilitate the transfer of speaking to real life application. In terms of TS, the bottom-up approach suggests teaching from the smallest units of sounds to words, to sentences, to discourse (Cornbleet & Carter, 2001).

Bygate (1998) advocates a top-down approach involving an understanding of speaking based on interactional skills with communication as the goal. In Bygate's words (1998, p. 23), speaking is 'an activity integrating distinct aspects of interpersonal and psycho-motor control.' Nunan (2003) offers another definition of speaking: '... a productive aural/oral skill ... consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning' (p. 48).

Teaching from this perspective, in Nunan's (1989) opinion, would be teaching learners to construct well-formed sentences to use in discourse by speaking actively and then concentrating on their acquiring smaller units. O'Malley and Pierce (1996 in Hughes, 2002, p. 74) describe speaking as negotiating intended meaning and modifying speech to elicit the desired response/effect on the speaker/listener. Their top-down perspective treats speech as the product of cooperation between two or more actors in a shared physical context and time.

### **3.3 Characteristics of speaking**

Speaking has some distinct characteristics, which in Bygate's (1998, p. 21) opinion comprises: 'discourse structures, speech acts, some grammatical features and typical features of the speech stream-segmental and suprasegmental features', which he describes as occurring in certain patterns of frequency. Speaking requires automaticity in processing, which involves 'chunking' of language units ensconced in words and phonemes in sequence.

To paraphrase Thornbury (2005), the process of speech production

- occurs in real time and is linear because words and phrases follow one another
- is produced on an utterance basis in initiating or responding to another utterance
- is contingent as each utterance is dependent on a preceding one contributing to spontaneity in speech
- involves planning as simultaneous occurrence, where planning one utterance may have to share time with production of another utterance.

(Cornbleet & Carter (2001) indicate that most speaking takes place face to face between participants or interlocutors (often physically present) with opportunities for immediate feedback in terms of whether listeners understand and /or agree/sympathise. Speaking is considered interactive, regardless of whether it is face-to-face or not, and exchanges can be on a person-to-person or person-to-group basis. Given its ‘occurrence in real-time’ (Thornbury, 2005, p. 2), it leaves little time for planning responses. This immediacy influences the length of sentences, with spoken sentences in an interaction being typically short.

Thornbury and Slade (2007) say that sentences may be truncated, include frequent repetitions, hesitation, false starts and rephrasing. Speaking relies on non-verbal aspects like facial expressions, gestures and body language to facilitate communication. Bygate (1998a, Cornbleet & Carter, 2001) explain that the processes of appropriacy of contributions by participants, natural pauses and turn taking facilitate speaking, where participants wait and respond to another speaker allowing for an exchange in conversation. Cultural factors play their part in the skill of turn taking, and this skill seems unconscious in performance.

### **3.3.1 Spoken versus written language**

Speaking and writing share some common denominators as production skills, but differ significantly in other ways. Generally, speaking is viewed as more unplanned, contextualised, informal and more reciprocal than writing (Yule, 1989; Nunan, 1989; Carter

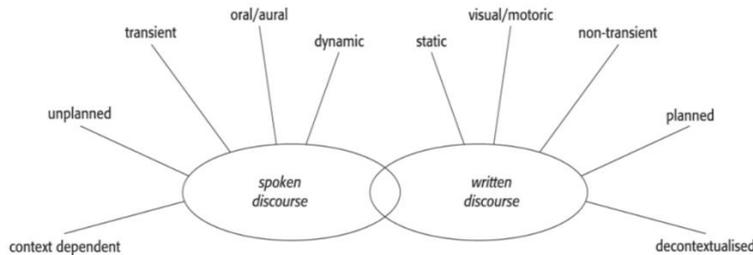
& McCarthy, 1997). Writing is more formal and restricted, requiring a standardised use of grammar, structure, organisation, and vocabulary. Given its more complex and logical structures, it often needs more time than speaking, unlike which, it is seldom done in real-time. Writing can be revised and edited and presented to the audience, but seldom for an immediate response distancing reader reaction to it. The speaking skill is ‘on the spot’ and attracts mainly instant response leaving the speaker vulnerable to the listener.

Speaking is not given the explicit treatment in EFL classroom that writing enjoys. Hence, identifying the differences in the pedagogy involved for both the skills might be essential later in the context of discussing the findings. Tabulated below are those features of speaking that set it apart from writing.

**Table 3.1 Speaking differentiated from writing**

	<b>Speaking</b>
<b>Discourse structure</b>	Reciprocal openings and closings, interactive negotiation of meaning and conversation structures, use of simple linking devices (Nunan, 1999; Miller, 2001).
<b>Typical features</b>	Speech stream (e.g. segmental & suprasegmental features, pauses, hesitations, interruptions, and false starts) (Bygate, 1998).
<b>Cultural nature of speaking</b>	Consists of social and contextual factors and pragmatic presuppositions (Carter & McCarthy, 1997).
<b>Grammatical and lexical features</b>	Contractions and elliptical constructions without subjects (Widdowson, 1998). ‘Utterances’ (incomplete sentences) (Yule, 1989, p. 170). Fronting - moving an element to primary position for focus (Nunan, 1989, p. 26; Foster, Tonkyn, & Wigglesworth, 2000). English has lower lexical density in speaking well below its written counterpart. Uses more grammatical than content words and more verb phrases than noun phrases. ‘Vague language’ for objects and events in general terms (Widdowson, 1998). Standard expressions used to facilitate fluency (Carter & McCarthy, 1997).

Hughes (2002 p. 7) visualises the two production skills as follows:



**Fig 3.1 The Production skills**

Nunan (1989, 2005) characterises the speaking skill as fragmentary utterances. The various fillers, overlapping of speech among speakers, repetition, loose syntax, all contribute to making TS appear extremely demanding and unsystematic (Scarcella & Oxford, 1994). El Menoufy (1997) claims teachers are challenged by the intangibility of evidence speaking provides as basis for teacher feedback, which deters them from using it. Therefore, assessing speaking is viewed as time-consuming and impractical by teachers (Miller, 2001).

How can speaking be taught to facilitate acquisition of the various skills and processes embedded within it to best benefit the students? Various writers have perspectives on this issue as indicated below.

### **3.4 Teaching Speaking in EFL**

Teachers are often those who activate communication in a classroom. In TS, teachers have a responsibility and a role. They have a distinct influence on the course of learning and its direction through their active interventions. The learning opportunities they provide in contextual appropriacy have a marked effect on student learning and their teaching is a key variable in the process together with the feedback they provide to promote the teaching of speaking.

In TS, the problems faced by teachers appear to be a combination of the classroom environment and the speaking skill itself. Chen and Goh (2014) identify environmental

factors as: class size, raising awareness of the importance and relevance of speaking, and the inability to give individual students the attention needed to teach speaking. Students differ in their linguistic ability making TS time-consuming, which might motivate teachers to minimise it or avoid it altogether.

Based on research reflecting the difficulty in speaking in the classroom, students ought to be able to use self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-assessment, and self-teaching to be proactive learners. The power of teacher feedback in this context cannot be emphasised enough and will be explored later in the chapter. The teaching and learning of speaking requires that the classroom environment where teachers and students meet must be ‘dressed’ and fit for purpose.

### **3.4.1 Approaches to TS**

Nunan (1999) and Celce-Murcia (2001) make the valid observation that if the right speaking activities are taught in the classroom and their role clearly outlined, speaking can raise learners' general motivation and make the English language classroom a fun and dynamic place to be. These authors underline that learners should be actively encouraged to contemplate their speaking strategies and those of others, be given the opportunity to practice linguistic and communicative competencies, and be given sufficient chances to interact with a view to expanding their knowledge of the target language. Self-reflection for learning can focus learners' interests in a positive manner as learners become aware of how they learn and what they can do to participate in their own learning in a conscious and focused manner.

Chen and Goh (2014) give importance to developing metacognitive awareness as it makes learners become more effective and autonomous. If learners are made conscious of how they learn, they can find effective ways of learning that work for them. There appears to be a consensus that speaking should be actively or explicitly taught to facilitate learner meta awareness.

Implicit and explicit knowledge are two pivotal constructs in SLA. Ellis (2005) speaks of implicit knowledge as intuitive, procedural knowledge, which is automatically accessible and underpins fluency, but cannot be verbalised. Implicit knowledge is believed to contribute to L2 proficiency. Explicit knowledge, on the other hand, is conscious and declarative

knowledge of L2, which is accessed during controlled processing by learners who can verbalise it.

#### **3.4.1.1 Declarative knowledge and the role of meta awareness**

Nunan (1999) and Oprandy (1994) indicate what they see as effective teaching of speaking wherein they recommend that a holistic perspective, with both synthetic (teaching all four language skills as a whole) and analytical (teaching one language skill at a time) procedures be used to teach speaking. Nunan (2003) outlines that TS involves teaching learners to:

- produce the English sound and speech patterns
- use word and sentence stress, intonation and the rhythm of English
- organise thoughts in both a meaningful and logical manner
- choose words and expressions that are suited to the receiver, social setting and topic under discussion
- articulate their thoughts, values and judgements and use language actively to aid fluency.

Bygate (1998) emphasises that knowledge of the language and skill in using this knowledge are imperative for effective communication. He adds that it is pivotal for teachers to address the awareness of the basic distinction between skill and knowledge, i.e. knowing something and then being able to use it appropriately in context. It can be also seen as making implicit knowledge (skills) explicit (knowledge). Ellis (2008 in Gotseva, 2015) concludes that implicit/explicit learning and implicit/explicit knowledge are ‘related but distinct concepts that need to be separated’ (p. 90). Whereas the former refers to the processes involved in learning, the latter concerns the products of learning.

Rivers and Temperley (1978) provide a classification of the processes involved in learning to communicate. The authors distinguish skill-using activities (role-plays, simulation for using language in speaking is practised) from skill-getting activities (drills, controlled practice, etc. for practice in learning speaking). The thrust of their argument is that there is a gap to be bridged between the two processes. In their framework, they suggest using bridging ‘pseudo-communicative activities’ like gapped dialogue and oral reports, which

consist of articulation (involving practice of sounds) with construction (involving practice in formulating communication).

They suggest two kinds of activities: guided practice activities for skill-getting and communicative activities for skill-using. While guided practice activities have a role in early foreign language teaching, Rivers and Temperley (1978) do not see these as worthy substitutes for actual communication. They conclude that applicable and meaningful real communication-based pedagogical activity in context must be the way to go to ensure real communication.

The table below distinguishes the defining features of guided practice from those of communication as viewed by Rivers and Temperley (1978) and Burns (1998 in Goh & Burns 2012, p. 134).

**Table 3.2 Guided practice versus Communicative tasks**

<b>Guided Practice</b>	<b>Communicative Task</b>
teacher-controlled	learner-controlled
pedagogical	real-life, authentic
analytic (one thing at a time)	synthetic/holistic (many things at once)
closed (one right answer)	open (no single answer)
focus on accuracy	focus on fluency

Rivers and Temperley (1978) assert that teachers often confuse oral practice with oral communication and feel it is important for teachers to understand the different types of oral activities and their goals in foreign language teaching. The implication here is that speaking in classrooms must be a meaningful activity promoting more oral performance-orientated activities than merely oral practice. For example, students parroting teachers' reading aloud would be oral practice and not oral performance.

In the spectrum for TS, it is relevant to look at the range of speaking approaches to TS in EFL, including models currently in use and the latest ones offered. They are delineated in the following section.

### 3.4.2 The direct and indirect approaches

Goh and Burns (2012) comment on the two approaches that have dominated TS in recent decades and are still very much a part of the EFL scene. They are the direct/controlled approach and the indirect/transfer approach. The direct one is concerned with language forms and accuracy of structure with focus on grammar and discourse structures of the target language, while the indirect approach prioritises fluency and concentrates on functional language through encouraging group work to facilitate students communicating with each other. Both approaches do share common features - they offer learners a variety of ways to practise speaking skills to achieve accuracy and fluency. In the direct approach, face-to-face communication is not factored in, while discourse structures and grammatical structures are missing in the indirect approach. Several writers (Burns, 1998; Bygate 1998; McCarthy & Carter, 2001) view as fallacious the assumption that achieving communicative effectiveness offers the necessary conditions that promote accuracy of production in the case of the indirect approach.

**Table 3.3 Comparison of direct and indirect approach to TS** (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 134)

	<b>Direct (controlled)</b>	<b>Indirect (transfer)</b>
<b>Aim</b>	Develop enabling skills	Develop interaction strategies
<b>Focus</b>	Accuracy Language analysis	Fluency Language for communication
<b>Characteristics</b>	Controlled language use Skill getting Pedagogic Pre-communicative Part-task practice	“Authentic”/functional language use Skill-using Real-life Communicative Whole-task practice
<b>Activities</b>	Drills. Pattern practice Structure manipulation Language awareness Consciousness raising Learners construct rules inductively	Discussions Information gaps Project work Role plays Simulations Talking circles
<b>Interaction</b>	Teacher-led.	Learner-centred.

Goh (2013) contends that both approaches fail to support ‘key processes of second language speaking development’ (p. 34). In other words, speaking must be taught in a way that facilitates an interactive process of constructing meaning which comprises producing, receiving and processing information. Nunan (1989) emphasises this when he says, ‘... language is more than simply a system of rules. Language is generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning’ (p. 12). Bygate (2001) cautions against ignoring grammatical and discourse structures, thereby sacrificing accuracy in favour of fluency.

Goh & Burns (2012) consider the more suitable approach to be a combination of the strengths of the two approaches, i.e. language form and language use and facilitate real-life communication through TS. In their attempt to do this, the authors posit the ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’.

### **3.4.3 The ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’**

Goh and Burns (2012) offer a holistic and seminal approach to TS and provide a detailed study of TS based on the idea that speaking should be taught and not just practised in EFL. In their opinion, both the direct and indirect approaches to TS are flawed.

They contend that the direct approach falls short in offering knowledge of structural accuracy, practice of language forms and knowledge of target language grammar and discourse structures in isolation, while ignoring its role in face-to-face communication, which would involve negotiation of meaning and make communication authentic. Meanwhile, the indirect approach contributes to fluency of speech and use of functional language by communicating with peers. But, teacher-designed tasks fall short as they are created for the context of the formal requirement of classroom settings of speaking, in the mistaken assumption that students can transfer use of the skill to real-life situations minus any teaching.

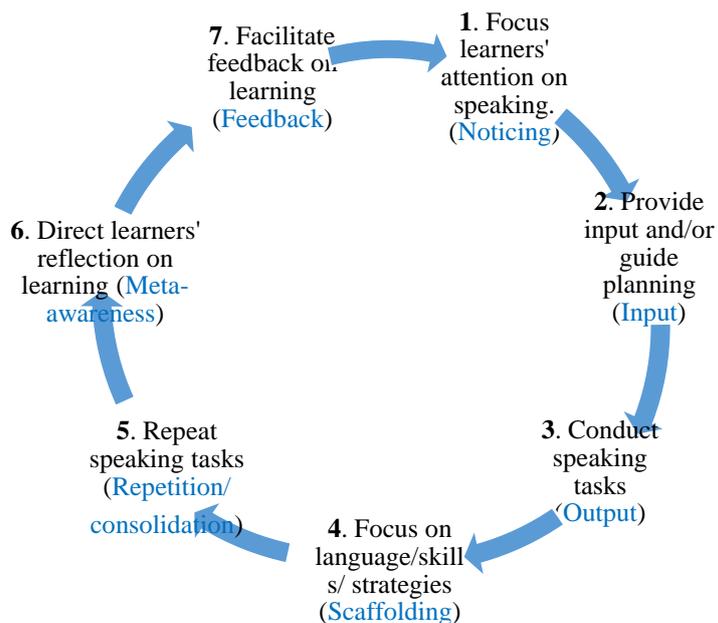
The authors make a very crucial observation that TS approaches adopted by teachers are dictated by the textbooks that teachers choose based on personal preference, recommended by colleagues, or recommended/used by the school. This means it is not an informed or intentional choice, but an incidental one. This seemingly random or expedient approach to TS has severe limitations as textbooks are usually constructed using just the direct or the indirect approach. While it is expected of teachers that they choose textbooks that match

what they intend to teach guided by the learning outcomes designated for a subject, in practice this does not appear to be the case. Random choice of textbooks may undermine explicit TS which has a distinct role in contributing to learning speaking. If an inappropriate textbook is chosen, it has ramifications for the content and approach to TS, which could further relegate TS from the problem child it appears to be to one that is totally ignored.

Goh and Burns (2012) suggest a 'Teaching-Speaking cycle' of seven phases which teachers can use for TS. They claim that the various stages give students opportunities to focus on fluency, form and use of language. They believe that encouraging learners to reflect on their learning of the target language and offering them feedback contributes to creating metacognitive awareness. This, in turn, will help learners to understand the processes of learning involved with 'noticing' providing the required impetus for students to engage proactively in learning speaking.

If we map the key features of the direct and indirect approaches to TS onto the 'Teaching-Speaking cycle' (written in blue in fig. 3.2 below) in terms of focus on accuracy and fluency and being teacher- or student-led, it is evident that both approaches have been combined, together with the concepts of meaningful input (Krashen, 1981, 1982) for language learning, forced output for learning with negotiation of meaning (Swain, 1985), noticing in second language learning (Schmidt, 1990) and the roles of meta awareness and feedback on learning playing their roles to give a systematic and holistic approach to TS.

The model subsumes the direct and indirect approaches to TS, and introduces added elements to offer a holistic perspective for TS. As an active part of the learning process, as envisaged in this model, students need to be able to both benefit from teaching and proactively contribute to their own learning of speaking in a foreign language.



**Fig. 3.2 The ‘Teaching-Speaking cycle’ (Goh & Burns, 2012, p, 153) (modified)**

### 3.4.3.1 The seven phases of the ‘teaching-speaking cycle’ (TS cycle)

The model emphasises that TS should focus on both accuracy and fluency. It claims to amalgamate the direct/controlled and indirect/transfer approaches to mitigate their weaknesses and synergise their strengths. The linguistic, cognitive, metacognitive and affective needs of the learners are given due consideration within this approach by using a seven-stage approach to meet the individual needs of L2 learners of EFL speaking. The stages as enumerated by Goh and Burns (2012) are as follows:

#### **Stage 1. Focus learners' attention on speaking:**

Prompts are given to students for a minimum of one kind of metacognitive knowledge, defined by Flavell (1979, 1987) as person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategic knowledge. Hints to students may include prompts like ‘what is challenging in speaking English?’ (person knowledge), ‘how would you approach airport staff for guidance about luggage?’ (task knowledge) and ‘If you can’t make the listener understand you, what do you then do?’ (strategic knowledge).

**Stage 2. Provide input and/or guided planning:** Teachers facilitate the progression of speaking tasks by supplying different kinds of scaffolding including vocabulary support,

providing key information for parts of the task that might be problematic for the learners, etc.

**Stage 3. Conduct speaking tasks:** Teachers help students by focusing on negotiating meaning and allowing learners to express thoughts and emotions in context using the FL. Attempts are made to enable student fluency through pair or group work which encourages interaction.

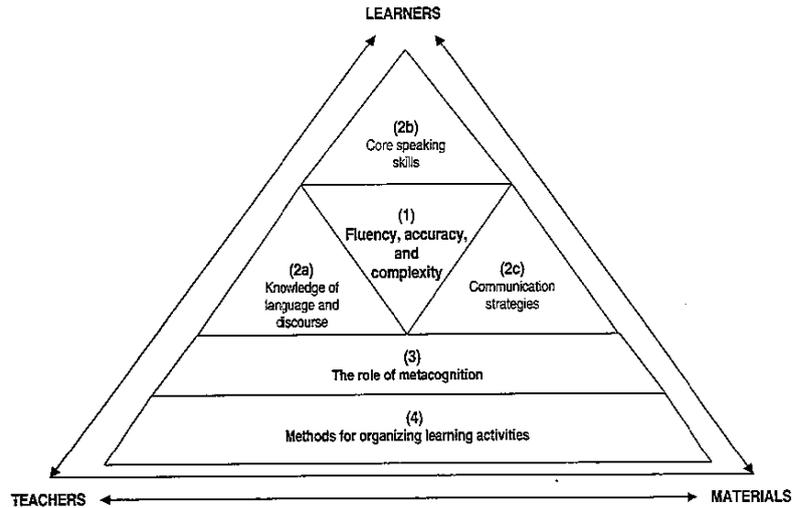
**Stage 4. Focus on language/skills/strategies:** With focus on fluency, the learners are guided through specific language items to speak the FL. Focus here could be on pronunciation, intonation, discourse markers, etc., as the teacher deems fit for purpose.

**Stage 5. Repeat the speaking task:** Learners have to repeat task 3 to practice using the input in knowledge and skills already provided. Tasks must be designed for this stage with a view to making the repetition task interesting to motivate students' engagement.

**Stage 6. Direct learners' reflection on learning:** Learners are encouraged to reflect on the items learnt in the speaking activities. This kind of planned and structured reflection is believed to engender learning and encourage 'noticing'. When done in conjunction with the teacher guiding the process, and earmarking improvements in student performance, it also gives motivation for the student to continue pursuing learning goals. Jessner (2008, p. 277) outlines the importance of metalinguistic awareness as 'divergent and creative thinking' and 'interactional and/or pragmatic competence.'

**Stage 7. Provide constructive feedback on learning:** This stage enables using the learner's ipsative assessment of their performance i.e. 'assessment based on a comparison with a learner's previous performance' (Hughes, Okumoto & Wood, 2011, p. 1), as the basis for individual-based teacher feedback, for self-awareness, and as essential for promoting learning.

In reflecting a combined approach to TS, the TS cycle accounts for the pivotal factors to help meet student learning needs. Goh and Burns (2012) proceed to highlight the holistic approach to TS:



**Fig. 3.3 A methodological framework for a holistic approach to TS** (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 139)

If speaking is to be taught in a manner that best befits the learners, they need to acquire certain skills. To this end, the authors identify four important aspects in the figure above that should govern TS as ‘quality of speech’, wherein fluency, accuracy and complexity are factored in as the important learning outcomes; ‘components of speaking competence’ which in combination should aid the learners and are broken down into knowledge of language and discourse, core speaking skills and communication strategies; the significant ‘role of metacognition’ is included where learners become conscious of learning to learn. The fourth component ‘methods for organizing learning activities’ is the bedrock of the other three, and sets the role of the teachers and includes the materials used for TS. The interaction among learners, teachers and materials is crucial and establishes the basis for both teaching and learning activities in TS.

The next section offers some insight into the demands placed on speakers in EFL. It surveys the skills learners need to speak a foreign language, and factors that affect speaking in the classroom with emphasis on the significance of the classroom as a learning environment, where the teaching of speaking is showcased, i.e. taught and learnt.

### **3.5 The skills FL learners must acquire to speak EFL**

Florez (1999) outlines an array of skills and knowledge a good speaker must have to succeed in any given speech act. He enumerates the skills underlying speaking as:

- Accurate use of grammatical structures
- Understanding target audience in terms of shared knowledge
- Status and power relations
- Using vocabulary that is appropriate, comprehensible and relevant to the topic and the setting of a speech act
- The ability to emphasise key words and ensuring comprehensibility
- Using speech components like vocabulary, rate of speech and grammatical structures skilfully to ensure listener involvement in the interaction.

Skehan and Foster (2001) explain that speech production studies highlight three main components of second language speaking performance crucial for student speaking: fluency (meaning-based focus sustained in real-time communication), complexity (the willingness to use more complex forms of language suggesting the involvement of hypothesis testing and restructuring of language), and accuracy (learners' tendency to exercise control over the interlanguage system, i.e. a distinct linguistic system which shares elements of the EFL learner's L1 and the target language).

Simplistically speaking, fluency refers to the ability to produce the spoken language 'without undue pausing or hesitation' (Skehan, 1996, p. 22). Yuan and Ellis (2003) define accuracy as 'the extent to which the language produced conforms to language norms' (p. 2). This includes the correct use of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Complexity has been described as 'elaborated language' and as 'language that is at the upper limit' (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 139) of the learner's interlanguage system yet to be internalised. Learners may resort to choosing fluency rather than complexity and accuracy when involved in real-time communication. This is more often than not mirrored in classroom situations when learners are required to speak in real-time. Teachers struggle to develop accuracy and fluency in their students and are often torn between facilitating one or another.

In a similar vein, Harmer (2007) sees speaking as including two major categories from the communicative point of view - accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practised through controlled and guided activities; and fluency - to maintain the flow when speaking spontaneously. In his opinion, effective learners of English need to be able to master the following for spoken production:

- i. Connected Speech: ability to produce both individual phonemes of English and master connected speech sounds.
- ii. Expressive Devices: use the suprasegmental features of language to convey emotion.
- iii. Lexis and Grammar: use common lexical phrases in the context of certain language functions to achieve spontaneous speech.
- iv. Negotiation and language: use negotiation to ensure clarification by structuring what is being said.

According to Bygate (1987), in an interactive speaking instance, learners must have access to ‘information’ (expository, e.g. narration, description, and instruction or evaluative, e.g. predictions; preferences and decisions) and ‘interaction’ routines. Information routines partially correspond to discourse competence adopted by Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990) described in 3.5.2.1. Interaction routines involve learners’ knowledge of the kinds of turns which take place in interaction, the rules for turn-taking and the general aspects of structuring the speech event, including facilitation and compensation, which in Bygate’s opinion,

... may in fact help learners to speak, and hence help them to learn to speak . . . In addition to helping learners to learn to speak, these features may also help learners to sound normal in their use of the foreign language (Bygate 1987, 20-21).

Turn-taking is how people in a conversation decide who is to speak next, and it is fundamental to structuring people’s social interactions and is open to both cultural and language bias.

### **3.5.1 Culture in FLL**

Brown (2007 in Dema and Moeller, 2012) describes the close connection between language and culture stating: ‘one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either

language or culture' (p. 76). Cultural awareness is important in speaking a language and certainly a foreign language. When speaking and interpreting messages, socio-cultural norms guide the mode of speaking and the language choices we make. A foreign language speaker must become aware of the norms of the language.

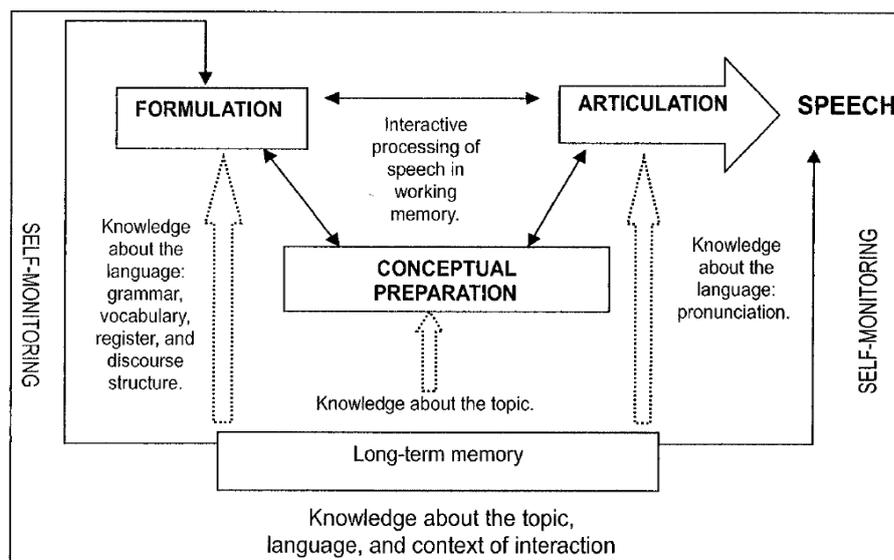
The norms define the tacit rules that a society has in place as a guide for appropriate behaviour in a community. Different cultures have different norms and these may challenge communication between speakers of varying cultures. Speech acts have a specific language function and include functions such as requests, apologies, suggestions, commands, offers, and giving appropriate responses to those acts (Sun, 2013). The foreign speaker of a language must be cognisant of the speech acts of the target language as the speaker's success in the speech act depends on making himself/herself comprehensible to the listener.

Apart from the skills foreign language speakers require, the following section attempts to understand the role of speaking within the concept of language ability and as a skill in its own right requiring specific competencies. Various models have been posited to explore speaking and relevant ones have been chosen for explication.

### **3.5.2 Relevant models for spoken production**

Two kinds of models may be used to illustrate spoken production: general models of language ability, which view speaking in the context of communication, and speaking-specific models, which study characteristics of speaking with particular emphasis on competencies underpinning conversation skills.

As speaking is considered to be a manifestation of a learner's communicative competence, Levelt (1989 in Goh & Burns, 2012) introduced an influential psycholinguistic model of oral production.



**Fig. 3.4 Cognitive demands on language learners when producing speech** (drawing from Levelt's model of speech processing) (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 36)

In his model, he breaks down speech production into four separate cognitive processes that underlie fluent speech when speakers access their store of words: conceptualisation is where speech begins in the choice of topic/information the speaker wishes to express drawing from the knowledge the speaker has or wishes to acquire. Language learners in EFL may be faced with the dual challenge of having to know something and choosing how to express it.

Levelt (1989) sees utterance formulation as the process by which the speaker draws on his/her mental lexicon to find words to put together to express the ideas; it is considered the most challenging stage for foreign language learners, as it requires the use of the lexicogrammatical knowledge of the target language.

He describes speech articulation as a physiological process, which is nevertheless linked to processing information and memory; language learners need to search their memories for suprasegmental elements, like stress or pronunciation, to shape their utterances appropriately, and in a foreign language, it adds complexity to the process of speech production.

Self-monitoring for Levelt (1989) involves learners' metacognitive ability to check for structural accuracy and acceptability, involving knowledge of grammar and pronunciation; the pragmatic demands in a communication situation of understanding the relationship

between speaker and listener and interactional and social contexts of the speaking process add to the challenge of speaking. L3 speakers usually ignore self-monitoring in favour of conveying meaning.

The first three stages are interrelated stages, and hence, may be repeated, overlap and interact with each other. The fourth factor is considered discrete and operates at a separate level (metacognitive level) from the three. All four factors play their role in the communicative activity of speaking. However, oral practice in classrooms, often dominated as it is by set phrases or rote responses in a question-answer pattern, is not seen as drawing on the first two cognitive processes of conceptualisation and utterance formulation.

Bygate (1998) explicates Levelt's model further through aspects he considers crucial: discourse routines, lexical processing, prefabricated chunks, and pausing; discourse routines indicate that information sequences are stored at the conceptual level from where they can be accessed, not just by native speakers, but second language speakers as well. By implication, the more students are familiar with certain discourse structures and store them, the more these can influence their performance. Speaking can be understood if the processes and the sequence in which they occur can be made clear to speakers when they acquire a language; for example, patterns of pausing may indicate the underlying processes of speech production and indicate elements of choice and automaticity.

Therefore, Bygate (1987) indicates that when learners plan a message, the knowledge they have of routines offers them the opportunity to predict and pre-plan their role and intended contribution and comprehend their roles: their knowledge of lexis, phrases and grammar can structure their utterances and negotiate meaning for listener inference. Cornbleet and Carter (2001) draw attention to the immediacy of speaking, for which learners can use ellipsis, formulaic expressions, filters, hesitation, etc. to speak and use compensatory mechanisms like rephrasing and repeating to sound fluent. Using such tactics will decrease the complexity of the speaking environment for the learners. Teaching these tactics might arm EFL students with the necessary tools for speaking and minimise the anxiety speaking may involve.

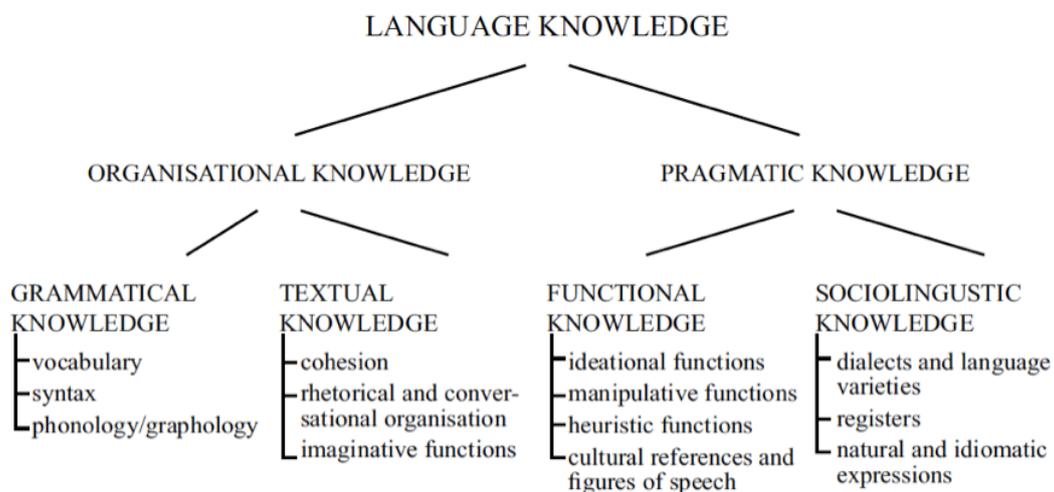
### **3.5.2.1 Communicative competence**

After Hymes (1979) put forward the idea of communicative competence as an individual's ability (knowledge about language and knowledge of skills in putting knowledge to use),

Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) proposed a model of communicative competence, which highlights three components: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence as key factors. In the later version of the model, Canale (1983, 1984) removed some elements from sociolinguistic competence to comprise a fourth component termed discourse competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) describe grammatical competence as acquiring working knowledge of verbal or non-verbal code: in other words, knowledge of grammar and its components to enable the speaker to combine knowledge and skills required for both comprehension and expression. They view sociolinguistic competence as knowing rules and conventions that promote proper comprehension and language use in a variety of both sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts. The authors describe strategic competence as knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which come into play during a breakdown in communication requiring coping mechanisms (like paraphrasing, circumlocution, modification of messages, etc) to counteract insufficient competence in any aspect of communicative competence. This should facilitate effective communication by filling in gaps, as it were, in other competences thereby permitting a flow in communication. Finally, discourse competence is understanding of the rules that control how form and meaning combine to create written or oral utterances.

The Bachman and Palmer's model of language ability (1996) is an influential model for speaking and communicative competences. While it is designed as a framework for language ability, it is often used in the context of speaking competence (Luoma, 2009 in Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014).



**Fig. 3.5 Areas of language knowledge** (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68)

Bachman and Palmer (1996 in Bagaric and Djigunovic, 2007) reveal that communicative language ability is influenced by three factors: ‘users’ topical knowledge, affective schemata, and language ability’ (p. 98): Language ability comprises language knowledge and strategic competence; Language knowledge exerts a significant influence and can be divided into organisational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge, which work in tandem to produce effective language use.

In their model, organisational knowledge allows for control over and performance of formal language structures, i.e. grammatical and textual knowledge; Pragmatic knowledge is linked to creating and interpreting discourse through its constituent areas of knowledge, i.e. functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge; Strategic knowledge contains metacognitive components that help language users in setting goals (making decisions regarding choosing and attempting tasks), assessing communicative sources (relating contextual language use to topical knowledge and affective schemata) and planning (choosing how to use language knowledge and processes for successful task completion).

The model explores speaking as both a separate skill with significance for the interaction between language knowledge and other aspects of knowledge, and focus on skills and knowledge that underpin conversational ability. The authors reveal speaking as serving a purpose within communicative competence and show its multifaceted nature and purposes.

The following section explores the significance of meta awareness for language learning in general and the speaking skill in particular.

### **3.6 Role of Meta awareness in language learning**

‘Metacognition refers to an individual’s awareness of his/her cognitive processes and strategies’ (Flavell, 1979; Flavell *et al.*, 1995 in Jones, 2007, p. 571). Metacognition for Flavell (1979, 1987) is comprised of three types of metacognitive knowledge, which can facilitate learners’ proactive approach to learning and is also applicable to EFL speaking: *Person knowledge* comprises a learner’s personal view of himself or herself as a learner complete with the weaknesses, challenges and problems that one has, and how learning style and one’s age, gender, aptitude in a subject also affects learning; *Task knowledge* involves

learners knowing the aim, demands and characteristics of a learning task, and having a process to accomplish these using the methods needed to complete the task; *Strategy knowledge* shows how the learner can identify what is important or not in learning and consciously pick those strategies that help achieve reflective learning. It is crucial for learners so they can identify and adopt strategies that are the most beneficial for their learning.

Rahimi and Katal (2012) claim that metacognitive awareness raising can contribute to student performance and when teachers consciously build meta awareness into their teaching approaches, learning outcomes can be fulfilled. Nunan (1996) calls for language classrooms to have focus simultaneously on teaching language content and learning processes as well.

Thornbury (2005) gives importance to developing general skills which learners must know to be able to get results in TS. He classifies his approach in three stages, which he terms ‘awareness raising’, ‘appropriation’ and ‘autonomy’:

- Awareness is a concept that originates from cognitivist learning theory, where a degree of conscious awareness is a prerequisite to engender restructuring of the learner’s mental representation of the language. ‘Awareness involves at least three processes: attention, noticing, and understanding’ (Thornbury, 2005, p. 41). Awareness helps students to identify areas of spoken language that they have not mastered.
- Appropriation involves ‘making something one’s own’ (Thornbury, 2005, p. 63) which allows the learners to go beyond controlled activity to show that they have ‘self-regulation’, which helps in the progression of a skill. Students must show independent performance and build their confidence enough to take steps to commence communication.
- Autonomy involves student ability to self-regulate where before regulation came from outer sources (teachers or peers). This ought to engender autonomous activities by the learners both within and without the classroom.

### **3.6.1 Developing metacognitive awareness**

It is crucial to encourage speaking in class that tunes into student metacognition. Williams (2006 in Jones, 2007) describes three factors to facilitate metacognitive awareness. i.) The teacher must design a task that requires thinking. ii.) Student thinking must be valued and the classroom must be perceived by them as a safe, respectful environment in which to perform comfortably. iii.) Enough time must be given to build and encourage metacognitive awareness and promote student expression of their learning. The author emphasises that teachers must focus on asking questions that encourage students to contemplate their own learning behaviour.

Language learning effectiveness can be achieved when ‘learners play active role in the process of learning, to manage and direct their own learning and eventually to find the best ways to practice and reinforce what they have learned’ (Chari *et al.*, 2010 in Rahimi & Katal, 2012, p. 76).

The metacognitive ability of an individual enables the person to gain an understanding of the processes of learning from the planning to the evaluation part of the process. It is an acknowledged factor for success in education. In encouraging the students to reflect over their learning, teachers can also engage them in using their metacognitive strategy for speaking in EFL. The following section reviews literature on meta awareness and describes its fundamental importance in promoting reflective learning, and its contribution to learning speaking.

### **3.6.2 Research on meta awareness and learning speaking in EFL**

Zhang and Goh (2006) in their study of Singaporean EFL students found a connection existed between students’ belief in the usefulness of listening and speaking strategies and their intention to use these strategies. In their survey of 278 students, they identified the following communication strategies to be useful for face-to-face interactions for students: requesting repetition, requesting explanation, verifying comprehension, using synonyms, and communicating their intentions using examples.

Glover (2011) found that the metacognitive awareness of learners with regard to L2 speaking could be reinforced by describing crucial language learning processes to students. Creating this awareness helps language learning and language use. He makes a case for learner training in speaking to promote self-assessment to be taught by using descriptors for the various aspects of learning speaking. A concentrated approach towards this should help students to become successful self-assessors, who can actively participate in their learning and understand the how of speaking.

Goh (2014) deems the role of metacognition as pivotal to speaking because the students' intellectual processes involved in understanding speech and speech production are unavailable to teachers and perhaps to students too. Teachers need to draw their attention to 'understanding and managing their cognitive processes and emotions through activities that raise their metacognitive awareness about listening and speaking' (p. 5). Metawareness is thus viewed as an important tool in the learner's attempt to master spoken English in EFL.

The focus of this case study is how speaking is taught in the classroom. Interaction in the classroom is a key feature when speaking of TS. It is an integral part of speaking in academic settings and its role in the classroom is significant in building learners' speaking skills.

In the following section, the importance of interaction in the classroom is highlighted for it is in interaction that the speaking skill comes into its own in the classroom. The different types of interaction call for different types of classroom speaking performance as evidenced in the following section.

### **3.7 Interaction in the classroom**

Brown (2001) views classroom interaction as the interaction between teachers and learners in the classroom. He defines interaction linking it to communication: '... interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about' (p. 165). The term interaction is used as encompassing all interaction that takes place in the classroom. Interaction is seen as essential in the curriculum (van Lier, 1996; Ellis, 2000) as learning occurs during interaction, and not through it, i.e. the implication is that learners need more than interaction to master a language. Interaction is the crux of the learning teaching processes, no more so than in speaking, and provides an important context for this study.

Classroom interaction can be described as patterns and one such classification is given below.

### **3.7.1 Patterns of interaction**

One way of classifying classroom interaction may be based on who communicates with whom as given in the description by Zhao and Bitchener (2007) below:

a) Teacher - learners

Teacher talks to the whole class at the same time. He/she is the clear leader and makes decisions about the type and process of the learning activity.

b) Teacher - learner/a group of learners

Teacher addresses the whole class, but signals that response to the questions must come from an individual or a specific group.

c) Learner - learner

Teacher plays consultant and offers help as required. Interaction takes place in 'pair work'. Students are given an assignment to be completed in pairs.

d) Learners - learners

The teacher functions as a consultant and individual groups report on their work as a follow-up activity. Interaction takes place in 'group work'.

Mortimer and Scott (2003) have classified teacher-student communication as: interactive-non-interactive and authoritative-dialogic. Scott & Asoko (2006) claim that this leads to four types of 'communicative approaches' which they describe as follows:

i. Interactive/dialogic: teacher and students parlay a range of ideas.

ii. Interactive/authoritative: teacher-led focus on a specific point of view through display questions.

iii. Non-interactive/dialogic: teacher-guided view of various perspectives.

iv. Non-interactive/authoritative: teacher presents a specific point of view.

Based on this understanding of interaction, it is pertinent to study how classroom performance can be structured to facilitate student performance and understanding of the speaking skill in the EFL classroom.

### **3.7.2 Classroom speaking performance**

Brown (2000, p. 271) explicates six types of classroom speaking performance, which may enable students to speak in class. The teacher is involved directly or indirectly in these situations as speaker, listener or facilitator. In this context, if a teacher ignores TS, the significant role of the teacher in offering scaffolding to learners becomes a lost opportunity.

- a) Imitative: learners' practice of sounds of the language for focus on an aspect of speech, but not for meaningful communication.
- b) Intensive: speaking performance may be self-initiated or part of pair or class work; extends imitation by practice of grammatical or phonological elements.
- c) Responsive: speaking involves responding to teacher or student initiated questions and does not involve dialogue. It is 'closed' and is the most common speech act in the classroom.
- d) Transactional: an extension of the responsive type; speaking here conveys or exchanges specific information and has an element of negotiation.
- e) Interpersonal/dialogue: Conversation-based and is used to maintain social relationships and extends beyond mere transmission of information.
- f) Extensive/monologue: Student speech that is formal; involves presentations, speeches, etc.

It is a compelling way to classify speaking in the classroom in its inclusion of several key factors that shape the use of this skill in the classroom comprising the initiation, response and feedback (IRF) exchange, monologic and dialogic communication. Classroom speaking performance is perceived by students as carrying an inherent element of teacher and peer assessment as teachers and fellow students are the 'audience'. This may cause student anxiety and hinder participation in learning.

Another way of viewing interaction in the classroom would be as classroom discourse, which can be said to comprise monologic and dialogic communication as explained in the following section.

### **3.7.3 Monologic and dialogic discourses in context**

Teachers play an important role in shaping classroom discourse in providing opportunities for learning. Cullen (1998) points out that have a superior status in the classrooms, control topics of discourse and provide the only live target input that the students are likely to receive. The classroom communication of teachers can be divided into monologic (one person speaks to listeners) and dialogic (speaker and listener roles are interchangeable for participants) communication. O'Connor and Michaels (2007) view monologic and dialogic discourse as both ideological and structural. Ideological monologic discourse is a 'fixed transmission of ideas' (p. 277), whereas ideological dialogic discourse implies 'social relationships of equal status, intellectual openness, and possibilities for critique and creative thought' (p. 277).

The authors distinguish between monologic and dialogic teachers. A monologic teacher would be basically concerned with the transmission of knowledge and disciplinary hold or control over the class, implying that this set up would be dominated by teacher talk (TT). In contrast, a dialogic teacher would be communication-oriented and promote authentic interaction to facilitate the sharing and creation of meaning by and among students, which means student talk or speak (SS) is the norm.

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines TT in the words of Richards (1992, p. 471):

... variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners.

SS is the student speaking in class either in response to a teacher, initiated by the student or in response to a peer. Typically, TT dominates about 80% in the EFL classroom (Nunan,

1991). Sue (2008) identifies that the teacher's voice dominates classrooms to the detriment of learner meaning-making and argues for greater SS in the classroom.

Mercer & Dawes (2014) view dialogic teaching as that in which both teachers and pupils make substantial and significant contributions and it is a vehicle for pupils' thinking on a given idea or theme to be further explored. The authors believe active participation in the classroom through talk, be it interaction (dialogic) or performance (monologic), will benefit student speaking.

Jones (2007) believes that dialogic teaching, developing metacognitive awareness, planning and assessing can be used effectively to promote speaking and listening. (One must acknowledge that listening goes hand in hand with speaking, though as TS is the central focus, listening is not dealt with in this study). In her opinion, in dialogic teaching, the importance of teacher discourse arises from its role in developing SS. There must be more than IRF (typified by teacher questioning, followed by student response and teacher feedback) and focus on the correct answer in the classroom.

**Dialogic teaching:** Jones (2007) cites Alexander (2003) who enumerates four conditions that facilitate dialogic teaching: collective (students and teachers work in tandem in approaching learning tasks); reciprocal (students and teachers listen to each other and put forward other ideas and viewpoints); cumulative (using each other's ideas to build on when discussing topics) and supportive (providing a risk-free environment so students express ideas freely and cooperate with each other to arrive at a common understanding).

Alexander (2006) suggests that dialogic teaching be typified by certain features in classroom interaction: questions are to be structured to engender thought-based responses, which are built upon to keep the interaction going so teacher-student and student-student dialogues 'become a coherent line of enquiry rather than left stranded and disconnected ...' (Alexander, 2006, p. 32). Shumin (2002) and O'Keefe and Farr (2003) make it clear that speaking should be taught explicitly, with a dialogical approach.

**Teacher planning:** Planning to develop aspects of speaking are essential if the student is to become a well-rounded speaker. The teacher must be conscious of the kind of SS to promote for a teaching session. In Jones' (2006) view, this requires that the teacher identifies the following:

1. Social: developing relationships

2. Communicative: transferring meaning
3. Cultural: different meanings may be adopted by different speech communities (among children this might be associated with popular culture)
4. Cognitive: using talk as a means of learning' (p. 572).

The teacher is expected to be clear as to what kind of SS he/she wishes to elicit; choose materials and approach to promote this aspect of SS, and make sure that students are equipped to deal with the selected topic and can build on existing knowledge.

**Assessment:** Assessment (both summative and formative assessment) is important in developing speaking. The former measures learning and the latter informs and promotes learning. Jones (2007) sees the key aims of formative assessment as comprising: 1. feedback that focuses on learning goals. 2. Targets that are appropriate to the class. 3. Promote children's self-esteem in the class. Involving children in their own assessment is key as talk is personal and emotions involved require the creation of trust between student and teacher.

The next section defines the kinds of 'talk' that comprise speaking in the classroom and studies their functional context in the environment. Talk is important as it has clear implications for TS in that it offers what teachers can expect to hear of SS and their own contribution through teacher talk (TT). It may allow them to strategically target the kinds of talk that they need to have students performing in the classroom, while monitoring their own performance to ensure that they do not overshadow student participation and performance.

### **3.8 Classroom talk and teacher-student communication**

The increasing interest in the significance of spoken language has been beneficial in understanding the structure and functions of classroom talk. Talk in the language classroom is a powerful medium offering an explicit outlet for implicit thoughts and emotions. As it occurs as a natural part of the classroom environment, it is mistakenly seen as a competence that can be imbibed naturally, in an osmosis-like process not requiring teaching. Contrary to this idea, the teacher's role in developing student speaking is crucial. It is worth acknowledging that in most of the roles played by teachers in the classroom, be it classroom management or teaching per se, talk figures largely in this scenario. In this context, teacher

questions are an important facet of classroom activity and are seen as a solid tool for enabling student involvement in class.

### **3.8.1 Teacher questions**

Wright (2016) classifies teacher questions thus: open or referential questions, display or closed questions and yes/no questions. Yes/no questions are one kind of closed category questions because they only imply ‘yes’ or ‘no’ as possible answers; display questions are those to which the teacher has the answers, but requires students to ‘display’ their comprehension, confirmation or clarification knowledge, and often there is a correct answer. For referential questions, teachers do not have the answers when they ask the students and more than one response is possible. Brock (1986 in Wright, 2016) indicates that referential questions may encourage SS, and thereby, has relevant implications for second language acquisition.

Thornbury (1996) posits that teachers seem to prefer display questions, which test comprehension or language accuracy. He feels that in EFL classrooms, display questions discourage independent and more complex answers from students, leaving little room for metacognitive activity. Yes/no questions seem helpful to beginners who are not yet competent in the target language or feel anxious about speaking in class. Menegale (2008) argues for students to be given questions that provoke thinking and underlines that display and referential questions require different skills. Walsh (2002) notes that teacher questioning dominates class time to the detriment of students’ active participation in speaking and in the view of Thornbury (2000), it actively prevents authentic language use. These authors refer to closed or display questions as barriers to communication.

A frequently used minimal unit of interactional exchange between a teacher and a student is Initiation-Response-Follow-up. It is commonly referred to as Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF), thanks to linguists Sinclair and Coulthard (1975 in Mercer & Dawes, 2014) and IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) coined by the American sociologist Mehan (1979 in Mercer & Dawes, 2014). Hardman, Smith, and Wall (2003 in Mercer and Dawes, 2014) view IRF as typifying closed questioning (where there is one correct answer and often it is the teacher who has the ‘right’ answer) and is currently entrenched in EFL practice.

Nystrand *et al.* (2002 in Mercer & Dawes, 2014) reveal the typical predominance of TT as the norm, but highlight ‘dialogic spells’ which these researchers identified as being ideal for teachers to use to facilitate SS. They recommend that teachers use certain strategies *viz.* giving place for students to explore their ideas; following up on SS, using more open questions; dropping evaluative feedback comments to SS; and perhaps encouraging peers to offer such feedback to increase SS instances to engender a dynamic learning environment.

The authors focus on the value of ‘exploratory talk’ which in their opinion offers students the chance to think out aloud - a kind of ‘stream of consciousness’ in context to organise their ideas, ‘test the waters’ to hear for themselves how they sound, and how listeners react - be they peers or teachers. This kind of SS is usually hesitant with incomplete structures. On the other hand, they see that presentational talk requires that speakers be sensitive to their audience and ‘edit’ performance to serve audience requirements in terms of language, content and manner.

In this context, the authors highlight how the role and use of teacher questioning has been criticised for the following reasons: excessive questioning may feel like an ‘inquisition’ for the learners, may lead to stress, and can draw a blank; it results in uninvolved students and limiting opportunities for student interaction as most teacher questions are display questions leading to closed patterns of communication with right and wrong answers, which may cause student anxiety. More recently, Mercer and Dawes (2014) argue that teacher questions ought to be viewed in a more benevolent light. They claim that they serve other purposes like helping children’s learning and developing their language use for reasoning, but add that different kinds of teacher questions must also be used.

Other writers stress that students will gain a deep understanding of the topic under discussion if they are able to voice their thoughts and opinions, listen to that of their classmates as a reaction to their own reasoning, and learn from teacher feedback. A balance can be achieved among these factors to empower the students towards attaining skills and knowledge (Dawes, 2004; Myhill, Jones & Hopper, 2005).

The next section explores the kinds of speaking found in EFL classrooms and the challenges they may pose to NNs teachers.

### **3.9. Kinds of speaking in the classroom**

Richards (2008) divides classroom speaking into three kinds: talk as interaction; talk as transaction; talk as performance - which in his view require their own specific teaching approaches as they have different forms and functions.

He defines talk as interaction as conversation-like; what is commonly perceived as conversation and has a social function. He includes small talk, giving compliments, recounting experiences etc. in this category. The focus for this kind of talk is the speaker and the image he or she wants to project rather than the message being conveyed (Richards, 2008 p. 21). Using Brown and Yule's (1983) description of the core features of talk as interaction as being a social function, Richards (2008) reiterates that this kind of speaking reflects relationships and the identity of the speakers and is co-constructed by the speakers in context. In his opinion, it is difficult to teach talk as interaction given the tacit rules that govern it.

On the other hand, talk as transaction focuses on the message being transmitted and is concerned with making oneself comprehensible according to Richards (2008). The message enjoys central focus together with being clearly and accurately understood with no role for social interaction. The focus is said to be on the information in the message and not accuracy, with speakers asking questions, clarifying and justifying. Therefore, comparable activities in the classroom include frequent questions, repetitions, and comprehension checks (Richards, 2008), which are teacher-led. He feels that given that EFL classrooms use communicative materials and activities like role playing, it should be easier to teach this aspect of sharing and receiving information. Classroom group discussions and problem-solving activities are included in this category.

Talk as performance emphasises both form and accuracy. In the words of Richards (2008), it includes public talk that is a vehicle to transfer information to an audience and he cites classroom presentations as one example. It is typically monologic and its evaluation must include how the audience is impacted and influenced by it.

Jones (1996, p.17 in Richards 2008, p. 35) comments:

Initially, talk as performance needs to be prepared for and scaffolded in much the same way as written text, and many of the teaching strategies used to make

understandings of written text accessible can be applied to the formal uses of spoken language.

Richards (2008) emphasises that talk as performance could be taught by presenting students with models and analyse them to highlight salient features; the idea is to create opportunities for students to work in a manner where the teacher scaffolds and facilitates, while the learner becomes increasingly autonomous. In TS, this ought to minimise TT and ideally increase SS.

In the light of the importance of SS, it is relevant to understand its role in promoting EFL speaking. Harmer (2007 p. 123) identifies three overarching reasons why students should speak in the classroom:

1. Speaking activities offer opportunities for rehearsal of 'real-life' communication in a protected environment.
2. Performing speaking tasks offers scope for self, peer and teacher assessment because a specimen of speech makes it possible to identify how well or otherwise a student performs this skill.
3. Speaking practice facilitates automaticity, i.e. students can perform using the knowledge already gleaned and stored in the brain without consciously thinking of it.

Various studies highlight that TT tends to dominate the classroom, with SS contributing to a fraction of classroom real time. Mercer (2000) observed that there was a dearth of natural exploratory talk which Barnes (1976/1992) defined as talk that is used to explore ideas, and Mercer (2000) sees it as talk where students, independent of the teacher, engage critically and constructively with each other's ideas in the classroom. EFL learners should be motivated to try to speak as this improves speaking competence.

In the chapter, so far, speaking has been defined, models of speaking have been explored, the kinds of speaking examined, the characteristics of this skill discussed, a comparison of writing and speaking made, the difference between monologic and dialogic discourses outlined, and the various kinds of talk have been delineated to facilitate an in-depth understanding of speaking.

As is clear from research, language learners are affected by various factors when speaking in EFL. The next section details the challenges that students and teachers may face in EFL

speaking classrooms, keeping in mind that the classroom experience of both parties is pivotal to facilitating teaching and learning.

### **3.10. Challenges in EFL speaking & implications for TS**

The validity and efficacy of SS in EFL learning seems to be accepted in the field literature. Given the significance of SS, it is important to explore what factors influence student speaking EFL in the classroom. A review of literature of NNS learners reveals two overriding aspects as the predominant barriers to speaking: willingness to communicate (WTC) and self-esteem. Evidently, these factors are both relevant and important to study as they belong within the ethos of learner anxiety, which has been researched in some depth in EFL. This issue of anxiety will be dealt with in more detail in 3.10.1.

Other factors do play a part too. Nation & Newton (2009) indicate that students' class room speaking performance is vulnerable to performance conditions like time pressure, planning, quality of performance and the support they are given. Brown (2001) mentions affective factors like student concerns with being 'wrong, stupid, or incomprehensible' (p. 269). Krashen (1982) outlines affective factors that impact learners such as motivation, confidence and anxiety. Liu (2006) highlights the nerves students feel if asked to speak in class without prior preparation. Shumin (2002) declares that nervousness incapacitates learners, as they could also be sensitive to losing face.

Shumin (1997) and Duff (1998) deal with another challenge that speaking poses. The speakers having to play dual roles in a dialogic situation: listener and speaker, which means intelligibility and comprehension matter. So, listening becomes crucial for speaking, and listening is a skill that poses its challenges to EFL speakers.

Another factor is topical knowledge, which is relevant knowledge a speaker needs to speak to another person and is a kind of 'ready reckoner', i.e. knowledge of various issues, which can be drawn upon to help participation in a speech community. Baker and Westrup (2003) recommend that fit for purpose feedback must be given during speaking activities, and in the manner which is beneficial to the student, be it for corrective or encouragement purposes, in tune with the aim of the speaking activity. Feedback must be of learning and for learning as appropriate.

The section below is on anxiety and NNS EFL speaking, and is included as a pivotal, relevant variable which would affect SS and TT in the classroom and may negatively affect the optimal approach for TS in EFL.

### **3.10.1 Anxiety and EFL speaking studies**

Recent trends in research indicate an increasing body of research from countries where English is taught as a foreign language by NNS teachers to NNS learners. There appears to be consensus among researchers that anxiety is linked directly to performance in EFL, appearing to be a clear factor affecting language learning independent of learning contexts (Dornyei 2001 in Jeon, 2005). Language anxiety is viewed as: ‘a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, behaviors regarding classroom language learning from the unique language learning process’ (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) instead of a ‘simple transfer of anxieties to the language classroom’ (Scovel, 1978 in Chen, 2016, p. 2).

Three aspects of language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation by others, and test anxiety seem to predominate in literature (Horwitz *et.al.*, 1986; Aida, 1994; Mak, 2011). Mak (2011, p. 208) found five factors causing speaking-in-class anxiety and ranked them based on his study of students in Hongkong based on the Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) created by Horwitz *et al.* (1986), as quoted below:

- i. Speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.
- ii. Uncomfortableness when speaking with native speakers.
- iii. Negative attitudes towards the English classroom.
- iv. Negative self-evaluation.
- v. Fear of failing the class.

According to Miles (2014), fossilisation of language can occur because of language learner anxiety, which makes the teacher’s job even more crucial in facilitating a learner-friendly and enabling classroom environment. Therefore, it is incumbent upon the teachers to be aware of the anxiety issue and create a low-threat learning environment for EFL in order to change students’ negative perceptions on presentations and reduce language anxiety,

Tuan and Mei (2015) studied the factors that affect student spoken performance in EFL by studying a sample of two hundred and three grade 11 students and ten teachers of English in Vietnam using questionnaires and classroom observations. The results indicated that there was congruence between teachers and students on students' speaking performance being affected by topical knowledge, listening ability, teachers' feedback during speaking activities and confidence, while the teachers indicated an extra aspect of motivation to speak as a factor.

Zade and Hashemi (2014) studied the significance of self-esteem and willingness to communicate (WTC) among Iranian intermediate students. The study found that the psychological constructs anxiety and WTC had a clear role in the EFL classroom. They suggest that both teachers and students can expect better classroom spoken performance if they factor in these constructs and understand their impact on speech production.

In an English as a L3 (second generation immigrant students who have Danish as a second language) gender study of students in Denmark and Greenland, findings suggest that there is a level of anxiety in the English classroom situation (Spellberg, 2011). The findings show that boys tend to feel more confident in the English classroom situation than girls.

This finding supports the notion that level of classroom anxiety is related to achievement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Krashen, 1981; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994) as those groups who do best in the English test [in this case, the boys] are least anxious/most confident in the English classroom situation (Spellerberg, 2011, p. 164).

Tsai, Chuang, Liang & Tsai (2011) underline that self-efficacy is a crucial factor when predicting learning outcomes, as it influences students in the way they interpret knowledge, what they think of their abilities and skills, and what image previous experience has given them of their competence in certain areas. These factors can evidently impact student confidence and influence their knowledge acquisition, skills and attitudes (Schunk, 2000).

Lukitasari (2003) conducted a study focusing on the strategies that first semester university students in Indonesia adopted to overcome speaking problems of inhibition, lack of or low participation, and L1 use, and found that other exacerbating factors like lack of mastery of the three elements of speaking namely vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation was an additional challenge which impeded performance. To counteract inhibition, students were asked to speak English with their classmates outside class and given additional drills to make

them more active and confident in class; low or uneven participation was mitigated by encouraging students to prepare materials beforehand, so they could try using these materials to speak more freely; and to decrease using L1, students were encouraged to join English clubs and speak to native speakers.

Tanveer (2007) investigated language anxiety factors for twenty language learners in the EFL Unit and Department of Education of the University of Glasgow in learning speaking skills and how anxiety impacted target language communication. His findings suggest that student stress and anxiety have a negative impact on student learning and performance. He cites Horwitz (2001), who has established that anxiety in language learning is one of the most researched variables in education and that it has a significantly negative effect on SS.

Crucially, he makes a point about how EFL learners' tension or nervousness are focused on the 'two basic task requirements of foreign language learning: listening and speaking because, in interaction, both the skills cannot be separated' (Tanveer, 2007, p. 3). He stresses the importance of foreign language teachers taking into consideration the anxiety of students when teaching speaking to achieve the learning outcomes designated for a course of study. Learner anxiety in the EFL classroom is related to the fact that an evaluative element is perceived and they feel that both teachers and peers are watching them (Tanveer, 2007). Littlewood, (2007) echoes this idea of student inhibition and anxiety.

In a study involving one hundred and thirty-two Korean college students, Park and Lee (2005) explored the relationship between second language learners' anxiety, self-confidence and speaking performance and established a one-to one correspondence between learner anxiety level and poor oral performance.

Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) studied the WTC and self-esteem variables and found that Japanese adolescent students who are willing to communicate are also the ones who tend to initiate communication in the classroom.

MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1998) found that student self-confidence influenced student willingness to communicate and is key if they were feel free to speak.

The studies referred to in this section attempt to reflect the role of anxiety as a negative influence on NNS students speaking English in the EFL classroom. In the context of the classroom, speaking carries potential challenges because of its characteristics and these factors may be an impediment to SS.

This places certain demands on the teacher including the teacher's understanding of the complex factors surrounding speaking, and student attitudes to speaking and anxieties when speaking in the classroom.

The section below offers a glimpse of other challenges NNS teachers and students face in the EFL classroom in TS and their effect on the significant role of the teacher.

### **3.10.2 Challenges teachers face in TS in the classroom**

The speaking skill has been identified as a multicognitive, complex activity and the importance of teaching it to EFL learners cannot be overstated. However, research highlights that many English teachers seem to ignore it in their teaching (Scarcella & Oxford, 1994; El Menoufy, 1997; Miller, 2001), preferring to concentrate on writing and reading instead. This may be partly due to difficulty for teachers in not knowing how to approach TS or for the learners finding difficulty in the spontaneous nature of speaking and the complexities already outlined above.

In EFL, successful language development of speaking requires the participation of teachers and learners alike. The teachers' role is to encourage students to understand how speaking works and offer input, guidance and scaffolding to push for performance, while consciously creating a safe environment for it. Therefore, Miller (2001) underscores the importance of investing in TS because it is a difficult skill to teach or master.

Teachers are challenged by diverse factors as low student motivation, and the teachers' own lack of skill in planning and implementing effective oral activities (Chen & Goh, 2011). Bandura (1997) states that the factors that influence self-efficacy beliefs of people when performing specific tasks (here extended to the contexts of NNS students speaking in the EFL classroom) could throw up further barriers to student speaking in class and have an impact on TS, making the teacher's task even more complex. To paraphrase:

- Mastery or enactive experiences which is how students view their past performance
- Vicarious experience of observing how others (perhaps peers) perform the task
- Social persuasion, which arises from getting feedback from others on one's speaking. (teacher or peer feedback)

- Physiological or emotional state which is anxiety or stress related and affects what the student believes of the information he or she gets (student might not ‘hear’ the information).

These barriers may impact the communication between teachers and students, in addition to other factors as indicated below.

### **3.10.2.1 Student speak as a challenge for teachers**

A common hindrance to teachers in an EFL classroom is getting students to speak in the classroom. As SS is the basis for student-teacher interaction, lack of student participation may be a source for stress and frustration of teachers, who may desist from TS as too time-consuming.

Ur (1996) identifies four factors that make student speak (SS) a challenge for teachers to facilitate in the classroom:

- a. Inhibition: The barriers to performance that students encounter are fear and anxiety about making mistakes, fear of criticism, losing face and being uncomfortable with their spoken language being placed in the ‘spotlight’.
- b. Lack of topical knowledge: Learners seem to suffer from not knowing what to say and finding the motivation to say something. Baker and Westrup (2003) believe this could be because of teachers choosing topics which are either unsuitable for the FL learners or students having little knowledge of it. Students may not have access to the necessary vocabulary or be familiar with the grammatical structures required for the task.
- c. Low or uneven participation: Teachers may be unable to control student participation. SS time is limited in classrooms and not all students may get the time they need to speak. A few students may dominate in the classroom, making the others reluctant to participate.
- d. Mother-tongue (MT) use: Given the uniformity of the mother tongue background, it is easy for students to resort to their mother-tongue for SS. Harmer (1991) adds that apart from the fact that students find using MT easy, lack of knowledge of a topic may contribute to MT predominance in students speaking among themselves in MT.

They further find encouragement and persist using MT, if the teacher too uses MT in the classroom seeing it as tacit permission.

These barriers must be overcome to give teachers a chance to motivate the students because in TS, teachers can contribute to developing children's knowledge, skills and understanding. Language should be a 'tool for collective sense-making, or 'thinking together' (Mercer Littleton, & Dawes, 2003, p. 81). In this context, it is, as stressed above, important to acknowledge the crucial role the teacher plays in the classroom: the pivotal role of the adult (here teacher) is to provide the necessary scaffolds for learning that develop learners' knowledge, skills and understanding. Significantly, the more experienced adult or peer may act as a scaffold for learning (Bruner, 1986). It is worth recalling that NNS teachers have a 'baggage' when teaching speaking arising from both student anxiety and their own self-efficacy. Hence, the role of the teacher in proactively helping students is the pivotal professional requirement and challenge.

If students have issues with self-efficacy when speaking, it is worth exploring how teachers' sense of self-efficacy impacts them. It affects them in many ways and seems particularly powerful in its impact on NNS teachers teaching NNS students.

### **3.10.2.2 NNS teachers' self-efficacy issues & impact on teacher role in TS**

If emphasis is to be given to TS in EFL, then it is the teacher who must make this conscious choice and commitment. It would be pertinent to study the factors that would encourage non-native English teachers (NNETs) to teach speaking or refrain from doing so.

Teacher self-efficacy studies in teaching a foreign language indicate the presence of various factors that affect teachers' TS. A crucial influence on TS is self-efficacy, which is defined by Chen and Goh (2011) as teachers believing that they have the ability to perform particular teaching tasks to achieve certain results. Another definition is the belief that one has the ability to organise and carry out specific actions to produce chosen goals (Bandura 1997). Perceptions of self-efficacy are a powerful influence on how teachers carry out their work. In the case of NNETs, the challenge with regards to TS appears to be greater than native speakers as pointed out by Chen and Goh (2011).

Doff (1987) makes it clear that self-perceived language proficiency is a basis for the professional confidence of NNETs. A teacher's confidence can be undermined by a poor

command of the English language. This can affect the self-esteem, professional status of the teacher and impact on praxis. Research illustrates that perceived language proficiency is an important issue for NNETs and has an impact on their professional self-esteem and confidence (Ghasemolani & Hashim, 2013).

The Chen and Goh (2011) study conducted in higher education in China highlights the frustrations of Chinese EFL teachers who were challenged by inadequate self-efficacy in oral proficiency and pedagogical knowledge of TS. They further conclude that this inadequate self-efficacy trickles into other aspects of teaching and affects teachers negatively in their profession as a whole. NNETs who are convinced of their self-efficacy appear to be willing to enter into open discussions in response to student questions (Borg, 2001 in Chen & Goh, 2011).

Gregoire (2003) indicates that teachers' sense of self-efficacy is a significant player for change management in educational reform: it can have a detrimental influence on how teachers cope with reform and adjust to the changes entailed. In one scenario, teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy cannot find the motivation to change their teaching because they believe they cannot manage the changes needed in the future (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). The other scenario may be that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy resist change because they have such a high opinion of their own practice rendering them unable to view their current practice critically enough to change their approach (Granger, Bevis, Saka, Sutherland, Sampson & Tate 2012; Pajares, 1997; Settago, Southerland, Smith, & Ceglie, 2009; Wheatley, 2002).

While teacher self-efficacy is seen as an important element in the challenge it may pose to teachers, it reveals the complexity of the EFL teaching environment and the strain various factors place on teachers and learners. While teaching speaking, teachers who must give students an opportunity to speak in class may lack confidence because of their self-efficacy dilemmas. In refraining from TS, they lose the opportunities in the classroom to use their roles actively to promote learning.

The classroom environment presents challenges to both teachers and students in EFL. With a view to helping students speak the target language in the classroom, the next section attempts to give a well-grounded perspective on the how of TS in EFL, as reflected in research.

### 3.11 Contemporary research in TS in EFL

Speaking as indicated in previous sections appears to be less favoured than other skills in EFL, if one were to judge by the apparent dearth of research in this skill in SLA. This is puzzling as ‘it is the yardstick by which proficiency appears to be measured at least by the layman’ (Baleghizadeh & Shahri, 2014). Bygate (1987) makes a case for it as ‘the vehicle par excellence of social solidarity, of social ranking, of professional advancement and of business’ (p. 7). Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2000 in Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014) describe it as the ‘most challenging skill considering the complex processing it entails’ (p. 739). The challenge could well be the complexity which lies in the transitory nature of speaking (Bygate, 2006), given that students are required to process and perform in real time, while the teachers likewise need to listen, perceive and give feedback, if appropriate, to the speaking task at hand.

Følse (2006) indicates the importance of the teacher being aware that ‘in a speaking task, there are two languages required. One language is the language in the actual task. The second is the language the students need to complete the task’ (p. 23). He says that teachers are good at drawing students’ attention to language **in** the task and not the language needed **for** the task (his emphasis). He claims it is this latter aspect that makes students passive in conversation classes and calls for teachers to work towards getting their students to speak in the class as often as possible.

He makes an important statement that contributes to the discussion regarding ideal TT time (the amount a teacher talks in the classroom) and SS time (the amount of time spent with students speaking in the classroom). Følse says: ‘In a good speaking task, the teacher has for the most part no speaking role’ (p. 27). It echoes the point of view that TT in TS should be minimised and the teacher’s role should be primarily as facilitator and not become a dominant factor in the classroom. For NNS teachers, the implication is that in facilitating speaking, their role cannot be reduced to an IRF exchange, but one where they are required to use more open constructions. If teachers do not believe in their self-efficacy and are not competent speakers of English, this would be an added strain.

Researchers like Chen (2016) have called for incorporating higher-order thinking through higher-order questioning in EFL learning. She has made a significant contribution to the world of TS in an article in which she establishes the importance of integrating higher-order

thinking into L2 speaking. She describes higher order thinking skills as ‘the mental processes of analysis, synthesis and evaluation, which is commonly used in activities such as problem solving, reasoning, thinking, assessing and concluding’ (p. 217).

Her study based in a Taiwanese university aims to show how higher-order questioning positively influences L2 speaking and cognitive development. She promotes higher-order questioning to facilitate students to engage in critical thinking when speaking. While there may be a considerable difference between the levels of university students and grade 8 students both in cognitive skills and linguistic skills, her arguments nevertheless provide food for thought in the context of this study.

It is crucial for speaking to take place in the social context of the classroom. As Chen (2016) highlights, the Vygotskian tenets of social interaction, wherein using language in a social situation is seen to promote communication and the mediation of self and environment, cannot be fulfilled through display questions, which are ‘closed’. She advocates a way to move forward by using referential questions, which are open-ended and encourage longer responses from students and are closest to recreating the out of classroom setting to elicit student responses naturally. She accepts that display questions (closed questions) have a specific role, but cautions that their predominance can be negative for language learning in general and particularly for the spoken language.

Chen (2016) postulates that in an EFL classroom, the target language has triple characteristics: it is a communication tool, the vehicle of cognitive activity and the learning objective. This underscores the importance of using these in conjunction to make TS effective through meaningful TT and active and critical SS. Chen (2016) further asserts that a learning process which uses the target language as a tool for cognitive activity in a communicative context facilitates development of language and intelligence concurrently. She outlines three relevant questioning strategies, which could engender higher order thinking with clear explanations as paraphrased below:

- *Wait time* consists of post question and post response wait time; the former is the time taken for the student to respond to a teacher’s question, which allows for students to exercise their cognition to formulate a response and utter it. The latter is the time between a student’s response and another student’s contributory response, which can encourage other students to think about the matter presented and form and

present their opinions or a teacher continuing her talk. If the wait time is too short, students will be discouraged from speaking.

- *Question refinement* involves repeating, paraphrasing or simplifying a question to enable student comprehension of and the last action is the most effective in promoting speaking.
- *Probing* is used in either mediating or scaffolding student thinking to elicit student response. This could be achieved by offering a supplementary question or questions to elicit longer and more independent responses. It offers the teacher insight into student thinking and expands student ideas.

The integration of higher order thinking and TS appears successful in this Taiwanese study and might offer a means to review and construct models for this TS study. Chen (2016) advocates that speaking skills be taught explicitly, students be given language learning strategies and provided relevant vocabulary. This input should be put to good use by enabling students to practise skills in the context of communicative tasks. This metacognitive focus, she claims, is more significant for learning speaking and benefits both fluency and planning by students. This focus ought to enable students to benefit from teacher feedback (Goh & Burns, 2012).

McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2004) claim TS has not seen any any significant departure or development since the work of Burns (1998) in her summing up of the research on TS, and the theoretical perspectives on speaking by Bygate (1998), though the contribution to understanding spoken language because of the developments in spoken corpora linguistics is noteworthy. This implies the availability of spoken corpora from Englishes around the world for research on TS. The authors opine that comparisons between NS and NNS spoken corpora indicate the need for a spoken corpus which serves as a lingua franca, to create a corpus independent of English as a native language and prevalent model for spoken English. Most of spoken corpora research is domain specific and concerned with the written or the spoken genre (Guillot, 2002; Tan, 2003). Spoken corpora has not been fully exploited to add to existing research on TS, and therefore, McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2004) delineate six main areas relevant to the teaching of speaking as research-worthy:

- The increasingly valid role that spoken corpora plays in research on speaking.
- The role of the native (NS) and non-native English speaker in TS.

- Authenticity in materials for TS.
- Understanding classroom speaking approaches.
- Aspects of spoken language chosen for TS and text selection.

The next section reveals attempts made to explore the relationship between TC and TS in EFL using empirical studies. It reflects the scarcity of research in the field in terms of quantity. However, it reveals common findings amongst these studies ensuring that NNS teachers can identify with the challenges faced by their colleagues around the world while teaching speaking in EFL.

### **3.12 Research on TC about TS**

TS in conjunction with TC is not represented much in research (Borg, 2006; Chen & Goh, 2011; Goh, 2013). Perhaps, it is not surprising to find proportionately fewer research studies on the speaking competence in TC mirroring its limited representation in EFL studies.

The studies available for looking at the TC for TS and the reasons for teaching or not teaching speaking have concentrated on teachers' idea of self-efficacy regarding TS in EFL. They indicate that teachers feel ill-equipped to teach speaking as they believe their proficiency in English is lacking as is their TS know-how. The studies referred to are not specific to the grade which I have included in my study and range from primary school to university level.

These two factors are significant as research on TC indicates that they may pose barriers to TS. Teachers may shy away from TS even though they know speaking is an important skill for learners to master. Furthermore, this might also lead to teacher-controlled TS which concentrates on accuracy and ignores fluency, because the teacher feels more secure in the environment of language rules and structures and can play the role of the 'expert'. This, in turn, would have a negative impact on the concept of meaningful communication as a goal of TS.

Li and Walsh (2011) have identified 20 studies that compared teachers' beliefs with their classroom practices, and indicate that only a few focused on non-native speaking. They are

clear that it is important to have more studies on NNS teachers and their teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) for two reasons: to avoid ignoring a growing field of EFL and to understand TESOL practices. Li (2013) echoes the lack of research in ‘non-native English speaker teachers in non-anglophone settings’ (p. 176), and lists the studies in the field as the ones by Breen *et al.* (2001), Phipps and Borg (2009), and Li and Walsh (2011). ‘Research in EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts will make a significant contribution to understanding language teachers and pedagogy in international contexts’ (Li, 2013, p. 176).

Li & Walsh (2011) outline three reasons for why studying interaction is pivotal to TC.

- The key constructs which constitute TC have interaction as their nucleus: teaching, learning and learners, subject matter, professional development; the teachers all function in interaction to make meaning of their environment as they work towards academic goals.
- Teacher decision-making is influenced by their cognition of what constitutes good praxis. This ‘right’ decision involves teacher understanding of a multidimensional perspective of teaching and learning, roles of teachers and students, the choice of subject matter/texts in tune with their TC.
- The ideal context for studying TC is in the context of the environment where the behaviour under study is exhibited.

Many English teachers are seen to have limited knowledge about teaching oral English skills (Chen & Goh, 2011; DeBoer, 2007; Goh, Zhang, Ng & Koh, 2005) and therefore desist from it or ‘do speaking’, which is providing students opportunities to speak the target language, but not explicitly teaching them speaking.

Goh *et al.* (2005) remark another reason that teachers give for not concentrating on this skill can be attributed to the backwash effect of exams, where examinations give less weighting to speaking compared to reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary.

Goh (2013) believes to teach speaking, teachers must grasp the concept of oracy, which is the ability of using the oral skills of speaking and listening. It ranks with terms like ‘literacy’ and ‘numeracy’ and indicates important competencies for students.

A recent study of Iranian university students by Baleghizadeh and Shahri (2014) juxtaposes the teachers’ views of how students should learn to speak and how the teachers themselves

learnt to speak English. The study indicates how conceptions of TS are inextricably linked with the learning experience and offer an insight into the participants' beliefs of how EFL speaking should be taught and learnt.

Butler (2004), in his survey of more than 500 teachers in Taiwan, Korea and Japan, found that teachers felt they lacked proficiency in TS in elementary schools. In a study of challenges posed to teachers who are NNS teachers in TS in EFL in China, Chen and Goh (2011) found teachers to be the problematic aspect in teaching this skill. This is because as NNS, they rate their efficacy in speaking English, their TS and their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as low, perhaps proving how perception of self-efficacy affects other aspects of teaching.

This is a critical dilemma as it negatively impacts teacher confidence as professionals and hinders their ability to teach speaking and get students involved in speaking as was indicated earlier in this chapter. Compounding the challenges already outlined, Chen and Goh (2011) identified the problems which seem endemic to teaching like large classes, limited teaching time, insufficient teaching resources, and low-proficiency student levels as further making TS an uphill task.

In their study on NNS English teachers' self-perceived knowledge about TS in China from 56 universities across 29 cities, Chen and Goh (2014) posit that both pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and knowledge of the students and their characteristics (KOS) are important. The former offers a close correlation between the subject content and appropriate pedagogy and highlights the communication between teacher and students, while the latter, offers insight into teacher perception of student proficiency, their learning experiences, and their development in the subject.

Interestingly, they found that both PCK and KOS in TS did not vary in relation to teaching experience. Experienced teachers might have good knowledge of TS, but it may still be insufficient to transfer this into the teaching of TS. They found that teachers trained to teach speaking did not outperform those who had no training, but this, they feel, could be attributed to the fact that the training lasted only a few hours or a couple of days, and it lacked any relevance to the contextual reality of the teachers' classroom environment.

The authors declare that three significant factors could contribute towards positively focusing on TS: teacher active self-reflection and engagement in teaching and learning; good modelling in their experience as students of English; and self-perceived speaking ability.

There appears to be a direct proportional relationship between self-perceived speaking ability and the increase in PCK and KOS, as also ability and teacher familiarity with TS methodology.

To sum up, teachers seem to find TS difficult for various reasons. It appears that TC in TS rests on the perceived self-efficacy of the NNS teacher, the barriers perceived by the teachers to TS in the school environment at large, and specifically, their own teaching environment. Student involvement and availability of teaching/learning resources are other major issues for them. Given the complexity of the factors described, TS appears to be a complex challenge for EFL teachers who respond to it by either omitting TS or ‘doing speaking’ instead of TS, i.e. ‘simply “doing” speaking activities is not the same as learning the knowledge, skills and strategies of speaking’ (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 166).

The aim of my own study is to offer a ‘state of the art’ for TS. This may be a possible source of inspiration to EFL teachers who may find it beneficial, should their TS require it.

### **3.13 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has given an overview of the speaking skill and TS with its theoretical foundations and current research in the field. The ‘state of the art’ in TS has been used to contextualise this study. In exploring the relationship of TC about TS in EFL within the perspectives of both learning and teaching, students and teachers, a platform has been established to facilitate analysis of the complex relationship between TC and TS.

# Chapter 4: Methodology

## 4.0 Introduction

The rationale of this case study (CS) is based on teacher cognition (TC) about teaching speaking (TS) in English as a foreign language (EFL). This could be said to have dictated the methodology preferred and adopted for this educational research project as the study of TC in TS seems to lend itself particularly well to the qualitative approach in its ethos, given that it delves in depth into the cognitive processes of individual teachers regarding their teaching. Employing a collective CS study approach (more than one unit of study, where a unit is a teacher in interaction within his/her EFL classroom), the study aims to use interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents to uncover TC about TS.

This chapter begins with exploring briefly the concept of the qualitative research paradigm, the CS in qualitative research, a reiteration of its value, contextualisation of the current study followed by data collection methods. This chapter also introduces the key players in the study - the teachers and the classes they teach, and the researcher. To conclude this chapter, a discussion of the manual coding adopted for this study is undertaken together with the ethical factors applicable in this CS research environment.

## 4.1 The qualitative research paradigm

Qualitative research is characterised by broad questions (rather than hypotheses) asking ‘why’ questions and not ‘how often’ something is prevalent. Maxwell (2005) proposes that the questions may be classified as: questions of meaning, or how people envisage the world; questions that cast light on context; and questions that investigate processes.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) see qualitative research as being interpretive and naturalistic because it is conducted in the environment which is being studied, i.e. natural settings, to understand the phenomena through the eyes of the people who are the subjects of the study (Ericksen & Gutierrez, 2002; Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). This identifies two core aspects - natural setting and the points of views of the research participants. The attitude of the

researcher is also included as a significant variable as Denzin and Lincoln (2005) express: 'Behind all research stands the biography of the gendered researcher, who speaks from a ... class, racial, cultural and ethnic community perspective' (p. 21).

Cassel and Symon (1994 in Kohlbacher, 2005) capture the characteristics for qualitative research in a nutshell: interpretation, not quantification; subjectivity over objectivity; focus on context; the contribution of behaviour and situation as a cogent factor in shaping experience, and acknowledgement of the undeniable impact of the process of research on the research environment.

Qualitative research is described as emergent because the research questions develop in interaction with setting, data and its analysis, which together with sampling, data collection, and interpretation contribute to a cogent whole carrying the synergy created by its constituents. It is concerned with interpretation of subjective meaning, social context and the knowledge of the people involved in a study.

My CS within the qualitative paradigm involves:

- Detailed examination of the teachers' cognition regarding their approach to teaching speaking (TS) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and their rationalisations for why they teach the way they do elicited through their stated beliefs and enacted beliefs gleaned through semi-structured interviews and classroom observations respectively.
- The reasons for congruence or incongruence between TC and TS based on literature review and reflected in praxis through interview and observations.
- Analyses of relevant research instruments including questionnaires and document analysis as salient parts of this study in attempting to build a comprehensive picture of the cases.

Using a collective CS, my study aims to identify the teacher cognition of seven grade 8 teachers of EFL in the schools in The Faroe Islands about teaching speaking, how this influences their praxis and determine reflection, if any, of the 'state of the art' from current literature review on TS in EFL to see how it is mirrored in the TS praxis that emerges in the Faroese context.

## 4.2 Case Study research

Case study was chosen as an appropriate framework from within the qualitative research approach to study phenomena in context and draw upon the environment in which these phenomena occur and develop, thus including the dynamism of real-time observations in context.

Merriam (1998) says that the qualitative case study can be defined on three levels: 'procedural level of the investigation', the case(s) and the product that results from the study. She defines the characteristics of a CS as 'particularistic' in its intense focus on the phenomenon under study, 'descriptive' in the extensive description of the case and 'heuristic' in revealing the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon being studied (p. 34).

George and Bennett (2005) opine that the case study is consistent with the interpretivist paradigm because it is based on the ethos that reality is a social construct, which is born of the interaction between groups and individuals. CS as 'interpretivist paradigm' is seen to have significance as the research goal includes deep descriptions that can be analysed. The authors underline that case studies are best defined by their units of analysis, which give a clear indication of what the case is about, which in their opinion, is 'an instance of some phenomenon, and the phenomenon comprises the analytical frame; that is, the object...' (George & Bennett, 2005, p. 69).

Devetak, Glažar and Vogrinc (2010) see CS research as interpretative - i.e. the researcher's experience is a significant contribution and the subjective experience a valuable input and a bonafide part of this kind of research. Within this interpretative paradigm, the aim is to engender a deep understanding of the phenomena in their natural settings because the researcher is interested in the context in which they are situated

This emphasis of the individual participant's role in the shared experience of all participants makes this an idiographic approach (Vogrinc 2008, in Starman, 2013), i.e. where the unique experience of the individual matters and he/she may not share traits in common with another, even though they are teachers teaching the same subject in grade 8.

At the same time, care is taken to see that subjective objectivity (i.e. the awareness of the influence of the subjective stance on objective comprehension of a research situation) is maintained in the researcher's contact with the participants and the school environment. This very awareness may discourage CS from purely having a subjective stance and facilitate objectivity. VanWynsberghe and Khan (2007) indicate that researcher bias could be avoided by having a consistent and detailed tracking of data collection, documentation, information and other related procedures to ensure CS reliability.

Stake (1995) and Yin (2003) view CS as a constructivist paradigm wherein truth is relative and relies on individual perspectives. The subjective input from the researcher in creating meaning in tandem with the participants is permissible within the research context allowing for the relationship between researcher and participant to contribute to creation of knowledge as it were.

Yin (2003) is clear that the CS approach should be used to answer 'how' and 'why' questions, where the manipulation of the people involved in the study is not possible, contextual settings are important to fully understand the phenomena being studied, and boundaries between phenomena and context are blurred. As a researcher, I cannot manipulate the teachers' behaviour intentionally, though the researcher's presence may or may not influence teacher behaviour.

The context is the classroom setting where the phenomena occur and the delineation between context and phenomena cannot be stated as there is no value or significance to the phenomena without their context, which is both crucial and the *raison d'être* of the phenomena.

In Stake's (2005, p. 437) words:

... collective case studies involve the study [of] a number of cases...to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition...[who] are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorizing, about a still larger collection of cases.

Hancock & Algozzine (2006) say that in this approach, a deeper understanding of the issues being studied is not as important as affording a greater awareness of the theoretical explanation that supports the issue. Hartley (2004) states that CS research aims to offer an

exploration of both context and processes which highlight the theoretical issues being studied.

Despite the avenues that CS explores and the insight it offers into various areas of research, there seems to be a tendency to be apologetic about it within the qualitative paradigm. The next section illustrates the validity of CS approach in research.

#### **4.2.1 Validity of Case Study approach**

There are many perspectives on CS because it has been instrumental in many fields: psychology, medicine, social sciences, and education to name a few. Despite this fact, CS, it appears, must be defended in the research community, which is preoccupied with the supposed lack of generalisability, high validity and reliability of case studies.

Case study presents data that is usually gathered through interviews, observations, recorded data (audio or video) and document collection. The purpose of multiple sources of data is to aim for additional validity to claims made by either the researcher or the participants within the case itself. The approach intended is one of analytical induction to interpret findings and draw conclusions, which may contribute to existing research in the field and facilitate ‘transfer of knowledge’. In qualitative literature, instead of generalisability, transferability of hypotheses, principles or findings is adopted (Duff, 2008). CS does not purport to have representative sampling or claim generalised applicability, apart from ‘naturalistic generalization - learning from others’ experiences’ (Duff, 2008, p. 51).

Shields (2007 in Merriam, 2009) defends the qualitative CS in education against what he terms ‘the new "gold standard"' of randomized controlled trials in educational research. His argument highlights the differences and paradoxes that sometimes colour case studies as a strength, which is exemplified by the fact that ‘there are no simple answers’ and therefore, ‘it (CS) can and should qualify as the gold standard’ (p. 52).

VanWynsberghe and Khan (2007) argue for the transferability of evidence beyond the case to elucidate what has been done, ought to be done, and offer new insights and interpretations of the results.

Theorizing about the how question (Yin, 2003; Flyvbjerg, 2001), providing context (Merriam, 1988), exploring theory (Mitchell, 1983), and locating relationships (Ragin, 1997) of value to society, are several of the positive features of case study research that embody Flyvbjerg’s notions of the quintessential social science (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007, p. 6).

The authors use Flyvbjerg’s (2001 in VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007) debunking of myths about social sciences research and extend it to the context of CS. In so doing, they offer a convincing platform for CS as a valuable tool to study social settings and build credence to their definition of the CS. Paraphrased below in table 4.1 is the crux of their arguments.

**Table 4.1 Debunking myths regarding case study (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007)**

<p><b>Myth 1: Case studies cannot be used to make predictions; they are too contextualized</b></p>	<p>The sheer, concrete details furnished in a case highlight how limited predictions are given that it is context which is the fulcrum upon which the CS rests. Predictions can be made as to whether a theory finds its application in the context or not. The ‘boundedness’ of the case implies that the researcher can make predictions about the case.</p>
<p><b>Myth 2: Case studies cannot produce generalizations</b></p>	<p>Generalisations can be made within the context of the CS and be recognised as temporal. Using knowledge, experience and other theories already available as a basis, generalisation can be made if required. Comparing cases within a study and to other studies offers a platform for generalisations or rethinking applicable theories.</p>
<p><b>Myth 3: Case studies, like all social science, have limited use as generators and testers of hypotheses</b></p>	<p>Hypotheses can be applied and tested within the bounded case, be they single or multiple cases. An individual case may well repudiate what is posited. Translatability between cases is significant as these can be used to test or generate hypotheses.</p>
<p><b>Myth 4: Case studies are biased toward verification of researchers’ preconceived motives</b></p>	<p>Rueschemeyer (2003 in VanWynsberghe &amp; Khan, 2006) sees the direct and recurrent connection between theory and data as the advantage of CS over experimental or quantitative research. It provides the link between ‘<i>conceptual intent and empirical evidence</i>’ (p. 6). The search for detail requires that the researcher be completely immersed in the context that they are open to flaws in their conceptual framework.</p>
<p><b>Myth 5: Case studies are too difficult to summarize</b></p>	<p>The very details involved in describing the case/cases offers a foundation for a comprehensive description of the unit of analysis, so it can convey its core idea.</p>

### 4.2.2 Case Study: Research type or method?

CS is viewed as a qualitative research type by many authors (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Flyvbjerg, 2006, 2011; Sagadin, 2004 in Starman, 2013; Simons, 2009; Stake, 2005; Sturman, 1997; Verschuren, 2003), whereas others (George & Bennett, 2005; Gerring, 2004) deem it a qualitative research method (Starman, 2013).

VanWynsberghe and Khan (2007) argue that CS is not a method, research design or methodology. They say CS cannot be a method as this would reduce it to a technique and researchers cannot 'collect data prescriptively using CS' (p. 3), and there are no set data collection procedures. They argue that it is not a research design as this presupposes an action plan to guide the researcher from question to conclusion with clearly defined steps for data collection, analysis and interpretation with pre-selected units for each, and CS does not offer such a concrete or fixed plan.

The authors contend that it is not methodology, as it does not 'provide a parsimonious theory of how research should proceed with conceptually coherent methods and accompanying data collection procedures that map onto theory' (p. 4). Instead, they suggest a prototype of CS combining properties that case studies share to illustrate the underpinning of their definition. The authors offer their definition of CS drawing on already existing rationale in the field using seven common features as delineated in the table, which they describe as a 'defensible rather than a definitive view take on CS' (p. 7). Their definition:

... CS is a transparadigmatic and transdisciplinary heuristic that involves the careful delineation of the phenomena for which evidence is being collected... CS promotes learning through the study of the particularities and complexities of a bounded system (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007, p. 6).

In keeping with their arguments, it seems reasonable to present CS as an approach comprising certain features as outlined in table 4.2.

**Table 4.2 A prototype view of case study**

<b>Small <i>n</i> (sample size)</b>	In-depth and intensive focus on specific unit of analysis that can be fulfilled using a small sample, while a large sample would hinder this focus being unable to go into details, which is the strength of CS.
<b>Contextual detail</b>	Researcher offers a detailed, contextual analysis of ‘an instance in action’ (MacDonald & Walker, 1977 in Van Wynsberghe & Khan, 2007, p. 4), which moves from the general to the specific.
<b>Natural settings</b>	Researcher has no control of the complex environment: organisation, events or behaviour. CS ideally suited to complex settings as it reinforces the concept that complexity cannot be reduced to a simple causal relationship.
<b>Boundedness</b>	Temporal and spatial boundaries frame the contexts, structures and relationships which are of interest in a CS. (Merriam, 1988 in Van Wynsberghe & Khan, 2007)
<b>Working hypotheses and lessons learned</b>	The data set may offer a basis to develop working hypotheses and provide new insights during data collection and analyses.
<b>Multiple data sources</b>	The various sources of data allow for ‘converging lines of inquiry’ (p. 4), which in turn enables data triangulation.
<b>Extendability</b>	Engender ‘a deeper reader understanding of the phenomenon under study by extending the reader’s experience’ (Donmoyer, 1990 in Van Wynsberghe & Khan, 2007).

### 4.3 Conceptualisation of my CS

The VanWynsberghe & Khan prototype (2007) appears to be appropriate for my study, providing a framework to explore TC about TS in EFL in grade 8.

- ✓ The CS sample is small = (7 teachers for interviews and observations) + (7 teachers for questionnaire)
- ✓ The CS is set within the boundaries of a specific context (TC about TS in grade 8 classes).

- ✓ The settings are natural (the classroom environment is already established and is not the creation of the researcher).
- ✓ The case is 'bounded' (in the environment visited to study the phenomena and interviews).
- ✓ Data input from one unit to another or within a unit offers new insights (this can be incorporated into subsequent data collection and analysis as the processes are iterative in CS).
- ✓ Multiple sources of data are used as indicated later in the section.
- ✓ Extendability is assumed (the assumption is that readers will benefit from an in-depth study of teacher cognition about teaching speaking in EFL in view of the paucity of research in this area, and hopefully learn something new).

The CS is set in the field of EFL education to explore TC about TS in grade 8 EFL speaking. I attempt to identify themes and categorise behaviours and events and not to test theory or hypotheses. I would further define my CS as a collective parallel CS (they are 7 in all and are conducted concurrently), and can be labelled as 'Disciplined configurative' case studies (Eckstein, 1975) as established theories are used to explicate the cases. I envisage the case studies figuratively as follows in fig. 4.1:

Teacher Cognition and Teaching EFL speaking in Grade 8 in The Faroe Islands: Seven Case studies

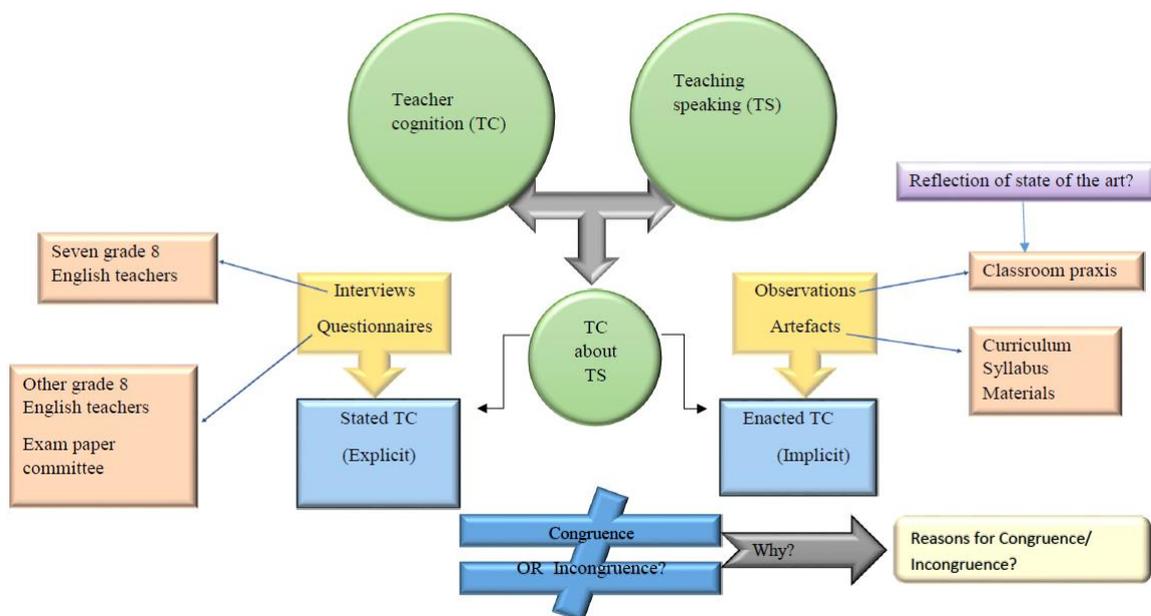


Fig. 4.1 Teacher cognition and teaching EFL speaking in grade 8 in The Faroe Islands

There are four distinct, but integrated parts in my CS:

- 1) Part one involves collecting data through recorded face-to-face semi-structured interviews to glean the TC of the seven grade 8 teachers regarding TS. The interview has been chosen as it opens avenues of two-way communication, which allows interviewees the freedom of expressing their thoughts and ideas and developing these to elucidate their views. A questionnaire was used to also glean TC about TS (instead of the planned focus group interview for participants to seek some corroboration with the findings from the chosen 7, but the other teachers contacted evinced no interest as elucidated in 4.5.3.1).
- 2) Part two requires mapping praxis through six classroom observations of seven teachers to identify the approach to TS. This is instrumental as it will provide the basis for comparison with the TC of the teachers. As teaching materials and textbooks, curriculum and syllabi are a part of this study, document analysis will be used to highlight their roles in contributing to teaching and learning.
- 3) Part three requires that the 7 cases be studied in isolation and be compared to elicit a possible pattern, which may indicate congruence or incongruence between TC and TS and the reasons underlying either position.
- 4) Part four involves identifying the reflection of 'state of the art' in TS in EFL in grade 8 praxis.

The figure illustrates how the literature review of TC and TS contribute to TC about TS. Interviews and questionnaires are used to elicit the stated TC about TS and observations and document analysis provide the enacted TC about TS. The reasons for congruence or incongruence are examined to throw light on what is often a complex relationship between stated and enacted beliefs. Finally, a reflection of the 'state of the art' in TS in grade 8 praxis is examined.

#### **4.4 Selection of sample for the study**

In this section, description of the cases, and the reasons for the choice are outlined.

#### **4.4.1 Selection of school grade**

Grade 8 was chosen as the focus for my study in line with the principles of good educational research, which require mitigating disturbance to the school environment and maximising facilitation of data collection, while offering pertinent evidence and supporting the research aims. This grade was specifically chosen for these reasons:

- I. In grade 8, learners have had English for four years as a compulsory subject. It is first of the two-year study of English at the high school level, which comprises grades 8 and 9 with external examinations for grade 9 only. This may allow teachers greater flexibility and time to prepare students to fulfil the learning outcomes.
- II. Grade 9 as the school leaving certificate level means teachers and schools are constrained by examinations and other factors and prefer to avoid disruptions as was clearly indicated to me.
- III. Grade 10 is an alternative school leaving certificate year, but students are streamed into various lines of study and English is not compulsory making it unviable for the study.
- IV. Grades 4 - 7 were not chosen for various reasons. Firstly, I was not interested in the beginner levels; secondly, based on the literature review, which indicated that non-native speakers of English (NNS) teachers were not always confident of their spoken English efficacy, I felt teachers who teach English for the higher grades were most likely to offer insights relevant to my research area as they may speak English in class and encourage students to do so. Thirdly, as grade 8 teachers have had English as an elective in teacher education, they may be better equipped with pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to teach speaking at this level.

#### **4.4.2 Selection of participants**

Seven grade 8 EFL teachers were chosen for this study. Purposeful sampling strategy was employed in the selection of cases as ‘a purposive sample building in variety and acknowledging opportunities for intensive study’ (Stake, 2000, p. 446) is appropriate. They had to be currently teaching grade 8 as their TC regarding TS in EFL was to be analysed in the context of their classroom teaching.

Being a small nation means that there is a certain informality in Faroese society, and this makes it easy for researchers to have access to the Ministry of Education (MMR). When I contacted the private secretary to the Minister of Education, he proved to be ready and willing to help by informing all school principals through their Firstclass forum that a researcher might contact them for onsite research ensuring easy access for the researcher. The ministry further proved to be helpful by providing the names of the 43 men and women currently teaching grade 8 English, i.e. 2014-2015.

The EFL teachers were selected from seven different schools across The Faroe Islands. It is worth mentioning that not all schools in the country have an eighth grade. The idea was to choose big and small schools to allow for the possibility of variations in the cases. Typically, the big schools are from the main towns in the country including the capital Torshavn, which has most grade 8 students followed by Klaksvík, the second largest town. The teachers' willingness to participate ultimately dictated the schools and teachers involved in this study, ensuring only partial success for the researcher in wishing for a judicious mix of small and big schools.

The accessibility of the schools in terms of distance and transport facilities were a practical factor in the choice of schools. Various schools were contacted via telephone calls keeping in mind the desired mix of big and small schools from the main towns and the villages and the accessibility factor, which means there is also the element of convenience sampling or availability sampling as it is also termed, i.e. a non-probability sampling based on easy access to research participants (Dörnyei, 2007). Teachers of schools chosen under these criteria were contacted, either by mail or by telephone with telephone calling proving to be expeditious.

Once the teachers agreed to participate, the principals were contacted via telephone, keeping in mind the accountability of the principal to teacher, students and parents. Principals made it clear that if the teachers were willing to participate, then research could be carried out in their institutions and expressed the desire that the teachers in question be autonomous and make their own decisions. The ready access was a much-treasured factor and facilitated the organisation of classroom schedules and convenient times for observations and interviews.

Men and women were chosen from these schools with a view to getting a fair representation of both sexes. Thus, there are four men and three women participants. While the gender proportion may not be significant for the study, the current interest in equal opportunities in

The Faroe Islands and the mention of this research project in the Faroese parliament as proof that The University of The Faroe Islands was investing in EFL made it imperative that no avenues for disgruntlement were left open.

Within the schools, using the list of grade 8 teachers from MMR, where there were several teachers teaching grade 8 English, a woman was chosen from one school with the idea that a man would be chosen from the next school. Ultimately, two teachers chosen this way were unable to participate as time and work constraints were a crucial deciding factor. So, it boiled down to calling the teacher next in line in that school regardless of gender to request participation. For the other, I called a different school as the teacher who could not participate was the sole grade 8 teacher in that school. The school I contacted next also had only one teacher of English in grade 8 and fortunately agreed to participate, so no gender-determined choice was sought.

Another factor used in participant selection was whether participants were formally qualified to teach EFL, i.e. if they had studied English as an elective in teacher education. Not all teachers who teach English are qualified in this sense. There is higher representation of qualified teachers in grade 8 and upwards underlining why I chose this sample. On the odd occasion, shortage of teachers might mean that individuals who are not teachers may be roped in to teach, but this is not the case with my sample.

Furthermore, representation was sought for teachers educated both before the educational reform of teacher education in 2008, and after. It might be appropriate to indicate that I teach the teacher education elective course in TEFL. In my first year of teaching in 2011-12, the first pre-service English teachers of the 2008 reform graduated, i.e. the first students to have TEFL. I felt that it may be useful to observe if the teaching of these participants showed any significant difference, and if it indeed added to the variety of variables in the cases. There were only two former students of mine teaching grade 8, and happened to be a man and a woman.

A salient factor in the pre-reform period is that English in teacher education did not include Second Language Acquisition (SLA) or Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) perspectives in any form. English was taught as a subject comparable to higher secondary English courses with emphasis on literary analysis and grammar exercises with a noticeable exception of grade 9 and 10 exam scripts being made available to pre-service teachers to

practise assessment. From 2008, and after only, was English in teacher education designed based on the theories of TEFL grounded in SLA.

The final seven participants (5 pre-reform and 2 post-reform) who agreed were sent the letter of consent to be accepted via email together with assurance of anonymity. A request for basic details like age, qualification, number of years of experience, exposure to English speaking environments as part of their pre- or in-service training or in any other capacity was made to allow the researcher to understand their exposure to English.

One participant changed jobs and arranged for another teacher in the same school as replacement, which could be termed ‘chain referral sampling’ or ‘snowball sampling’, i.e. ‘... the process by which a “qualified participant shares an invitation with other subjects similar to them who fulfil the qualifications defined for the targeted population”’ (Dusek Yurova & Ruppel, 2015, p. 281).

The final sample could be described thus: a) two male and two female teachers from four schools in the capital, b) one male from the second largest town and c) one male and one female from smaller towns became part of the study. If the researcher’s intentions had been successful, Torshavn would have had less representation. But, this need not necessarily be a drawback as majority of the grade 8 students are in the capital, Torshavn.

Of the selected schools, one school had 4 grade 8 classes, four schools had 3, one had 2 and one had 1. Another teacher called asking to be included after the selection, and was given the explanation that school accessibility and prompt response from others meant that the first seven had already been chosen. Three other teachers met me when I was in their school and asked if they could be part of the study, but as two of them were not teaching grade 8, it was a moot point. The third teacher was told that as I intended to have seven different schools and their school already had a participant, and as the seven had been found, it was not possible to be included. A sample greater than seven would have been near impossible for the researcher considering the amount of data generated in this kind of research.

A focus group was planned with a view to enriching data sources and explore TC and TS in greater detail outside the chosen sample to extend the study and address generalisability. This will be explained in the questionnaire section 4.5.3.1. The three teachers were subsequently contacted when a questionnaire was sent asking for their feedback in lieu of the planned focus group which did not have any willing participants.

The questionnaire was designed based on the interview questions, and the responses were prompt from those who had already evinced an interest and were not part of the original seven. One teacher chosen here was identified by one of the participants as being an experienced teacher who used non-traditional methods of teaching, meaning she did not use the Grammar-Translation method - an instance of chain referral sampling. This group also included the exam question paper setters for grades 9 and 10 (who may or may not teach grade 8) as a crucial purposive part of the sample as they decide what is to be tested in the exams. Attempts to contact a native English speaker for the questionnaire proved fruitless.

#### 4.4.3 Description of participants

The participants are all ethnic Faroese with Faroese as their mother tongue (I make this distinction as some ethnic Faroese do have Danish as their mother tongue). They have been given pseudonyms to preserve their anonymity, gender references are arbitrary, and relevant details have been categorised in a way that prevents others guessing their identities.

Given the size of The Faroe Islands with its roughly 50,000 inhabitants, it is no easy task to preserve the identities of the individuals. Hence, not much detail is given about the teachers for fear they would be recognised, given that the teachers meet their English teaching colleagues in several forums, and the English teaching community in The Faroes is a miniscule world. The attempt to include participants from post 2008 (the year of the reform) accounts for the predominance of short-term experience of teaching. The profile form to be filled by the individual teacher is found in Appendix 1.

**Table 4.3 Profile of participants**

<b>Pseudonym</b>	<b>Years of experience; Long term: 15+; Medium term: 8+; Short term: &lt;1-7</b>	<b>Formal qualifications</b>
<b>Teacher 1</b>	Short term	Yes
<b>Teacher 2</b>	Long term	Yes
<b>Teacher 3</b>	Short term	Yes
<b>Teacher 4</b>	Short term	Yes
<b>Teacher 5</b>	Medium term	Yes
<b>Teacher 6</b>	Long term	Yes
<b>Teacher 7</b>	Short term	Yes

#### 4.4.4 The Researcher

Given that the subjective viewpoint is not eschewed in CS research, the identity of the researcher may be of interest in several ways. Firstly, I am an Indian who moved to The Faroe Islands as an adult in 1991, leaving my job as lecturer in India. English is my mother tongue, and I acquired Tamil as a 12-year old. I taught myself Faroese and Danish at the age of 28 soon after arriving in the islands as an immigrant to facilitate both my integration into Faroese society and my independence. I could claim that this gives me understanding of:

- what is required to study a foreign language: the anxiety that shadows learning and performing in the foreign language
- the importance of speaking to communicate meaning, which was of paramount interest to me
- the role of self-efficacy as a teacher functioning in a Faroese medium educational institution in impacting my confidence as a professional.

The interest of the Faroese government is that English is to play a more significant role in The Faroes. This intention was operationalised when Danish was reduced from a compulsory language in higher secondary school to an elective. The university also wanted English to be taught as a subject at the tertiary level and introduced TEFL in teacher education for the first time as part of the bachelor's degree in 2008 only.

I was a bit sceptic that my being a 'native foreigner' may pose a possible barrier to conducting research, and I felt I might be venturing into sensitive areas. Fortunately, I was mistaken, as teachers were eager to be open and frank in their discussions. There was mutual trust, respect and a positive relationship between my participants and myself, which went a long way in facilitating data collection.

Given my professional background, I was sometimes perceived as an expert and was asked by the participants to comment on their class performance and make suggestions. I politely desisted saying that I was there to observe, and therefore, as an impartial observer, I could not play the role of advisor. I elected to share my teaching experiences outside the formal setting of the interviews after my field research was completed to ensure that I was not seen as uninterested professionally, but that my role as researcher placed some natural constraints that I had to respect. This point of view was met with understanding. It was made clear that

I was there to observe how teachers taught and not to evaluate either students or their teachers.

Undoubtedly, the ‘observer paradox’ (Labov 1972, in Spencer, 2015, p. 448), wherein ‘by observing people’s behaviour we often alter the very behavioural patterns we wish to observe’ can scarcely be avoided, but after a while, I felt that I was invisible to both the teachers and the students. In fact, four of the teachers told me that they would not be changing their teaching plan just because I was observing as this would put a strain on them, and I readily agreed that was just what I wished for. One teacher said that I had in my schedules unwittingly chosen days when students made presentations, and that this was a good indication of the TS activity in said teacher’s class. Another teacher said that the days I had chosen were days which were designated for concentrating on spoken English.

This is not to say that my presence may not have had its effect anyway. Teachers must feel a reticence when being observed, and over time, may have become used to my presence. Some teachers mentioned that their classes did not speak as much as they were wont to, but also said after the first session that they could see that the students had ‘forgotten’ my presence. Duff (2008) does indicate that ‘observer paradox’ is stronger in initial stages of the observations.

#### **4.4.5 The Researcher stance**

The researcher plays a pivotal role in data collection and analysis. So, as a researcher, it may be relevant to give an insight into my philosophical stance. It would primarily be the interpretive one on which I build my research. It is an attempt to comprehend phenomena from a holistic perspective, and dive into the psyche of teachers to elicit their beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts on TS; understand the why and how of TS, and how it is mirrored in praxis or otherwise. The salient factor that underpins the qualitative CS and, arguably its value, is its subjective-objective philosophy. The researcher mitigates the subjective bias using triangulation of sources, rigour in data collection, rich and thick description of the case, and in stating subjective bias overtly.

#### **4.4.5.1 Researcher bias**

It would be naïve and fallacious to assume that subjective bias can be fully eliminated, as it does make its presence felt in several aspects of CS. The researcher is in proximity to the case and the data in the role of ‘research instrument’ (Duff, 2008 p. 55) in a naturalistic setting and has a primary role in selection of topics, participants, codes, conducting the interviews and observations through a kaleidoscope of all that constitutes the researcher’s consciousness. Furthermore, in data analysis and coding, one is influenced by one’s subjective stance, which in turn must colour the research findings and analysis.

I obviously have preconceptions of how speaking in EFL should be taught or any other language skill for that matter, and they are coloured by a predominantly Anglo-Saxon influence given my personal and educational background. There has been a clear paradigmatic shift in teaching from my experience as a 23-year old teaching in an Indian university in 1986, when the lecturer was the centre of the class - the purveyor or fountain of knowledge, to my exposure to Faroese EFL teaching approach at the higher secondary level from 1993 onwards. Much has changed in pedagogy since, seeing that the role of the teacher as mentor and facilitator is popular in recent decades, with peer group learning, Information communicative technology (ICT) and multimedia input making their mark.

All this is inextricably a part of me as a researcher when observing teacher or student performances. Hitherto as a teaching professional, one had made such observations with a view to making either formative or summative assessments, with or without feedback to students and pre-service teachers. I now had the privilege of just recording what I saw and heard in the classroom without pressure of either having to mark or provide feedback.

#### **4.4.6 Building relationships between researcher and participants**

The aim of the research involves understanding teacher cognition, which makes the person-to-person relationship between researcher and participants the fulcrum of the process. The CS approach allows for subjectivity within the synergy that rises between the interviewer and interviewees. The study would not have been possible without the kind and generous cooperation of the teachers and schools.

This building of trust and confidence between researcher and participants, identified by Barnard and Burns (2012) as crucial, was achieved by being open and clear about the reasons for research as being the how and why of TS in EFL and not an evaluation of the teachers' ability to teach. Sufficient information was given - initially, it was mentioned that it was about observing teaching speaking in my emails to participants, and this may have become evident once the interviewing commenced and teachers could infer my focus.

Interestingly, though my introductory text in the email with consent forms said teaching speaking (see Appendix 2), and participants indicated that they knew of my topic, they thought the focus was on vocabulary because of the erroneous title on the university's webpage, which says: 'To Identify Significance of Teacher Cognition in Teaching English Speaking and Vocabulary in Grade 8 in The Faroe Islands, and its Impact on Pedagogic Praxis' (starvsfólk, Vijayarathan, www.setur.fo, 2014). If the misunderstanding minimised 'observer effect' or not in the context of TS, is open to conjecture.

It was made clear to the participants that they had the right to see all materials I recorded from them, but none of them requested access. Whether this was due to their trust in me or the lack of time they had to read anything is, of course, open to discussion. They would also be privy to a summary of the main findings as had been mentioned in the consent forms the participants had signed, and this perhaps put them at ease. They were also aware that I was to complete my research work and submit in August 2017, and it would be a while before they got to read the findings.

The participants ensured that I was never made to feel like an imposition - there were free and open discussions about varied pedagogical issues. The two, who were former students of mine in teacher education, revealed no barriers and were happy to help me out by participating in the study. During their studies, they too had conducted small research projects and indicated that they knew how difficult it could be to get teachers to be willing participants.

## **4.5 Data for the study**

The source of data for the study comprises:

- i. semi-structured in-depth interviews with the seven teachers

- ii. detailed notes from classroom observations of teaching and field notes
- iii. questionnaire sent to other teachers (apart from the seven in the study) to elicit their TC on TS in lieu of focus group interviews
- iv. relevant documents, e.g. curriculum from MMR, syllabi, teaching materials, including textbooks and other associated materials.

There are two main types of qualitative data: either naturally occurring or generated (Ritchie, 2003). Observations could be said to belong to the former category as the researcher did not influence the natural activity of the class intentionally, and interviews to the latter. The interviewer is in some form a catalyst, i.e. causes something to happen in generating teacher reflection in the process of garnering insight into TC and the reasons for TS approach. Basis for and description of the classroom observations, interviews, questionnaire and documents are given in the following sections.

#### **4.5.1 Classroom observations**

For this study, teacher cognition and its value derives from being studied in the context of, and the extent to which, the TS of teachers indicates their cognition. As indicated by Borg (2003), it is important to complement studies of TC with actual practice, as opposed to just interviews in isolation of the teaching context, and where better than the classroom to see the teacher in action. Observation, for Borg (2006, p. 231), is pivotal to the study of TC because it allows for ‘a concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think and believe can be examined’ (as partial enactment of TC, as it is not feasible to claim that one has access to all of TC on TS through the few observation sessions and interviews. Also, stated/espoused beliefs and enacted/beliefs-in-action qualify teacher action differently). This combination may be a way of achieving triangulation of data (explicated in 4.6.1) using various methods as evinced by Denzin (1989).

Marshall and Rossman (1989) define observation as ‘the systematic description of events, behaviors, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study’ (p. 79). Observation of classroom interactions in the physical case environment are naturally occurring sources of knowledge (Stake, 1995). Yin (2003) sees such observations as a source of evidence for CS.

The observation method adopted for my CS can be termed ‘non-participant observation’. Non-participant observation can offer a more ‘nuanced and dynamic’ picture of the environment (Liu & Maitlis, 2010, p. 611) than participant observation. It is a distinctive method, which takes the researcher to the participants to observe them in their own environment instead of the participants coming to the researcher. This personal experience affords a unique understanding of the environment, as observing teacher action in the classroom is the best way to study the teaching approach of the concerned teacher. As a non-participant observer, the researcher attempts to learn what life is like for an ‘insider’ in his/her environment, while holding on to the role of an ‘outsider’.

Non-participant observation can provide researchers with a better understanding of the research problem, which may not be fully predictable before the observations commence. While interviews offer insight through the responses to questions, these responses may be inaccurate or even incomplete. Observation data can add to the information received through interviews. In turn, this information can feed into modifying other data collection methods highlighting that the research process in qualitative studies in general, and in CS specifically, is iterative.

Disadvantages of non-participant observation include the time-consuming factor, the question as to what extent observation notes can be comprehensive, the objectivity of the researcher and the impact of ‘observer paradox’ - while classroom observations as data have been traditionally viewed as non-interventionist, one cannot ignore the dynamics of ‘observer paradox’.

#### **4.5.1.1 Classroom observation in the current study**

As a researcher, I made conscious effort to mitigate ‘observer paradox’. Attempts were made to look for cues and clues, which may indicate that the teachers or students were behaving differently, either through the manner of the students’ reaction or their remarks or the teachers’ remarks because of observer presence. For example, if a teacher remarked that some exercise was not new to the students, which saw the students murmuring assent or disagreeing; if the teacher reminded students that something was common classroom practice, and students acknowledged or disagreed or sometimes teachers prompted students

to speak, and they were reluctant - the teacher then remarked that it was he/she being observed and not the students.

Classroom observations were six sessions for each teacher divided over three or five periods (depending on whether the English class was a single 45-minute session or double with 90-minute sessions). The four-session pattern was the case for one teacher with two double sessions and two single sessions. Schools seemed to have two sessions consecutively for English. One teacher in the school away from Torshavn made sure to have a double session for my visit as the teacher taught other languages for the same class and could move the timetable around. Presumably, this was to prevent inconveniencing me, or to reduce disruption in class. In another school, it was by my request for logistic reasons and the teacher obliged as he too taught other languages to the same class. Though I had chosen times of the year, where I assumed there was minimal pressure on the teachers, one cannot refute the claim that intrusion into classrooms affects the dynamics of a classroom and places strain on the participants.

As I wished to become familiar with the environment and get to grips with it, I requested one of the participants for a preliminary session of two classes, which I did already in October 2014. I did this observation armed with a preliminary observation form (Appendix 3a) and filled it during the observation. I also showed it to the concerned teacher afterwards to allay any fears or doubts. The teacher had only one comment to make and that was that my observations were very detailed. This teacher was observed for only four classes afterwards as these two were included in the total of six sessions to be completed. Given the demands of the school environment, I was keen not to put any added burden on the teacher concerned.

While the aim of the pilot was to understand, and become familiar with the teaching environment and teacher-student communication, it also fulfilled the aim of the subsequent observations and interviews, which were to identify and understand the teaching practices of speaking in terms of the activities, teaching styles, materials and teacher-student interactions to arrive at a complete picture as possible of TS in grade 8.

Nunes, Martins, Zhou, Alajamy & Al-Mamari (2010) say that pilot studies may provide early contextual sensitivity in facilitating the acquiring of key information to ensure an acceptable research design. My pilot study engendered a greater awareness of the events that shaped the teaching environment. It was useful in informing procedures and decisions that had to be

taken in context. It also provided some input to include in subsequent observations and interviews.

As the study is centred around teacher cognition about speaking, my purpose was to get a holistic view of the teaching, with specific attention to the teaching of speaking implicitly or explicitly in the classroom as a possible enactment of TC regarding TS.

The dates and timings of the scheduled observations are given in table 4.4. On three occasions, changes were made as teachers had some contingencies that prevented them from keeping the appointment. Finally, this is the schedule as it happened.

**Table 4.4 Classroom Observations**

<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Observation schedules</b>
<b>Teacher 1</b>	2015 - Jan 30, Apr 17 & 22, May 7
<b>Teacher 2</b>	2015 - Feb 12, Mar 26, May 12
<b>Teacher 3</b>	2015 - Feb 10, Mar 17, May 12
<b>Teacher 4</b>	2014 - Oct 30 (pre-liminary) 2015 - Jan 29, Apr 9
<b>Teacher 5</b>	2015 - Jan 22, Feb 19, Mar 12
<b>Teacher 6</b>	2015 - Jan 27, Mar 10, Apr 14
<b>Teacher 7</b>	2015 - Feb 11, Mar 25, May 6

A non-participant observation stance was taken which meant sitting in a corner in the last row of the class (always done if researcher chose), given a separate table about the middle of the classroom to one side, sitting with students as part of the horseshoe pattern or on one occasion, seated next to the teacher for an information communicative technology (ICT) driven class.

The non-participant model was twice or thrice ‘compromised’ in having the teachers involve me directly by asking me for clarifications, or asking me to respond to students, or have a question and answer session with students about being an immigrant. As mentioned earlier, these instances, while they remain outside the research study, in instances, they also contribute to an aspect of it as is demonstrated in the discussion chapter.

As a professional, it was only right that I suspended my non-participant mode to accommodate these ‘diversions’. I would claim that these instances did offer another realm of experience:

as a researcher, I felt that I was accepted, and as a professional, I felt it was appropriate to do what I did.

The observations were useful in themselves and as obvious prompts for the interviews. I re-read these as also interview notes before successive interviews, to be able to ask pertinent questions in the interviews, so teachers could contemplate and reflect on their actions. This was also used to provide a kind of continuity and context building, which created a common ground for the researcher and participant to make meaning of what was being said or done. Creating this 'space' appeared to facilitate the teacher to focus on contemplating their teaching without any strain or pressure for the teacher to perform or posture.

After the observations, reflective discussions ensued and the dialogue between the teachers and myself sometimes engendered a 'stream of consciousness' mode of communication. Stream of consciousness is in the words of Abrams and Harpham (1999, p. 299):

... a mode of narration that undertakes to reproduce, without a narrator's intervention, the full spectrum and continuous flow of a character's mental process, in which sense perceptions mingle with conscious and half-conscious thoughts, memories, expectations, feelings, and random associations.

This kind of rumination by participants offered meaningful insights into their thoughts and emotions, and in a sense, made participants and the researcher co-creators of knowledge, as often the interviewer's role included prompting to either gather more detail or further explore avenues of thought hitherto not identified initially by the researcher. These instances hopefully diminish any imbalance of power in favour of the interviewer as holding a role of dominance.

A certain vulnerability cannot be avoided in such an environment even though one is recording actions and activities rather than evaluating individual performances. In an inexplicable way, it created a strong bond of trust and empathy between myself as the researcher and the participants. This both nurtured and facilitated meaningful communication as being privy to the thoughts, feelings and ideas of the participants gave a unique glimpse into their consciousness, and I am grateful for this privilege.

#### **4.5.1.2 Field Notes**

Classroom observations were documented through handwritten notes for all the classroom sessions except for one audio recording for one observation session for each of the seven participants. Using the idea of descriptive and reflective field notes as elucidated by Bogdan and Biklen (2007), descriptive field notes were made to capture the reality of what was happening in the classroom, followed by reflective notes at the end of each observation for an overall perspective. The descriptive notes covered *i)* the physical settings of the classroom, *ii)* the kind of activities used to teach speaking, *iii)* Instances of use of English language as medium of instruction and interaction in the classroom by teachers and students and *iv)* texts used in the lessons. The field notes, i.e. reflective and descriptive, were computerised immediately after leaving the school sites to ensure accuracy (Lewis, 2001 in Guise, 2009) and to identify possible prompts for successive sessions.

A simple rubric was filled out while observing classroom teaching and another where findings were summarised. The documents are available in Appendices 3.b.1 and 3.b. 2. The teachers were told they could have access to the notes, but this was not requested. Occasionally, during an observation, a teacher would walk by and peer at my notes, but this was no impediment to my note taking. The classroom observation notes were typed immediately after every session to begin classifying the kind of TS if specimens of said activity were present in that teaching session. This immediacy was advantageous in recalling the scenario one had just left, and it was possible to add some notes while computerising the observations.

#### **4.5.1.3 Audio-recorded observation**

For each participant, one session was audio-recorded. The recordings were used to better understand the classroom dynamics, which may have been overlooked when making handwritten field notes. They were used to note if there was something exceptional in the teacher or student and teacher/student exchange in TS during that session, but were not transcribed as they did not provide any unique addition to factors already observed and noted.

## 4.5.2 Interviews

As interviews provide the researcher the means to understand the participants in their own words (Spradley, 1979 in Guise, 2009), they must be structured in some form and have a purpose. According to Seidman (1998), it is a ‘powerful way to gain insight into educational issues through understanding the experience of the individuals whose lives constitute education’ (p. 7). The structured interview model with fixed questions was rejected as being unsuited to the ethos of my CS, as cognition cannot be measured in set terms or quantified from a small sample. Instead, the semi-structured format was chosen as the structured interview cannot offer the ‘thick description’ to underpin what is a fundamental characteristic and strength of the CS. The semi-structured format allows the researcher to follow the participants’ rationalisations, and allows for a natural exploration of the topics.

‘Thick description’, as perceived by Lincoln and Guba (1985), is a means to achieve a type of external validity by giving detailed description of phenomena, which makes it a valid basis to make research conclusions applicable to other similar contexts of time, people or settings. It conveys the voices of the participants and, in so doing, facilitates the vicarious experience of the readers so they receive from descriptions what the researcher gleaned through the process. This provides opportunities for both transference of the CS to similar studies and to anchor it within its academic research environment. ‘Thick description’ generates the space where the voices of the researcher and the participants combine to create in-depth meaning. This serves to highlight the topics under scrutiny, offer new insights, or sometimes posit new theories.

Silverman (2006) defines interviews as social interactions, and they are therefore coloured to some degree by the way participants tune their behaviour to the situation in the context of the interview. The author holds that interaction should not compromise other salient features of qualitative interviews like focus, emphasis on participant’s meaning, willingness to accept categories not already included by the interviewer, and using specific incidents to illustrate the general in an inductive manner.

#### 4.5.2.1 Semi-structured interviews in context

The stance adopted for interviewing had the goal of providing as much opportunity as possible for the interviewees to recount their experiences, express their thoughts and musings, and enable the researcher to have a meaningful dialogue with them. Code-switching was practised to smoothen the channels of communication, while conscious attempts were made to ensure that teachers did not feel threatened or under interrogation. As stated by Warren (2002), the qualitative interview purports ‘to understand the meaning of respondents’ experiences and life worlds’ (p. 83). The interviewees create meaning and are not passive objects from whom information is mined (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

A semi-structured interview format was used with questions already chosen based on key issues identified and selected from a literature review of the key areas of TC and TS. This format was chosen as it facilitates the incorporation of the issues to be studied in setting the framework for the interview questions, while still allowing for a natural dialogue setting. The choice of the semi-structured interview, i.e. ‘... directed by a set of general themes rather than specific questions...’ (Borg, 2006, p. 222) was purposeful because as the researcher, I am cognisant of the themes, and can use questions targeted to elicit the TC about TS, while allowing for a perusal of other related issues. This also means that there is greater flexibility in the order of the questions, using them iteratively and allowing for individual responses as suggested by Dörnyei (2007). The semi-structured interview questions I used to elicit TC can be found in Appendix 4.

Semi-structured interviews are qualitative interviews and are a sensitive paradigm within which power relations may play an insidious role. Burman (1997) draws attention to the power relations of qualitative interviewing, where relationships built between interviewer and interviewee may permit confidences that could be potentially negative for the interviewee. Barnard & Burns (2012) advise researchers to be aware of the status of the researcher, *vis á vis* that of the interviewees, with regard to ‘institutional status, age, and language expertise’ (p. 92). Kvale’s (2006) uncompromising view is that the researcher enjoys a position of power and benefits from the exchange.

He further adds:

The qualitative research interview entails a hierarchical relationship with an asymmetrical power distribution of interviewer and interviewee. It is a one-way dialogue, an instrumental and indirect conversation, where the interviewer upholds a monopoly of interpretation (p. 484).

The researcher hopes that the open dialogue within semi-structured interviews between the researcher and the teachers, the view to getting reflective answers for ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions, the ‘thick descriptions’, ‘member checking’, in limited instances and handling data with care, sensitivity and confidentiality go some way towards mitigating the asymmetrical power play and interpretation as the sole privilege of the researcher.

‘Member checking’ is defined by Cresswell and Miller (2000) thus: ‘It consists of taking data and interpretations back to the participants in the study so that they can confirm the credibility of the information and narrative account’ (p. 127). In the context of my study, it involves checking interview transcripts with participants (when unable to tape the interview or portions of it) to ensure that the participants could rest assured that they were understood and their account as faithfully recorded as possible.

I was told quite a few times in the interviews by the teachers that it was good to be able to share with me; the interview sessions made teachers ask themselves why they did what they did, and it also encouraged them to look at things from a new perspective. Three of them felt perhaps they were not doing something right as they felt they were not concentrating on teaching the speaking skill or not teaching speaking properly.

These revelations were serendipitous because it is considered healthy for teachers to pause and reflect on their teaching to understand their actions, and evaluate if they feel they need to make any changes. It also reinforced my role as catalyst - I offered no comments as I was only seeking to understand their cognition regarding TS, and not encouraging them to rethink their approach to teaching speaking. Reflections on their teaching would be done indirectly, though, in identifying the presence of the ‘state of the art’ in TS grade 8 praxis.

#### **4.5.2.2 Structures and schedules**

Three semi-structured interviews were conducted with each of the seven participants, except for one participant, where an informal talk took place in lieu of the first interview after the

preliminary observation, which I noted down manually and discussed with the participant. These notes were used to fine-tune the questions for the subsequent semi-structured interviews. The said individual was happy that I had achieved my goal with the interviews and felt all that could be said from the participant perspective had been mentioned.

Otherwise, interviews were audiotaped using a HTC M7 mobile phone or an Olympus recorder, except for one, which was handwritten to accommodate participant request, and this interviewee was sent the transcribed text for approval to ensure member-checking. No changes were required as it was accepted fully in its current form. Care was taken to ensure that the interviews were between 45 minutes to an hour to minimise strain on the teachers, though it exceeded an hour on two occasions, when the teachers felt inspired and had more to say.

The interviews were a bit awkward to begin with, but ease of communication was established by and making it clear that the prime motive of the interviewer was to record and not evaluate or judge. Interviewees were also told that they could codeswitch, i.e. speak English, Faroese or both as suited their convenience, and were to indicate if they felt the session was tiring or tiresome. The interview schedule can be seen in the table below:

**Table 4.5 Participant Interview Schedule**

<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Interviews</b>
<b>Teacher 1</b>	2015 - Mar 10, Mar 13, Apr 29
<b>Teacher 2</b>	2015 - Feb 12, Mar 26, May 12
<b>Teacher 3</b>	2015 - Feb 10, Mar 17, May 12
<b>Teacher 4</b>	2014 - Oct 30 'informal talk', 2015 - Mar 12, Apr 9
<b>Teacher 5</b>	2015 - Jan 26, Feb 26, Mar 12
<b>Teacher 6</b>	2015 - Feb 9, Mar 9, Apr 20
<b>Teacher 7</b>	2015 - Feb 11, March 25, May 6

The interviews for all participants were post-observation. The first interview began with 'small talk' and a reiteration of the fact that the teacher was not being evaluated, until the person was relaxed enough to start with the questions that were the focus of the interview. As they were semi-structured, they allowed for the participants to speak at length, go 'off topic' if necessary and share as comprehensively as possible.

Subsequent interviews were begun with questions based on issues that arose from classroom observations or returning to questions already covered in preceding interviews to ensure three things: the participant's thoughts and ideas had been fully explored in the given time; the teachers could contemplate why they did something, and how it impacted on the students; and ensuring that all the issues required to answer the research questions were covered in the interviews.

This manner of interviewing, which used classroom observation as the basis, proved to be valuable. Most interviews were conducted immediately after observation (if the timetable of individual teachers permitted this privilege, which was mostly the case) allowing for exploring teacher opinions on their classroom behaviour, while it was still fresh in their minds. They now had the time to ruminate about their interactive actions (on the spot decision-making) in that specific session. The fortuitous time frame was also useful as the teachers could speak at length instead of worrying about having to go for a class immediately afterwards. It would be safe to say that for all the interview sessions, the teachers had ample time to hold forth at length as care was taken to ensure teachers had the time, and circumstances happily accommodated this factor.

#### **4.5.2.3 Interviews with individual teachers**

The qualitative interview by its very nature is open to various influences. Logically, the subject and purpose of research, the personal stance and style of the researcher and the participants must all leave their mark on the interview (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The authors add that all interviewees cannot have the same questions as this would not make sense or be appropriate. They recommend responsive interviewing defined as 'intended to communicate that qualitative interviewing is a dynamic and iterative process, not a set of tools to be applied mechanically. Qualitative research is not simply learning about a topic, but also learning what is important to those being studied' (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 15).

In this study, the interviews conducted could be described as 'responsive' in so far as questions rose often from teachers' responses to questions in a natural flow and about what took place in the classroom and previous interviews, while the focus of the questions was geared towards research purpose. The process was iterative, i.e. with issues being revisited and re-explored. Most questions were often answered as part of the natural dialogue between

the teachers and the researcher, allowing for other questions to follow naturally, some others requiring gentle guiding of the teacher towards exploring an issue and others allowing for at length 'stream of consciousness' narratives by teachers to allow them to express their thoughts without interruption.

The interviews were conducted in the schools in areas which allowed for taping, except on one occasion, when a school emergency had people entering the locale. As the teacher was not the person sought, the interview could continue unimpeded. The interview structure constantly swung between the general and the specific, though for the first interview for each teacher, in the researcher's experience, the pendulum began and stayed mainly with the general. Though the focus of the questions were 'preset' (in that I knew the issues I was looking for, and in essence, similar for all participants), variations appeared in subsequent interviews based on the TC responses in the interviews and the TS activities observed in the classrooms. The second and third interviews were often begun with a reiterative slant to facilitate expression of teachers' cognition and the reasons for their approach to TS. The interviewees were given the reason for this iterative approach, and four of them overtly acknowledged their liking of being asked to contemplate and expand on issues.

Seldom were clarifications requested from the participants with the notable exception of the use of the words 'implicit' and 'explicit' in the question in the first couple of interviews, which meant that these words were automatically explained to other interviewees in subsequent interviews. Otherwise, other terminology posed no challenges to the participants.

In one interview, after taping had concluded, the respondent had something of significance to impart as an after thought and requested that I note down the points. I did so, and sent it to the teacher in an email. She wrote back that her remarks had been reported faithfully. In another instance, after taping had stopped, the participant began talking again. When I got ready to restart the recorder, she said that she would contemplate the matter further and share her thoughts at the next interview. So, at the next interview, we made sure to tap into this 'unfinished' aspect before proceeding with the interview.

The immediacy of interviewing post observation was possible with some discrepancies, which arose due to the interviewee being unable to partake in the interview due to personal reasons, unexpected developments in the school environment which required the interviewees' attention, or interviews had to be conducted in the school away from where the classroom observations were conducted, as it suited an interviewee in terms of place,

schedule and convenience. In such instances, the interview was begun with the interviewee and interviewer commencing with the preceding classroom observation. What was interesting though, in three of the instances, was the interviewees began by summarising their teaching activity without interviewer prompts and had brought teaching materials, which had been used for the sessions, even though the interviewer had been given copies of the same on the day of the observation.

In the final interviews, all the interviewees were asked if: *a)* they had anything more to say on any issue discussed *b)* whether they felt that I had given them enough opportunity to share all they wanted to, and *c)* if they wished to touch upon any relevant issues that I had not covered. In this context, only one person had something to add. Though this was not directly relevant to the research, it required that I switch off my interviewer persona and listen respectfully to a fellow professional as someone who could fulfil a request the teacher expressed.

It appears that the interviews were a positive experience for the parties involved, as it made them think about their teaching, and some of them said they would miss having the researcher around to be able to discuss their professional activities (outside interviews). This may be an indication that the participants too benefitted from these interactions in some small manner.

#### **4.5.2.4 Transcription of interviews**

Writing and reporting in qualitative research are an integral part of the analytic process, where researcher's thinking and interpretation unfold in the process of writing. It is influenced by the research purposes and the theories that are relevant to the study (Richardson, 2000 in Carter and Little, 2007). In transcribing data, the researcher is not just a catalyst, but needs to work with the data to narrow it down to relevance in the context of the issues of significance. In this context, the process of transcription will be imbued with value judgements and can hardly be done in objective isolation by the researcher.

According to Sun (2010), there are three decisions to be made: Firstly, should transcription be whole or partial? What transcription conventions should be used? Finally, who should transcribe the interviews? If one were to view this in the light of a continuum of 'naturalism'

mode and ‘denaturalism’ mode as opposite ends of the spectrum, with every utterance being transcribed in its entirety in the former and elimination of idiosyncracies of speech in the latter, then Oliver, Serovich and Mason (2005) declare that there are many variations on this spectrum, and it is the individual researcher who must decide the convention to be adopted.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005 in Sun, 2010) believe it is best for the researcher as interviewer to do the transcription. Another issue is whether the transcripts require editing as the spoken word does not necessarily translate well into the written medium. This is also an ethical issue, as one must balance between preserving the dignity of the participants and the integrity of the meaning of the utterances (Poland, 2002 in Sun, 2010).

#### **4.5.2.5 Transcription for the current study**

All the transcription was done using ‘Transcribe’ software by Wreally.com. As the researcher, I did all the transcriptions and fully transcribed the interviews, even though a transcriber was paid for one interview to explore whether it was more useful and less time consuming if someone else could do a better job. The decision was not a sensible one as it cost a great deal and took much longer for the person to do it. Furthermore, it was best to do the transcribing oneself as it afforded a good insight into the interviewees and their thoughts, attitudes and feelings, which was crucial to set the tone and content of the subsequent interviews. I decided to transcribe word for word and used comments if interviewees laughed, or showed any non-verbal signs that were relevant in reinforcing the verbal data.

Transcription of interviews and classroom observation notes was always done immediately after the respective sessions, except in the case of the final three interviews (which were the last ones for the three teachers involved), where unforeseen circumstances prevented this mode of working. The consolation was that there were no interviews to follow, ensuring that I would not be caught ill-prepared for any interview.

Four of the interviewees mainly spoke English, but code-switching to Faroese was done naturally. The other three spoke mainly Faroese with ‘chunks’ of English thrown in for good measure. I am proficient in Faroese in terms of speaking and comprehension, so I too code-switched to facilitate the flow of conversation, and in a sense, this created a sense of a joint identity. After the interviews, therefore, where necessary, I had to simultaneously translate

and transcribe these interviews in English as it would be less time consuming to write English, and the level of communication was not a hindrance to comprehension or translation as the content was in simple terms. It seemed that during coding, analysis would be easier if working with just one language, as manual coding was to be used, with the search function in Word.

Translation has some disadvantages as information could be lost because of linguistic differences between the source and target language (Sechrest *et al.*, 1972 in Sun, 2010). One challenge that translation poses might be that it may include interpretation instead of just direct translation, but the level of difficulty is also related to the content being elicited and how faithfully it is reproduced. The question whether translation casts a shadow on the validity and reliability of the qualitative data is a relevant concern. Participants' recounting of teaching approaches and their reasons, including ruminations, did not involve the kind of complex language or content that challenged the translation process.

The matter being discussed and the researcher's proficiency in Faroese meant translation was not at all difficult as jargon was seldom used. Descriptions of the teachers' thoughts, beliefs and knowledge were all expressed in layman's terms minimising occurrences of misunderstandings or misrepresentation. On no occasion, did I have to seek recourse to a dictionary, for example, to understand the interviewees' Faroese to translate into the English equivalent. Having said this, the cultural ethos which is an integral part of a language, must be lost in some measure in translation. While sifting for content, one cannot ignore this aspect, and, while I may contend that it did not significantly affect my understanding because I am a native foreigner, I cannot claim that translation is without its weaknesses.

As for the two instances of 'member checking' where the transcribed interviews - complete and extract (mentioned in 4.5.2.1) - were sent to the participants, the interviews had been in Faroese. One teacher accepted the translated transcribed notes without making any corrections, while the other responded to the email saying I had captured her thoughts accurately (Appendix 5), which may provide some grounds for some cautious assurance on which to refute the claim of possible error of misrepresentation in translation.

### **4.5.3 Questionnaire**

Brown (2006 in Borg, 2012, p. 31) defines the questionnaire as ‘any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.’ The items may be closed or open - the latter kind is recommended for small samples and qualitative research. According to Borg (2012), the questions usually require short answers and are useful for cross checking the validity of responses from interviews and including issues that may have been forgotten. The purpose is to get the view of individuals on issues outlined in the questionnaire as part of a study, and may contribute to academic rigour in TC studies.

#### **4.5.3.1 Using questionnaires in the current study**

A focus group session with teachers other than the seven participants was planned. It is a useful method in collective case studies (Duff, 2008) as it may provide themes and issues, which the researcher may not have chosen and thereby help the focus of the study through ‘multivocality’, i.e. multiple perspectives on issues gained from different people. My idea was to increase sample size and support interviews and observations with additional source of data, and to have instances of data source triangulation.

As emails requesting focus group participation sent to 21 teachers saw only two teachers responding, the idea was abandoned. Instead, based on the advice of the same two teachers who responded, questionnaires were used. Significant questions from the semi-structured interviews to elicit TC on TS were chosen, and the questionnaire was short to encourage participants to respond.

The questionnaire can be described as a qualitative questionnaire with a small quantitative element where it supplies set responses for respondents to choose from. A copy of the questionnaire is available in Appendix 6. Questionnaires were (excluding the 7 participants and their schools) sent to 11 teachers including those who had evinced an interest in the project and could not participate, two (original focus group) who recommended questionnaires; members of the exam paper setting committee, who teach or have taught

grade 8 (as teachers setting exam papers, they are a relevant source); and a teacher who was identified as teaching English very differently.

The seven who responded afforded a valuable picture of the TC and TS being studied. Together with already substantial materials generated through interviews, observations and document analyses, this insight into the TC about TS of grade 8 teachers, underscored patterns present in interviews and observations. In a way, this added source could contribute to data rigour and data triangulation in terms of various sources of data, which is dealt with in greater detail in 4.6.1.1.

#### **4.5.4 Documents**

Documents are valuable resources though they have often been viewed as ‘background’ materials (as opposed to seeing documents as a primary source of data) or for ‘real analysis’, wherein they would be analysed as an end in themselves (Silverman, 2006, p.154). In looking at the official curriculum, the grade 8 syllabi of individual teachers and the materials used for teaching as primary sources, they are viewed in the context of interpretation of those who created and used them as opposed to researchers solely looking at these documents as outsiders to the environment (Merriam, 2009). Yin (2003) suggests that for case studies, the most important function of documents is to substantiate and expand evidence from other sources. This factor makes documents significant contributors to triangulation of data sources.

##### **4.5.4.1 Documents in the current study**

The present study involves looking at the curriculum for grade 8, the syllabi of the teachers and the teaching materials used in TS. The curriculum is designated by the Ministry of Education (MMR), while the teachers design a syllabus in keeping with the MMR curriculum framework with a view to achieving learning outcomes. They have flexibility in choice of teaching materials and their teaching approach to TS.

The documents chosen indicate that the teachers are viewed as members of an organisation in their professional environment within the macrocosm of the educational institutions,

which in turn belong under the umbrella of MMR. A teacher is not ‘... an island entire of himself...’ to adapt Donne’s words (1624), but must function within a hierarchy, which influences overall pedagogical praxis. The attempt to view the demands for TS from the macrocosm of policy documents to the microcosm of TS in a specific teacher’s classroom, at a point in time, serves to give a holistic and contextual perspective. The researcher is allowed into the world of teaching and attempts to make sense of the classroom observation using documents as one of the tools of research.

The next section looks at how all the research instruments mentioned in the previous section come together in providing data to fulfil the research aims of the CS. The coding approach and the focus on data from observations, interviews, questionnaire and teaching materials as the basis for answering the research questions provide a holistic perspective of the way the research environment and instruments have facilitated data collection and analysis.

## **4.6. Data Rigour**

In qualitative analysis, the coding process is the focus, where the researcher begins with defining coding units to be applied to the materials to attribute meaning to their individual parts (Charmaz 2006 in Devetak et al, 2010.) Coding is “... a judgment call” since we bring “our subjectivities, our personalities, our predispositions, [and] our quirks” to the process’ (Sipe & Ghiso, 2004, pp. 482–3). For these authors, the term coding comprises both the act of decoding (researcher reflection on a piece of data), and encoding (researcher assignation of a code to a relevant phenomenon). The coding and classifying of data has been undertaken in several ways to ensure that data have been viewed through various lenses to extract pertinent issues and plumb the data for valuable participant input.

A tried and tested method of ensuring academic rigour in CS is triangulation, which is given importance as it is a crucial instrument in CS internal validity as demonstrated in the next section.

### 4.6.1 Triangulation

In qualitative research, triangulation looks for various sources of data that complement each other and underpin the focal area with a view to ensuring that independent sources have been tapped to throw light on the complexity of the subject being studied (Meijer *et al.*, 2002). Farquhar and Michels (2016, p. 3) define the concept thus: ‘triangulation consists of multiple perspectives which converge on the phenomenon under investigation.’ According to Gliner (1994) triangulation is critical to underpinning internal validity in qualitative research.

Miles and Huberman (1994 in Meijer *et al.*, 2002) classify the kinds of triangulation in qualitative research as data source triangulation (sources: different persons, different times, or different places); method triangulation (observation, interviews, documents, and other research instruments); researcher triangulation (in similar vein to interrater reliability in quantitative methods); theory triangulation (different theories to examine and analyse results, though this is debatable as most research projects use a variety of theories), and data type triangulation (a combination of quantitative and qualitative data).

Smaling (1987 in Meijer *et al.*, 2002) outlines three approaches in analysis of qualitative data applicable to multimethod triangulation. The analysis is dependent on the setting and purpose of the study. They are tabulated below:

**Table 4.6 Analysis of qualitative data**

<b>Intuitive approach</b>	Researcher intuitively manages data results to establish connection between data gathered from various sources using different methods, which means the CS cannot be replicated.
<b>Procedural approach</b>	Researcher documents every step taken in the triangulation-by-method procedure to ensure transparency and replicability.
<b>Intersubjective approach</b>	A group of researchers attempts to reach consensus regarding the steps to be taken in the triangulation-by-method procedure to permit scrutiny of working method.

The ‘boundedness’ of the multiple CS requires that elements of the intuitive and procedural approaches be followed to facilitate generalisation within the cases involved and transferability in terms of being able to use the approach to study other similar cases.

#### **4.6.1.1 Data triangulation in this study**

Case study research can adopt all or any of the kinds of triangulation mentioned and various kinds of triangulation can be adopted within the same study. The triangulation adopted for my CS can be described as multimethod, i.e. using a variety of methods to obtain information related to the research subject to determine ‘patterns of convergence’, allowing for comprehensive and in-depth multi-faceted perspective on the phenomenon (Meijer *et al.*, 2002, p. 146).

The interviews and observations in this CS fulfil the criteria for multimethod triangulation by the very nature of being multiple case studies, which involve interviewing and observing different participants at different times. Farquhar and Michels (2016) indicate that construct validity can be established by triangulating the number of data sources assembled as part of the cases, which in this instance include interviews, observations, questionnaire and documents indicating data type triangulation. Therefore, my study can claim triangulation of sources and method.

If the theoretical bases are several, and the data studied using different theoretical premises, then theoretical triangulation is present. The TC framework and the theoretical underpinnings for TS are varied and the two are separate fields of study and may support that the CS has theoretical triangulation, but if the findings indicate that a new theory can be posited, then it would be true theoretical triangulation. In this sense, it would be fair to say my CS lays no claim to positing new theories.

The aim of triangulation in this study was not to ascertain if data analysis from the various research instruments would give similar results, but rather afford detailed, ‘thick description’ of TC about TS. In mining data towards fulfilling the research aims, the researcher intends to study the selected cases in themselves and conduct a cross-case analysis, which involves analysing data across the cases (Schwandt, 2001) and includes a thematic analysis across cases (Creswell, 2007).

## 4.7 Data Analysis

I have adopted the inductive approach whose ‘... primary purpose ... is to allow research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant or significant themes inherent in raw data, without the restraints imposed by structured methodologies’ (Thomas, 2003, p. 2). The inductive approach generates meanings from the data set by discovering patterns and connections to make sense of the research themes to either build a theory or use existing theory to devise the research questions. It is the latter slant that shapes my case study predominated as it is by the TC framework and the theories of TS. The mainly inductive nature of qualitative analysis though does not rule out the use of predetermined codes, as coding and analysis occur concurrently in the data collection phase in qualitative research. These codes may be chosen even before the field research based on theoretical assumptions in the field of study (Duffy, 2008) including a deductive element as well. These codes are then identified in the materials to be analysed (Bryman, 2004).

The analyses are relational in the sense that they identify occurrence of patterns in observations and attempt to provide explanation for the phenomenon being studied (Duff, 2008). To arrive at a comprehensive picture as possible of the phenomenon under study, relationships between the cases were established. The process involves looking at a phenomenon using various lenses. The movement is iterative - from the specific to the general and vice versa to highlight the complexities that exist in the cases in this educational research project.

The coding approach adopted for my CS can be described as a combination of the exploratory and elemental coding methods. Elemental methods are primary coding methods that involve rudimentary, purposeful filters, which help lay the foundation for subsequent coding cycles. From within the elemental methods, structural coding is a research question-based coding method using conceptual or content-based phrases designated for a topic of inquiry or specific research question as the basis for interview data or other data set (De Witt, 2013). The author says it is useful for semi-structured data gathered from multiple participants as it is theme/category-driven making it useful to connect the various participants.

Exploratory methods, on the other hand, provide initial exploratory designation of codes prior to more refined coding cycles to be developed and used in the remaining cycles of coding (De Witt, 2013). Provisional coding within the ethos of exploratory method involves a ‘start list’ of *a priori* codes before the commencement of fieldwork based on ‘... preparatory investigative matters, including literature reviews related to the study, the studies conceptual framework and research questions...’ (De Witt, 2013, p. 13). The codes can be expanded and modified to include *a posteriori* codes. This method is ideal for building on existing research in a field. Both structural and provisional coding were used to approach the data from different foci.

Given below are the data sources employed to address the research questions and how they were analysed to arrive at a ‘thick description’ of the cases, with the intention of guiding and fine-tuning the analysis process.

#### **4.7.1 Data sources to answer research questions**

This section shows how the four research questions were answered using multiple sources of data which have contributed to the study. The intention was to use relevant issues to give perspective to the area of the study.

The research questions are as follows:

1. What is the grade 8 teachers’ TC about TS in EFL?
2. How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?
3. How does their TC impact TS?
4. How is ‘state of the art’ in TS reflected in grade 8 Faroese classes?

##### **4.7.1.1 What is grade 8 teacher TC about TS in EFL?**

Semi-structured Interviews: The interview data for TC was analysed for expressions of teacher thoughts, beliefs or knowledge about TS as ‘stated beliefs’ originating from the responses to the questions below as a starting point, given that in the semi-structured interviews, questions are explorative and open, allowing the participants freedom to give

their responses, leading to other relevant issues of interest and relevance. This is the case for the rest of the research questions as well.

- *What are your views on the EFL curriculum for the speaking skill in grade 8?*
- *How does it represent what you think is important about teaching spoken English?*
- *In your opinion, how should the speaking skill be taught in the classroom?*
- *Do you think that you focus on fluency or grammatical correctness in teaching speaking? Could you give me your reasons why?*
- *Is it important for your students to speak English? Why/why not?*

The themes that emerged in response to the questions were coded as indicated in 4.7.2.

Classroom observations: The transcripts of the classroom observation and field notes were used to glean evidence of TC in teachers' instructional approach to TS as enacted beliefs. Moreover, attention was paid to evidence of teaching towards learning outcomes outlined in policy documents.

Teaching artefacts: The individual teacher's syllabus was viewed as possible back-up for TC about TS. For instance, if a teacher's cognition indicated that free speech in the classroom was desired, the syllabus was scrutinised to see if activities encouraging free speech were included, followed up by studying teaching materials to see if there were activities designed to facilitate students speaking freely in class.

#### **4.7.1.2 How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?**

Interviews: The following questions were used to arrive at the kind of teaching activities the teachers used for TS in grade 8 within the demands of the curriculum. In this sense, they were viewed as instances of stated beliefs.

- *Do you teach speaking in the classroom implicitly or explicitly? How do you go about teaching implicitly/explicitly or both?*
- *What kind of activities do you use in teaching speaking? Why do you use these?*
- *How would you describe your role in the classroom as an EFL teacher?*
- *How much time in your classroom is spent on you talking, you think?*
- *How much English do you speak in the classroom? (Follow up with reasons)*

- *How do you provide opportunities for your students to speak English in the classroom?*
- *How do you motivate your students to speak English in the classroom?*
- *How do you give feedback for speaking activities? If no feedback, why?*
- *Do you feel that errors must be corrected immediately? How do you practise this in the classroom?*
- *What does MMR curriculum demand in the teaching of English?*
- *In what way does your teaching of speaking relate to the demands of the MMR curriculum?*

The themes arising from the responses were coded as mentioned in 4.7.2.

Classroom observations: The transcripts of the classroom observation and field notes were used to identify the kind of teaching activities used for TS and the kinds of talk and their roles in classroom interaction as explicated in 3.9. These could be viewed as enacted beliefs.

Teaching artefacts: The individual teacher's syllabus, apart from serving as a source of possible back up for TC about TS, also revealed if there was a connection to the curriculum. The artefacts also served to illustrate if the teaching materials supported the purpose of TS.

#### **4.7.1.3 How does their TC impact TS?**

Interviews: The following questions were asked to elicit TC and its possible impact on TS. Sources of influence on TC in terms of schooling and teacher training are important in TC literature and are used here to attempt to understand TC.

- *Which aspect of teaching speaking is most important in your opinion and why?*
- *How do you encourage students to function in English outside the classroom?*
- *As a non-native speaker, can you comment on any special challenges you may face as an EFL teacher?*
- *In your opinion, are students more comfortable speaking English than teachers? Why/why not follow up?*
- *How were you taught English speaking as a school/university student?*
- *How were you taught English speaking as a teacher trainee?*
- *Is it important for your students to speak English? Why/why not?*

- *How would you describe your role in the classroom as an EFL teacher?*

The themes/ideas/points of view arising from the answers to these questions were placed in context of the overall contribution they could make to the influence of TC on TS and teaching, and reveal the sources of TC.

Observation: The notes were used to see if the stated and enacted beliefs could be correlated. While correlation is simplistic, it is the first step in exploring the complexity of the relationship between stated and enacted beliefs, before studying the resulting congruence or incongruence, which is not only more interesting, but enables an understanding of the complexity involved when one claims to study TC.

Teaching artefacts: The syllabus was scrutinised to see if the teaching materials used underpinned that which was the most important in TS. It was also reviewed for evidence of the sources of TC, for instance, if teachers were taught mainly grammar as students and pre-service teachers, whether indications in syllabus and teaching materials showed grammar teaching as the most important for TS.

#### **4.7.1.4 How is ‘state of the art’ in TS reflected in grade 8 Faroese classes?**

For this research question, the main source of data could logically come from observations to compare teacher praxis with the ‘state of the art’. Any reflection in syllabus and teaching materials served to reinforce evidence.

The above section focused on offering a framework of sources used to answer the research questions. The section that follows describes how the various sources of data were coded to arrive at fulfilling the aims of the research. An attempt is made to provide a chain of evidence in the data collected to piece together the fabric of any connection between TC and TS, which studies in the literature review underline is fragile and limited at best, while using the significant role of context to provide ‘thick description’ which enables CS to offer valuable foundation for critical reflection in this research milieu.

## 4.7.2 Coding of interviews

Coding was done manually as severe health problems meant I was advised to use minimal time at the computer. I was unable to proceed with NVivo 10, which I had initially begun using to create codes even at the literature review stage. This unfortunately meant coding became far more time consuming and cumbersome than need be.

Based on an initial literature review of TC and TS in EFL, themes were chosen and used to identify the main categories relevant for the study. These, in turn, were used to generate the questions for the semi-structured interviews and subsequently, the questionnaire. They are regarded as the sources of designated codes, which is in keeping with Merriam (1998) who opines, ‘our analysis and interpretation - our study’s findings - will reflect the constructs, concepts, language, models, and theories that structured the study in the first place (p, 48).

Coding serves as the basic block in the building of analysis to provide a cogent picture of the phenomenon being studied. Richards and Morse (2007) say that coding from the data leads to ideas, and from ideas back to exhaustively exploring the data for the ideas. The cyclical nature of coding enables the fine tuning of data to yield categories, themes and concepts that enrich ‘thick description’ and contribute to a deep and focused understanding of the findings of the CS. The textual data was organised and coded per both *a priori* and emergent categories.

In structuring a framework for analysis of interviews and observations, it was essential to use the field of TC and TS in EFL to design codes. Codes would have to identify:

- i. TC about TS, keeping in mind its constituent parts - teacher beliefs, teacher knowledge and teacher thinking and the kinds of TS activities teachers adopted in their teaching approach.
- ii. TC as reflected in its various sources - schooling, teacher education and pre- and in-service experience in the field.
- iii. The dichotomy already established in the literature review between stated (professed/espoused) beliefs and enacted (attributed/belief-in-action/) beliefs and juxtapose these with the concept of hierarchy of core and peripheral beliefs within the influence of context.

iv. Congruence or incongruence between TC and TS, as theoretically speaking, core beliefs are more likely to contribute to congruence between TC and TS. Peripheral beliefs may or may not contribute to congruence, depending on whether core beliefs are present as they would gain precedence over peripheral beliefs. This aspect would have to be explored when comparing interviews with observations. Furthermore, it has been established in TC literature review that stated beliefs are best elicited through interviews and enacted beliefs through observations.

Using the literature review of TC, TS and TC about TS as the foundation, codes were initially generated to examine the data from interviews, observations and questionnaires. Once the interviews were in progress, context dictated some themes, which had not initially been explored in the literature review, which required subsequent perusal to understand their implications for the study. These themes had to be included in the literature review underlining the iterative nature of the coding process in CS research, which feeds back into original theoretical underpinnings.

#### **4.7.2.1 Codes for interview data**

Braun and Clarke (2006) claim that researchers employing thematic analysis adopt several steps: become familiar with the data, generate initial codes, search for themes, review the themes and finally, define the themes. As mentioned earlier, coding categories were inspired by already existing themes in the literature review of TC and TS. Apart from the pre-selected themes, others emerged either after the first reading of the data or the second reading of the data. The preliminary categories and codes with colour coding used are given in Appendix 7. a and the final code book in Appendix 7.c.

While preparing for subsequent interviews, I had originally read the transcribed interviews piecemeal for each teacher (as also the field notes from observations), but this was done on an individual basis over a certain time frame. Now, the data had to be viewed as a cogent whole for everyone.

The transcribed data was printed and read through to understand the nature of the data collected through interviews. After this initial reading, I began the first reading of the data with a view to using pre-determined codes to organise the data. During this process, I used

highlighters in different colours to mark the texts. This reading indicated themes/categories which were not in my list of pre-determined codes, and these were subsequently added to the list of codes.

Armed with this updated set of codes, a second reading was undertaken and the data coded accordingly again using highlighters. Once this second reading was complete, it was transferred to Word documents. The third reading was done within the Word documents to ensure that all the relevant aspects of the data were reflected in my codes. I had to add one more code category to cover an aspect I had missed. I began checking that all the data that ought to be classified were now fully highlighted, and made the necessary adjustments.

All highlighted data were placed in separate Word documents using the categories in the table as headings for the documents with subsections for each of the seven participants. The fourth reading and final reading was to fine-tune the highlighted data. At this point, I felt that I could not add more relevant codes, or find other distinct themes, but I now had a clear picture as possible of the data input from the interviews.

### **4.7.3 Coding of observations**

In studying field notes from observations, it is important to keep in mind the dichotomy mentioned in the previous section. Therefore, classroom observation notes serve two purposes: firstly, to identify enacted beliefs on TS and explore any possible core-peripheral beliefs dynamic, and secondly, to identify the approach to TS in EFL through the activities used for TS. From TS in EFL, codes would have to reflect the approach to TS as direct or indirect, and record the kind of speaking activities used by teachers in the classroom to reflect the paradigms existing in teaching EFL speaking as delineated in chapter 3. The kinds of speaking activities employed by the teacher, the kinds of ‘teacher talk’ and ‘student speak’ as interaction, and teacher feedback found in EFL classrooms would have to be coded to ensure a complete picture as possible of TS emerges. The ‘state of the art’ in EFL in TS with its ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’ would also feature in coding to ascertain its presence in grade 8 praxis.

#### **4.7.3.1 Codes for observation data**

A pattern for coding similar to the interview one was used for coding observations. As with the interviews, I first re-read the transcriptions, identified the categories that emerged from the data on the kind of TS undertaken in the classroom. I undertook the iterative process for the observations and divided them as per the individual participants. I defined and labeled the various activities that were salient in each category for the individual participants.

The approach for coding observations includes two different sets of parameters with which to code the data. One is Richards (2008) categorisation of the interaction in the EFL classroom as talk, and two is Goh and Burns (2012) 'Teaching-speaking cycle'. A template was designed based on these two sources, and the corresponding codes were outlined herein. (See Appendices 7.b.1 & 7.b.2 for the categories and codes).

The intention was to use a comprehensive approach towards identifying the kinds of TS activities used in the grade 8 EFL classrooms, and the kinds of classroom talk that took place and see how it contributed to TS. The kinds of activities were further viewed against the 'state of the art' in TS to infer its presence in the way EFL speaking is taught in the participant classes. Interaction in the classroom is considered an important factor for communication. The mapping of the extent to which this communication exists and in what form, also contributed towards painting a picture of TS. The data from observations together with the data from the interviews, questionnaires and document analyses were used to attempt to understand TC about TS in EFL in grade 8 in context.

#### **4.7.4 Questionnaires**

The data from questionnaires was coded like data from interviews as the focus was gleaning TC about TS, and the praxis of the teacher respondents were not observed. The data generated for the open questions were sufficient in length and relevance in context to be able to apply the same codes. The questionnaires reflected the issues already gleaned through interviews and observations. They served their purpose of corroborating findings to contribute to the rigour of the CS.

The next section explores how rigour in case study research provides a basis for mitigating typical criticism of CS as interpretative and hence not valid or reliable as a research approach.

## **4.8 Rigour in CS**

Data gathered by one-to-one interactions between researcher and participants makes qualitative research relational in nature (Tracy, 2013). The researcher, in a sense, is fully immersed within the context and sees how participants' TC is played out in their daily professional lives. This boundedness enables second order interpretation, in that they give explanations of the participants' explanations (Tracy, 2013). The attention to detail in the natural settings in CS may offer their own ecological validity, i.e. interpretation of the results of the CS is done *in situ* of the contexts within CS.

Another relevant issue to ensure rigour in CS is researcher perspective. In terms of perspective into the research field, it could be emic or etic, i.e. behaviour which is seen from within the participants' perspectives within his/her context or from without, using external criteria derived from theoretical stances. The emic approach is prevalent in CS research. This does not preclude the reference to theoretical models to make sense of the findings, study how emergent findings impact existing theories or how a theoretical stance/model may colour data analysis, and when and where these 'sensitize researchers to potential meanings' (Tracy, 2013, p. 22).

CS research can and has made valuable contribution to education. To establish the bonafide nature of the case study, there must be rigour in conducting and presenting the study. If one were to use the framework provided by Lincoln and Guba (1985 in Houghton, Casey & Murphy, 2013) as the yardstick, then the four criteria of credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability become relevant. Later, authenticity was added. In conducting this study, I have taken pains to be conscious of these factors to ensure that rigour is not compromised. I cannot claim that there are no inconsistencies between my intention and achievement, only that I have tried to minimise them as best I can.

According to the authors, credibility refers to the value and believability of the findings and comprises conducting the research in a believable manner and being able to demonstrate

credibility. My CS includes a number of observations and interviews over a period of time, which imply 'prolonged engagement and persistent observation' (Houghton, Casey & Murphy, 2013, p. 2). My case study uses triangulation of sources - data from interviews, questionnaire and observations to give a rounded insight into the phenomena under study, which must contribute to its credibility.

Dependability refers to stability of data, where the triangulation of data from semi-structured interviews and questionnaires maybe seen as the indicator in my CS. Confirmability refers to lack of bias and accuracy of the data. Member checking in two instances indicates this aspect has been taken into consideration. In stating researcher bias, a balance is established between the subjective-objective dynamic in my case study.

Consciousness of self-reflexivity is important for rigour in qualitative research and gains even more significance in the light of the relational aspects of CS. My self-reflexivity has been identified earlier in the section on researcher stance and bias in 4.4.5 and 4.4.5.1. Member checking, already mentioned in 4.5.2.1, is another instance of validity for my CS.

Transferability refers to whether findings can be transferred and be applicable to similar contexts or situation without losing ground. The thick description, which I have tried hard to incorporate should, to some extent, allow for transferability. Authenticity is achieved by letting the reader hear the voices of the participants, and in the findings, I make place for this important factor.

Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman & Martaeu (1997) point out there are no set rules for qualitative data analysis and researchers are free to choose that which best serves to explore their data fully towards achieving the research aims. Using text data may make some qualitative researchers feel that reliability tests are not useful because their data does not lend itself to a standardised set of measurements (Mason, 2002). Words may have complex, multiple meanings and nuances permitting many interpretations, which makes them difficult to work with as opposed to numbers (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Another issue with verbal data is how much participants can vocalise their thoughts or analyse why they do what they do and express it verbally in response to questions in an interview setting (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Intercoder reliability is a measure of reliability in qualitative research, but surprisingly few researchers use it for semi-structured interviews. Campbell, Quincy, Osserman and Pedersen

(2013) declare that in-depth semi-structured interviews create specific challenges as they involve many units of analysis, which are not always easily identified. There is a ‘unitization problem - that is, identifying appropriate blocks of text for a particular code or codes - can wreak havoc when researchers try to establish intercoder reliability for in-depth semi-structured interviews’ (p. 297). The authors emphasise that coders must be knowledgeable as coding in-depth semi-structured interviews requires interpreting respondents’ meaning in their answers, and solid knowledge of the subject matter is a key to analysing the data appropriately. The authors point out that one cannot judge researchers who do not report their coding approach for semi-structured interview transcripts, as this does not imply that they have not been meticulous in their coding or in checking for reliability.

Given the manual code book used and its idiosyncratic nature, intercoder reliability was not attempted for this study as originally intended if NVivo 10 had been used.

## **4.9 Ethical considerations**

All research activities must be governed by a code of ethics. Within the field of applied linguistics, the researcher enters the ‘real world’ of the subjects of the study - in this instance, classrooms which are considered suitable research environments to either posit or observe theories in action (Spada, 2005). Duff (2008) points out it is only recently that ethical considerations have been included in research manuals. While this could be because linguistic research does not belong to highly sensitive areas of research, e.g. clinical studies, ethical factors do come into play in my CS and must be taken into consideration.

Christians (2000) emphasises the concept of informed consent, absence of deception, privacy and confidentiality of participants and research locations and, finally, accuracy of data in research. For this study, formal permission was sought from MMR, and school principals. Consent forms (see Appendix 2) were obtained from the teacher participants after ensuring they understood what was involved and with the option of leaving the study at any time. The principals, teachers and students were aware of the study - the principals through MMR about the study, the principals of participant teachers and the teachers through myself, and the students through information by teachers or researcher as to why the researcher was in

the classroom. The participants were given small tokens of appreciation after the last interview to acknowledge the efforts they had made to make my study possible.

The researcher was very careful not to divulge other schools or participants involved even when openly queried about them by the participants. Within a school, it was impossible to conceal my presence from other teachers, and often participants themselves mentioned that I was there to observe their teaching for my PhD. On one occasion, I had just finished observing one teacher in one school and moved onto the next school, when this teacher from the first school arrived at the school where I was going to have the observation. As there is only one English teacher for grade 8 in this school, that teacher could have identified the teacher I was going to observe.

One way to protect identities is in how much of participant details are made available. The researcher has attempted to describe the participants with details relevant for this study and nothing more to significantly reduce compromising privacy and confidentiality, with respect to the Faroese context. As mentioned earlier, I respected the decision of the schools not to videotape any classroom sessions, which made it easier to protect teacher identities.

When I requested permission for audio taping one 45-minute session per teacher, the teachers said they would inform the principal and parents. I only proceeded with it if no objections had been raised and, fortunately, there were none.

The decision to name them as Teacher 1 through to Teacher 7 was made to show respect for the profession, while providing anonymity. Giving them alternative Faroese names or Anglo Saxon names seemed artificial and unnecessary. The use of gender pronouns too is arbitrary.

#### **4.9.1 Storage of data**

All data is stored in the researcher's computer anonymously to ensure confidentiality. Copies of these electronic data, other research materials and related documents for the research are stored on cloud storage in Microsoft's Onedrive and Dropbox to avoid loss of any valuable data. Only the researcher has access to the computer, be it at work or at home. When documents were printed, they were done so in secure printing conditions at home or using Papercut at work, which did not release the documents till the researcher was present at the

machine. Documents were shredded as required when no longer needed. The researcher's office is locked and potentially sensitive printed documents are locked up in a cupboard to which only the researcher has the key.

#### **4.10 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter has dealt with the concept of the case study in qualitative research, furnished the details of the context of the study, the data collection methods and coding used. It has presented the participant teachers, the research settings and the researcher. Finally, the chapter has explored the applicable ethical considerations. The next chapter deals with the findings and discussions based on the analysis of the collected data.

## **Chapter 5: Results and Discussion**

### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter reports the findings based on the analysis of the coded data which comprises interviews with seven teachers, questionnaires, classroom observations, policy documents, and teaching materials.

Two sets of data analyses are presented: The first sets of results, which constitute the first part of the chapter, involve the interview findings of stated beliefs from semi-structured interviews with seven grade 8 teachers and the questionnaire responses. The research question ‘What is the grade 8 teachers’ TC about teaching speaking in EFL?’ is answered through looking at these results.

The second sets of results, which constitute the second part of the chapter, identify the enacted beliefs through the observation of TS in the grade 8 classrooms. These are classified as explained in the methodology chapter in 4.7.3.1 as kinds of classroom talk. The enacted beliefs are gleaned through observation to find answers to the research question, ‘How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?’

The third section of the chapter looks at the dichotomy between stated and enacted beliefs elicited through a comparison of the responses to the two research questions. Furthermore, these may be explored to identify any congruence /incongruence between TS and TC, which is the focus of the question, ‘How does their TC impact TS?’

Finally, grade 8 teaching speaking (TS) in The Faroe Islands is documented to give it perspective in the context of ‘state of the art’, i.e. in the form of the ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’ of Goh and Burns (2012), which being a meta-model comprises the spectrum of teaching approaches to speaking hitherto found in EFL literature and adds the crucial element of learner meta awareness. The model may be a viable option for evaluating the position of grade 8 praxis in the spectrum of TS, and a possible ‘best practice’ even though not much empirical research has been conducted on the application of the ‘Teaching-Speaking cycle’ since its inception to validate such a claim. But, as a meta-model, it may be desirable for grade 8 teachers to use it as inspiration, so the TS cycle provides PCK input for TS. The comparison between grade 8 teacher praxis and ‘state of the art’ could contribute to

identifying areas where teacher knowledge could be built as a platform for self-critical reflection of praxis.

The data analysis will be presented based on thematic foci analyses contributing to an in-depth analysis of points of view of all 7 teachers to identify the denominators to establish the TC and trend in TS in EFL in grade 8. As the teachers code-switched between Faroese and English, in all interviews and within interviews, I have indicated when quotations have been translated.

In presenting the findings, I am conscious of the macro and micro aspects of the educational environment to which teachers belong. Top-down policy often attempts to dictate frameworks for teachers to ensure standardisation and efficient teaching for learning at the macro level. The micro environment is usually the teacher's domain, where the teacher as classroom leader creates a pedagogical framework and takes decisions on all aspects of his/her craft.

There is tension between these two perspectives as conflicts arise from what macro policy dictates and what the teacher must to face in day-to-day teaching contexts with possible dearth of facilities, challenging student environment, socio-economic factors of student background and its effect on student performance, social climate in the school, financial potential of schools, teacher's knowledge/ ability, and a plethora of other factors that may cause a chasm between these two levels.

## **5.1 'Stated Cognition': Findings and discussion**

In structuring this section, I begin with the influence of the 'apprenticeship of observation' in 5.1.1 on grade 8 TC, which will serve as a pertinent basis for meeting the teachers where they are. This will be followed by the various stated beliefs that grade 8 teachers have on TS in 5.1.2, followed by findings from questionnaires in 5.1.3, and corroboration between the two in 5.1.4.

### **5.1.1 Influence on TC from ‘apprenticeship of observation’**

As already indicated in chapter 3, one of the factors that has a powerful impact on teachers’ approach to teaching is the ‘apprenticeship of observation’, i.e. the experience that teachers have had as learners in primary (grades 4 – 6), secondary (grades 7 - 9), higher secondary and teacher education (TE).

*Finding #5.1.1.1: In primary, secondary, and higher secondary schools, teacher participants were not taught speaking in EFL.*

All seven teachers indicated that speaking was not given importance or taught in their own primary, secondary or higher secondary levels explicitly, i.e. their own schooling did not include TS activities specifically designed to promote the learning of speaking in EFL. They all identified that spoken English was done implicitly through reading out in English, oral translation from Faroese to English, and teacher display questions in primary and secondary school.

Both post-reform teachers mentioned that the Grammar translation (GT) method predominated English teaching in primary and secondary schools, which was echoed by the other five teachers even if they did not use the term GT. Only teacher 6 (she is younger than other experienced teachers) mentioned that her English teacher used English as the medium of instruction in primary and secondary school. Teacher 7 mentioned that English was used sporadically by the teacher in primary and secondary school, while the others mentioned that teachers primarily spoke Faroese in class.

All seven teachers agreed that in higher secondary school student writing dominated and speaking was through presentations and sometimes reporting the results of group work. Teachers 1, 3, 4 and 5 pointed out that literary analysis of short stories and lots of grammar exercises were the common activities in EFL. Teachers 1, 3, 4 and 7 mentioned that teachers spoke English in class sometimes, while teacher 6 said that her English teacher spoke English predominantly. Teachers 2 and 5 mentioned that their teachers spoke Faroese. Apart from teacher 2 who said: ‘We never spoke English’ (T2, March 26, 2015 interview 1), the other teachers reported that they seldom spoke English in class and did so for presentations only.

*Finding #5.1.1.2: TS speaking was not part of the pre-reform TE curriculum.*

When it comes to teacher education (TE), the findings are slightly different, based on whether the teachers are from the pre- or post-reform period. In the words of teacher 1 (T1, March 10, 2015 Interview 1):

If I were to think of TE [pre-reform] and gymnasium [higher secondary], I think teaching lacked something, and that which was lacking was in fact that spoken English was given a lower priority. The English we spoke was reading aloud, not that we had English dialogue. Most of the emphasis was on English literature not grammar. There was no emphasis on speaking English. (translated)

Teacher 5 (pre-reform) says of his TS: ‘Implicit - the traditional way. It works as I saw from my experience in my practicum as a teacher trainee and my study’ (T5, Feb 26, 2015 interview 2). He mentions that TE concentrated on the use of literary analysis, structure of literary genres, film reviews, poetry, student motivation through teacher questions, presentations, and grammar and translation.

Teacher 6 mentioned that her/his teacher in TE (pre-reform) spoke English and reminded the pre-service teachers that they needed to know English and how to teach it as well. Teacher 7 says they watched films, read novels for analysis and watched novel-based films in TE (pre-reform). Each student was required to make a free presentation in English as the basis for discussion. It would therefore be fair to conclude that in pre-reform TE, teachers had neither been taught explicitly how to teach speaking or had any input about SLA theories, as teacher 5 confirms: ‘No English language teaching or any SLA theories were taught in TE’ (T5, Feb 26, 2015).

*Finding #5.1.1.3: TS in post-reform TE in light of SLA theory.*

Teacher 3 mentioned that TE (post-reform) was useful in identifying SLA input in the form of approaches to teaching foreign languages, the Natural approach described by Krashen, Swain’s output theory and the natural order in which English is learned from Vivian Cook’s (2008) book on second language learning. ‘Certain theories that will work well in TS. These can be used and made sense to me. I’ve tried to use these a lot in TS, amongst other things’ (T3, March 17, 2015 interview 2). Teacher 4 speaks of ‘comprehensible input’ as a reason for speaking English in class (T4, Oct 30, 2014).

### 5.1.2 TC about TS in EFL as stated cognition from interviews

This section looks at the various aspects of TC about TS in grade 8 with a view to building a basis of stated beliefs to compare with enacted beliefs from observations. The findings include varied issues of interest, and it remains to be seen how TC is mirrored in action or not when teachers' enacted beliefs are identified.

*Finding #5.1.2.1: The teachers value other language skills more than speaking.*

It appears that teachers who teach English also teach Faroese or Danish or both. Teachers tend to use writing and listening as the platform for speaking. Three teachers say they concentrate on writing and reading more than speaking. Teacher 1 says it is more important that students write well. Teacher 5 is concerned with teaching grammar and writing more than speaking, because mistakes in the written language reflect badly on an individual. He says that grammar and reading are more important, and it is easier to teach writing than speaking. He would rather that students were perfect in Faroese as English is 'only an L3' (T5, Feb 26, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 1 muses:

[Speaking] it's not a thing that I prioritise the most... Again, it's my interest in writing. I think translation helps them to understand tenses in English better... I believe the greater their exposure to English - through reading, writing & listening, the better they can speak it (T1, Jan 26, 2015 interview 1)

Teachers 3 and 4 indicate that they give writing and reading more importance than speaking because students should be able to write properly and become confident in it so that their exam performance will be positive.

*Finding #5.1.2.2: The teachers believe in 'doing speaking' rather than TS.*

Classroom activities used to teach speaking appear to have clear patterns in grade 8 teaching. The activities commonly mentioned by all the teachers when asked about their approach to TS are reading aloud by teacher or student, grammar teaching in context or otherwise, translation, teacher-led display questions based on a written text read in class or at home,

pair/group work on texts in class, listening to texts/ music lyrics, watching films, dictation, and individual/pair student presentations. Three teachers specifically mention teaching vocabulary and pronunciation. Quotations from individual teachers highlight the activities mentioned.

The text for the day is discussed and in the words of teacher 1 (T1, March 13, 2015 interview 2):

I experience that the easiest way to get them to speak English is to base it on the text - begin by reading aloud & then ask questions and speak together. The continuity of it (spoken English) is in the reading out by students. Typically, we have a text for the day, and I say today we will discuss the text and it will be in English. Otherwise, students read out loud - they get to pronounce English or [I] say that question [on the text] are to be answered in English without writing it down. Sometimes, it's (what the student says) a repetition of what is in the text. (translated)

Teacher 2 says she uses various texts from *Pit Stop 8*.

I do (TS) by reading, listening & speaking. I think first that it's important that you can read (English) very well... They must read a passage aloud. So, they do this, and we listen (to English) and so we try to speak. I think these fit together well. I try to get all involved and express what they want to. We also listen to texts. I choose some of them [students] to speak. We discuss world affairs. I try to ask difficult questions, which I know some student can answer, while others I know they cannot manage and give them easier questions (T2, Feb 12, 2015 interview 2). (translated)

Teacher 3 mentions that he used the whole session to talk about the possessive 's' because students said they didn't understand it (when they came across it in a reading comprehension exercise followed by display questions). 'Today we listened to an audio text, other days I read out the text to reduce the speed if the text has difficult words' (T3, Feb 10, 2015 interview 1). He sees this as meaningful input for spoken English.

Teacher 4 says: 'It's mainly vocabulary and communication itself [when teaching speaking] that I emphasise and try to force them out of their comfort zone' (T4, Oct 30, 2014 pilot).

It's mainly through reading and writing that leads to speaking that I use [for TS]. I pay a great deal of attention to pronunciation, placement of adverbs in syntax when they speak, online grammar exercises motivate them and help them interact with the

language and learn by themselves. Through reading, listening, watching films, speaking can be taught... Speaking is based on reading and written work (T5, Feb 26, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 6 uses pair work for speaking:

It was a text in a book that addressed the topic - the drug problem. I divided them into small groups of 2, they had to choose an English-speaking country & look into the drug situation... Also, they could use the ipad, they could show us whatever clips, small footages, something. Both of them were supposed to say something - speak a bit [of] English and they did that (T6, Mar 9, 2015 interview 2). (translated)

Teacher 1 (Apr 29, 2015 interview 3):

I've told them that the purpose of this spoken assignment (presentation) is two-fold - to have, no three-fold: to have an authentic topic which is interesting to speak about, to speak English and (perhaps why they're are so dependent on the written text as they must have something written) a text or a synopsis or a PPT.

Teacher 4 muses: 'Perhaps I should do more of presentations' (Mar 12, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 5 enjoys eliciting creativity in students and uses film reviews to get students to speak. Teacher 7 speaks of individual presentations based on songs. Every pupil chooses a specific English song to present to the class. They must answer about five questions concerning the song. 'They have to prepare the presentation at home, and then they speak knowing what they are going to say and how to say it' (T7, Mar 9, 2015 interview 2).

*Finding #5.1.2.3: Error correction and feedback reveal the implicit approach to grade 8 TS with rare instances of explicit TS.*

The teachers all say that they use an implicit approach to teaching speaking, i.e. that speaking is not taught specifically, and on occasion, they would resort to explicit teaching, particularly of grammar, as required, to give input for students to understand their mistakes. (This is different from 'doing speaking', which is providing opportunity for the students to 'perform', i.e. speak English.)

Teacher 3 speaks of instances of explicit TS when he recasts a student's sentence and expects that the student will notice. He says when the student complies, and then asks why, he explains the variation in syntax for the sentence in Faroese and English. The student, he

hopes, can see that he has used Faroese syntax for English - the same approach to error correction in context can be seen in the classes of teachers 4 and 7. Teacher 3 calls this 'cooperative correction'.

If you don't have the word, if you don't know how to say this specific word or phrase, you could also rephrase, you could use Faroese words because I don't want that to be a hurdle that keeps you from speaking English' (Mar 25, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 5 gives an example of his explicit intervention saying that he responds to student output to get them to notice their mistake by listening to his version. 'I repeat it (recasts student sentences to be corrected) in the corrected conjugation or structure' (T5, Feb 10, 2015 interview 1).

*Finding #5.1.2.4: Error correction and feedback are indicators that teachers prioritise fluency over accuracy.*

All teachers mention that errors which are serious should be corrected, but not all the time. They clearly indicate that they would rather students speak English in class incorrectly than feel self-conscious because they are being corrected in class and stop speaking all together. In practising error correction, teachers treat students differently. Teachers correct strong students, but not the weak ones, though they do give prompts to help students during reading aloud.

Teacher 1 says that when students have reached an acceptable level of pronunciation, he then begins to correct basic errors like 'is' and 'are'. While he values accuracy, he says (T1, Apr 29, 2015 interview 3): 'I'd rather prioritise that they speak instead of being focused on whether they're being grammatically correct.' (translated)

Teacher 2 declares (Feb 12, 2015 interview 2): "I think fluency is more important. I see also that I have to give them the fundamentals of grammar". Teachers 2, 3 4, 6 and 7 prefer to correct strong students: 'I don't like to correct students who struggle and finally manage to say something' (T2, Feb 12, 2015 interview 2). Teacher 3 says that he models the right expression (recasts) for the student, so the student can also hear what he said is wrong. When students make efforts to speak a sentence, he would rather encourage them to continue speaking than correct errors. In his view:

Fluency, I think is more important. Here, I'm a bit of a Krashenite! Language will fall into place - a big part of learning a language. Also, I don't think it matters that

one deals with certain grammatical issues, because fluency isn't completely possible without grammatical structure. It may mean more searching - for language or vocabulary - than is good. That's why a part of learning grammar comes in automatically, if not through rules, by students hearing and feeling what is the correct way to speak. Not much is corrected of their grammar... No, as it's more important for them to speak English than necessarily speak it correctly. That will come. It's important to get them speaking English (T3, Feb 10, 2015 interview 1). (translated)

Teacher 4 says of her individual approach to error correction that she tunes it towards the kind of student involved. She does not correct all errors as she believes speaking English is the goal and speaking English correctly can come afterwards. Teacher 5 opines:

I respect their fear and anxiety. I create a positive atmosphere in the classroom. I'd like to say both [accuracy & fluency], but it's mainly grammatical correctness. I tend to correct pronunciation at once. I know the students; I know their weaknesses and strengths and sometimes it [error correction] is not necessary. I don't think it's necessary all the time (T5, Jan 26, 2015 interview 1).

When it comes to feedback on English speaking, teachers agree that they seldom give feedback on the spot, and when they do, it is on a one-to-one personal basis only, keeping in mind that teenagers are sensitive to feedback in the class in the presence of their peers. When presentations are made, only general summative generic comments like 'good', 'that went well' are given, and are often applicable to the whole class.

*Finding #5.1.2.5: Teachers acknowledge that teacher talk (TT) dominates their classrooms and is 'meaningful input'.*

The teachers claim that they speak a lot more in class (be it in Faroese or English) than their students. Teacher 1 says that he speaks about 20 minutes in a 45 minute-session. Teacher 2 muses: 'One speaks too much, I guess. I guess that I try to involve them. As the one in charge, I must get them involved too' (T2, Feb 12, 2015 interview 2). Teacher 4 says she speaks about 60% of the time, while teacher 3 says it is fifty-fifty. Teachers 5 and 6 talk less than their students. Teacher 5 says he speaks 20-25% of the time, as he wants the students to be active in class and take charge of their learning. I try to be very focused on it's they [students]. They are the ones [who must perform]. So, I will say that they are speaking more than I am' (T6, Mar 9, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 7 indicates that TT dominates:

I think I speak a lot - I'm talkative and they don't speak so much. I don't really know why. Often, I think because I'm trying to explain, maybe what the text is about or an assignment or something, and they are a bit shy (T7, May 6, 2015 interview 3).

The teachers all speak English in their classes to a greater or lesser degree with varying reasons for doing so. They feel that they provide opportunities for their students to listen to English. Some of them say they speak English 60-80%, others say 50/50 English and Faroese and others say 25%. They agree that they do not speak English all the time because of the differing competences of the pupils and are interested in making sure that all students understand them. Teacher 1 says he speaks English a lot and adds: 'Perfect English teaching should be done in English. It's perhaps a question of why I don't speak English 100%' (T1, Mar 10, 2015 interview 1). He added that he would speak more if the subject competence of the class was homogenous.

Five of them indicated that they particularly translated instructions into Faroese after saying them in English first. All the teachers feel it is important to speak English so students can hear English. Teacher 3 says: 'Because we don't have a natural spoken English environment in The Faroes outside the screens [TV & computer], it's advisable... That's why I speak English. It's meaningful input' (T3, 17 March, 2015 interview 2). His comment below indicates his knowledge of SLA. He continues:

I believe that I set them demands a bit higher than where they are. But at the same time, I try to think about my dear Vygotsky's theory that they [the demands] mustn't be too much above their [students'] level, and it mustn't be beyond what they feel is obtainable and can reach it (Teacher 3).

Teacher 4 believes that if she does not speak English, the students will not be motivated to speak. She says:

Maybe, I'm the only person who they hear during the week who speaks English directly to them. If I'm speaking to them, my main purpose isn't exactly to get them to speak right but just to get them speaking (T4, Mar 12, 2015 interview 2).

She feels it motivates the students to reciprocate.

Teacher 5 believes that it is unrealistic to speak English in class, when he knows that the students understand Faroese and they could communicate in this L1 instead. It is particularly

problematic as his grade 8 class is ‘new’ in the sense that students come from different schools. He resorts to Faroese as a time-saving tactic when giving instructions, and adds that he ought to speak more English in class. ‘I speak at least two or three times as much Faroese as I do English’ (T5, Feb 11, 2015 interview 1).

*Finding #5.1.2.6: Teachers believe that student speak (SS) in English is important for learning speaking.*

The teachers are clear that students must speak English in class. They believe this will give them confidence to speak English in a real-life situation. Teacher 1 says (Mar 13, 2015 interview 1):

For my students in the secondary school and myself, the most important fact is that they can function in a situation comfortably where they are required to speak English. This must be the most significant overall. As to how this can be done - they must be allowed to speak English as much as they can; this is important. (translated)

Teacher 2 reiterates that she wants the students to speak English. ‘I want them to have the confidence to speak English and that is the most important thing’ (T2, Feb 12, 2015 interview 2). She says that no student goes out of class without having spoken English or can say I haven’t said anything today. ‘It helps to develop them that they have the confidence to stand in front of the class and speak English’ (T2, Feb 12, 2015 interview 2). The reasons the teachers cite include that speaking must be learnt by speaking in class and in the words of teacher 7, it is ‘learning by doing’ (Feb 11, 2015 interview 1).

Teacher 3 and 6 say it is important to get them to speak as much English as possible even though they are reluctant to do so, because it is good training for them. Teacher 3 reiterates:

Meaningful output for me is that they try to speak English, even though it's not perfect and it's not correct as such. That they do try to speak it - that's meaningful output to me. I can hear that they try to formulate sentences and try to put the words in the right context and syntax (T3, Mar 17, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 5 says it’s good to speak English in class, but unrealistic to expect it in The Faroe Islands. He feels it’s helpful for students to be able to speak English when they travel to English speaking countries and ideally, ‘must practise to express themselves in class’ (Feb 26, 2015 interview 2). Teacher 7 is clear that he wishes his students to speak English in class because they would need it in the future.

*Finding #5.1.2.7: TS is influenced by examination backwash.*

The fact that spoken English exams are to be conducted in grade 9 is an influential factor for teacher action in class. Six teachers mention that this colours their teaching. Teacher 1 admits the fact that the primary and secondary school reform in 2011, which moved focus away from translation and emphasised speaking, did affect his teaching.

I like that the spoken language is prioritised compared to translation which was once highly prioritised, especially for the exam. Our teaching is influenced more than before by this [exams], so it is easier to have spoken English (T1, Apr 29, 2015 interview 3).

Teacher 1 points out that reading aloud is part of the exam, so he makes sure that through the school year every student is comfortable reading out. This is echoed by teachers 5, 6 and 7. Teacher 2 mentions reminding students that they have a spoken exam (internal) at the end of year and a spoken exam in grade 9 to get them involved in speaking English. Teacher 3 clearly states she emphasises the speaking part because she wants to make sure students can speak when the exam comes. The teacher states that citing the exam is both used as motivation and as a reality check to convince students to participate proactively. Teachers 4 and 6 admit that they ensure that students can speak English during the spoken English exam. Teacher 7 prepares them for the oral exam (details in 5.6) with the idea that practice ought to make perfect. He opines:

As teachers, we always must remember that this [teaching and learning] is leading to a test, and I think I would be failing them if we weren't speaking English in the English class, because then I would not be preparing them properly to the test (T7, Mar 25, 2016 interview 2).

*Finding #5.1.2.8: Teachers indicate that student attitudes to English influence 'student speak' in the classroom.*

Teachers are influenced by student attitudes to their subjects and find English easy to teach because it is popular. Five teachers indicate that students enjoy speaking English in class, but must sometimes be coerced because they are self-conscious and afraid of making mistakes as they are teenagers. Students prefer speaking English to Danish in class, and four teachers mentioned that English was slowly but surely becoming popular because of the Internet and social media.

Teacher 4 mentioned that some students had difficulty speaking as the class had a history of bullying, which had dampened participation, but things were slowly improving. She also mentioned that students do not speak much in class because: ‘We are - the Faroese people, we are very introvert’ (T4, Apr 9, 2015 interview 3). Teacher 5 mentioned that students do not enjoy speaking English in class, which he attributes to his class being made up of students from different schools making them shy and reticent when required to speak English. He felt only 20% were happy to do so, considering it is not their L1.

Teacher 6 said that English ‘somehow enjoyed a higher status’ (Mar 9, 2015 interview 2) than Danish and Faroese among students, and they were keen to demonstrate their ability. Teacher 7 felt that students were not happy to speak English, and he was not sure why. He felt it could be because unlike other classes he had taught, the students did not have a good vocabulary or exposure to English outside school.

*Finding #5.1.2.9: Some teachers believe they have self-efficacy in spoken English and use ‘teacher talk’ consciously as input.*

The teachers are confident of their ability when it comes to writing English and speaking it. They are aware that their performance can be affected by various circumstances. They remark on the increased student exposure to English outside the classroom, which sees more students being able to speak English in grade 8. Teacher 1 notes that sometimes in a discussion, he finds that he cannot find the English words and then he lapses into Faroese. Some of his students have an English background, and they clearly speak better than him. He views this as a positive factor for the other students who could be motivated by peer language ability. It does not affect his confidence as he feels his knowledge of English is good. Teacher 6 comments: ‘I feel very confident. I feel strong, I remember. All the words come to me easily. Then I have other days, when I'm preoccupied or something and English is not easy and I don't feel like speaking English’ (T6, Mar 9, 2015 interview 2).

Teachers 3 and 4 are confident about their English skills even if they must correct their own mistakes and are sometimes corrected by their students. They see being fallible as encouragement for the students to feel comfortable making mistakes in class as their teachers are not correcting them all the time either. Teacher 3 says:

It's mostly sentence structure I think - because we tend to say English words in Faroese syntax! That is the biggest challenge. One must have a standard well above

the students. If one isn't confident in English, there could be problems right away as it does not give the students confidence in the teacher' (May 12, 2015 interview 3).

He feels that senior teachers appear to have a problem with speaking English in their classes, and this is not the case with the young teachers.

As for teacher 4:

If I don't speak English in class, I don't think they will speak English at all. Not unless they're related to someone who speaks English and only English. Especially when it comes to the speaking skill, because if I don't speak English, they won't either. If I'm speaking to them, my main purpose isn't exactly to get them to speak right, but just to get them speaking – forced output and all that (T4, Mar 12, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 3 believes he is a role model and thinks listening to him speak is important as input and motivation:

That's why I try to speak a lot of English - because they who are ahead should feel that it's challenging and have the chance to speak English, and they who are behind should feel good, though they are not as far ahead, they should have Faroese. In this way, I encourage them to make progress (T3, Mar 17, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 7 says that his English is 'OK' in terms of Faroese standards:

One of the obvious obstacles is that I think in Faroese. So, when I speak English, I translate from Faroese to English in my head. I was better at speaking English after 3 weeks in England than I am now, cos now, I speak English only 2 or 3 times a week (T7, Feb 11, 2015 interview 1).

Teachers 2 and 5 appear to contradict the general scope of the finding that teachers feel confident in their own English skills. Teacher 2 declares (T2, Mar 26, 2015 interview 2):

I feel I'm not good at English myself. Some students are so good at it that they go above me. That's good and I'm happy about it. Maybe, I haven't really made progress. It's the fact that I feel that I'm not that good at English. I stand by this. I would like to have more input from somewhere (translated).

While this may seem contradictory to self-efficacy, she goes on to add that nevertheless, at points she has also experienced that she is better than her students. She continues:

When I begin a closer conversation, they are not that (as good as me) anyway. Maybe that's why I place emphasis on fluency! Maybe, subconsciously, I want to avoid having to go into grammar... maybe because I feel I'm not good enough (T2, Mar 26, 2015 interview 2). (translated)

Teacher 5 feels that he was better at speaking English freely as a pre-service teacher and says:

I know my limits - don't speak English too well. Not afraid of admitting that I don't know. I think that I have my limitations with regards to English - absolutely... I think that I choose (speaking) English too little... I'm a bit handicapped sometimes (T5, Jan 26, 2015 interview 1).

*Finding #5.1.2.10: Teachers are deeply aware of the importance of creating a safe, secure and low-anxiety learning environment to encourage student participation.*

The teachers are acutely aware of not wanting to discourage students from speaking English through their critical attitudes, and reveal that they prioritise the creating of an environment where students can speak English freely without fear of ridicule or censure.

Teacher 2 (Feb 12, 2015 interview 2) says: 'I don't want to push anyone away (by demanding they speak English). Teacher 3 remarks: '(I) accept that they lapse into Faroese and allow them to do so, because they must feel confident in this foreign language first, and they must know that it's OK to use time to search for the correct word' (T3, Mar 17, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 4 states:

It's in this area (TS) on the occasions they speak English, and I encourage them to speak English so that they can feel that it's OK if I can't say it in English properly, I can say it in Faroese, but if I say it in English, it's even better. Every time then they make a bit of progress and every time they manage better (T4, Mar 12, 2015 interview 2).

Teachers 2, 3, 5 are clear that they treat students according to their competence in English. Teacher 3 states (Feb 10, 2015 interview 1):

I could well approach individual students and ask them, especially weak students... So, students feel safe to perform and to use the language - to speak it even if it's

wrong... I think we have a positive milieu. It is acceptable to make mistakes, to not know. (translated)

Teacher 3 says that he would rather say the incorrect sentence correctly himself (recast) instead of pointing out that the student is wrong. In his words:

...so, it doesn't become so much as fault finding but more a 'coaching' or cooperative correction. Even if I say to them 'That wasn't right' but never with the attitude that the student is not capable to get things into place (T3, Feb 10, 2015 interview 1).

*Finding #5.1.2.11: Teachers believe an English-speaking environment facilitates 'student speak'.*

All seven teachers mention the importance of having an English-speaking environment for student learning of a foreign language. They try to create such an environment in class by speaking English themselves - some teachers more than others, as indicated in finding 5.1.2.9.

Teacher 3 is passionate about this:

We don't have a natural spoken English environment in the Faroes outside the screens. So, we must emulate such an environment. When it comes to English, I think it's advisable to have a kind of a spoken English environment. That's why I've chosen to speak English, so they at least get this input. This is a flesh and blood Faroese person who is speaking English even if it's only in this session (T3, Feb 10, 2015 interview 1). (translated)

They provide audio-visual exposure to English through the TS activities they outline to serve as a platform for spoken English. They also encourage students to access the Internet and social media for input. The teachers encourage students to use opportunities to converse with native English speakers either by communicating with tourists in The Faroe Islands or actively seek to do so during their travels in foreign English speaking countries.

Teacher 1 muses:

I've always absolutely asked them to speak to Englishmen and the like - tourists and so on. To me it appears that when they meet a person, who only understands English, then they speak English. In a way, the setting of the school is not always an advantage to speaking the language freely (T1, Mar 13, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 4 declares:

I don't think I do actually encourage students to learn English outside the class. A lot of it comes naturally because they listen to English music, and they watch English TV series or movies. I'm just thinking if they met a tourist who spoke English to them, they would naturally speak English because they had to (T4, Apr 9, 2015 interview 3).

They are aware that online gaming, with their students speaking to other EFL students around the world, has had a positive effect in enabling some of their students' fluency, while at the same time, they ask their students to remember that spoken and written English are different. They tell their students that slang is for spoken English, and mention that it is important that students can communicate in English when in an English-speaking country.

*Finding #5.1.2.12: Not all teachers are aware of the curriculum, and some believe that adhering to textbooks fulfils the curriculum for TS.*

The curriculum is not seen as a significant document by all teachers - they have given it cursory attention or none at all. Teacher 1 and 6 look at what is demanded in the curriculum as they must see what students have to present when the final evaluation is made (exams).

I've read through the curriculum, but I must admit that I'm not so familiar with the curriculum actually. I stick to our system (*Pit Stop 8*) and I know what the test will be like, so I try to prepare them for this test (T2, Feb 11, 2015, interview 1).

Teacher 5: 'I find it hard to answer that question (what does the curriculum say about TS?) I haven't read the curriculum that much' (T5, Jan 26, 2015, interview 1).

'I think I'm kind of doing what I'm supposed to. I do look on and off at the curriculum... when the school year begins' (T5, Feb 26, 2015, interview 2).

Teacher 2 (Feb 12, 2015 interview 2):

In speaking, I try to keep to it (curriculum). There are goals I should reach. It's not always that I manage to fulfil them, but I try to keep to them. Books like *Pit Stop 8* themselves are designed with the curriculum in mind. If you take something from outside the book, you're well covered in what you should be doing. (translated)

Teacher 3 says that the curriculum sets the standards for teaching and his teaching is aimed just higher than the curriculum. He says the curriculum is not specific enough. He refers to it as '... that unclear curriculum' (he laughs) (T3, Mar 17, 2015, interview 2). 'From MMR,

it isn't clear what grade 8 outcomes should be by the end of the year' (T3, May 12, 2015, interview 3).

To be honest, I don't know if I think so much about it (curriculum). I just feel that it's important to teach them to speak and to get them to speak. Like I said that's a barrier itself - just to speak English. So, I don't think so much about the curriculum. (T5, Apr 9, 2015, interview 3).

*Finding #5.1.2.13: The researcher is a catalyst for teacher critical self-reflection of their approach to TS.*

Four teachers mentioned that my study encouraged them to contemplate their teaching. Particularly, when I asked them about the 'how' and 'why' of TS, they said it made them think. Teacher 2 wondered if despite her belief in her self-efficacy in English, whether her emphasis on fluency over accuracy was an unconscious acknowledgement of her not being sure of grammar herself. Teacher self-reflection was further expressed in sentences like Teacher 2 saying: 'I don't think a lot about it (TS), but more when you speak to me about it' (T2, Mar 26, 2015 interview 3). She mentions that she would like a course as in all her years of teaching, no refresher courses have been offered.

Teacher 5 remarks: 'You make me think. When it comes to my TS, it could be better. Yes, I've been thinking' (T5, Feb 26, 2015 interview 2). He acknowledges that he looked up how to teach speaking once my observation and interview sessions commenced.

Teacher 6:

You make me think about things... Even though you haven't said anything about my way of teaching, through your questions, I've started evaluating myself, and it might lead to changes because I'm more aware of what I'm actually doing. I ask myself: Is she just interviewing? Is that all she does? She has an impact on me - it connects mostly to evaluating myself. I want to improve myself in this (TS) (T6, Mar 9, 2015 interview 2).

Teacher 7 observes:

Now I'm more... I think more about these things after you've started observing me (laughs) because I might have put a bit too much emphasis on pronunciation. I'm now trying to turn a bit more towards students keeping a conversation (going) - being able to speak English (T7, May 6, 2015 interview 3).

Therefore, the role of the researcher as a catalyst allowed me to become privy to teacher critical reflections and underscores the trust that developed between the teachers and me. These are the findings on stated beliefs from the interviews with the teacher participants. In covering different aspects, they provide an in-depth view of TC about TS.

The next section explores the stated beliefs gleaned from the questionnaires, whose prime purpose was to see if similarity exists in the grade 8 environments in The Faroe Islands, which may, in a limited sense, address the perceived lack of generalisability in case studies.

### 5.1.3 TC about TS-stated beliefs from questionnaire findings

The questionnaire was used to reinforce and support interview findings to serve the purpose of source and data triangulation as explained in 4.6.1.1. The findings from the seven respondents for parts 1 and 2 are collated below in table 5.1:

**Table 5.1 TC about TS stated beliefs findings from questionnaire**

	<b>Part 1 Findings</b>	<b>Always</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Never</b>
<b>1</b>	I spend time teaching speaking skills in my English class.	1	2	4	
<b>2</b>	When students make mistakes in speaking English, I correct them immediately.		1	4	2
<b>3</b>	I use specific activities to improve English speaking in class.		4	3	
<b>4</b>	I have sufficient basis for giving oral English marks at year end.	1	6		
<b>5</b>	I encourage students to read and listen to English outside school hours.	2	2	3	
<b>6</b>	I speak English in my class.	1	4	2	
<b>7</b>	I ensure that students speak English in class.	2	4	1	
		<b>Strongly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>
<b>8</b>	I think that speaking is a difficult skill to teach.		5	2	
<b>9</b>	I would like my students to speak English in class even if they make mistakes.	6	1		
<b>10</b>	I feel I'm confident and competent at speaking English in class.	3	4		

11	Students speaking fluently is more important than speaking correctly.	1	5	1	
12	Spoken English proficiency is just as important as the written one.	1	6		

The snapshot that emerges from Part 1 underscores that teachers feel they are teaching speaking, find it a bit challenging, believe it is as important as writing, give importance to SS in the classroom, use specific activities to encourage SS, are confident of their self-efficacy in speaking English, believe that fluency is more important than accuracy, believe in correcting errors sometimes, and encourage students to have access to English outside the classroom.

When it comes to part 2 of the questionnaire with open questions and ‘Any other comments’, the teachers write detailed responses, often ranging between 50-150 words. They share freely and answer all questions, allowing for a clear picture of their TS perceptions and activities to emerge from the data. Crucially, they often state in their response to question 3, that they have already covered most, if not all, of it in question 2 suggesting that their perception of TS is doing speaking and not teaching speaking. The findings are outlined below in table 5.2:

**Table 5.2. Findings from Questionnaire – TS as ‘doing speaking’**

<b>Part 2 Findings</b>	
1	<p>The EFL curriculum for grade 8 (námsætlan between grades 7 &amp; 9) indicates a communicative competence perspective, how do you incorporate this in your teaching?</p> <p><i>Teachers’ incorporation of the communicative competence perspective required by the grade curriculum is achieved through diverse activities such as reading, teaching vocabulary and pronunciation, reading aloud, presentation and teacher display questions, group work and writing as a basis for students to speak.</i></p> <p>‘Writing as a support when they need to articulate themselves.’</p> <p>‘I try to speak English as often as possible and encourage my students to do the same. This may be in the introductory part of the lesson. Talking about the weather before we begin the lesson.’ (translated)</p> <p>‘I use <i>Pit Stop 8</i>, which I think is the best we have for teaching speaking skills.’ (translated)</p>
2	<p>In your opinion, how should the speaking skill be taught in the classroom? What kind of activities do you use in teaching speaking? Why do you use these?</p>

*Teachers opine that the speaking skill is to be taught in the classroom through a mixture of activities to get students speaking English and giving students opportunity to practice.*

Using students' own written work, cooperative learning, class discussion in a positive environment, teacher-student interaction, teacher talk and student speak in English to teach speaking.

'The keyword is practice.' - 'Students learn by doing'.

*Teachers list the kind of activities used in TS:*

Games, grammar exercises, dictation, student speak in pairs/group work, presentations followed by question answers and discussion, reading aloud, listening to spoken English, silent reading while listening to a CD.

*Teachers' explications for their approach:*

'It's easier to rehearse e.g. grammar and how to speak correctly.'

'I teach grammar through exercises and other written work to anchor learning and improve spoken competence.' (translated)

(During pair/group work) 'It's easier to get students speaking English in pairs or small groups. I try to group them according to competence as they are shy about speaking English.'

- 'I shift between playing consultant and teacher to promote learning.'

- 3 How do you provide opportunities for your students to speak English in the classroom? Is it important for your students to speak English? Why/why not?

*Teachers believe in the importance of SS in English in the classroom*

'It is important because they need to express themselves.'

'Learning by doing. The classroom is a safe and environment to begin (speaking English) this. The earlier they begin the better.'

'Every [sic] time they speak English, it is a good opportunity to practice their skills.'

'All my pupils have at least two 5-minute presentations during a school year. It is very important that they learn to express themselves in English as they are bound to require these skills later on in their lives!'

'... because they learn to express themselves and carry on a dialogue.' (translated)

'Most of them try to speak English as it is the foreign language that is going to be beneficial in their future.' (translated)

- 4 Do you think that you focus on fluency or grammatical correctness in teaching speaking? Could you give me your reasons why?

*Teachers indicate that they focus more on fluency than accuracy. They do not correct students when they are speaking English as it is not easy to get them speaking as they are shy or not good at English.*

	<p>‘I consider both, but more on fluency because it is significant that students begin speaking as the first step and then the grammar will fall into place as time goes by.’ (translated)</p> <p>‘I tend to focus on fluency... because English is a foreign language. When they (students) will be using their oral skills in English, they will not always be speaking to people who have English as the mother tongue. Therefore, I am willing to accept a certain amount of errors. The most important thing is that they are confident in expressing themselves.’</p> <p>‘I think I stress grammatical correctness more (than fluency). I cannot say why this is.’ (translated)</p> <p>‘It is very important first and foremost to get students speaking (English). I try not to correct and break the flow of student speech. Do it sometimes only. Grammar is of significance, but it can be tiresome for students to be corrected all the time.’ (translated)</p> <p>‘I don’t believe that correcting students has a positive effect. The most important hurdle to cross is for the student to have the confidence to speak. If students are scared of making grammatical errors, they would rather be silent than try to speak.’</p>
5	<p>In what way does your teaching of speaking relate to the demands of the MMR curriculum?</p> <p><i>Teaching of speaking in relation to the demands of the MMR curriculum does not significantly influence teachers.</i></p> <p>It appears that the curriculum does not make an impression on the teachers. Two teachers feel that they fulfil the demands for spoken English by using the textbook <i>Pit Stop 8</i>. Some of them try to achieve the learning outcomes, but place emphasis on some outcomes more than others. Others say that the curriculum is too broad, so they cannot fulfil the demands in the 4 teaching sessions per week always.</p> <p>One teacher remarks: ‘I’m doing my best to fulfil the curriculum’, but does not elaborate further.</p> <p>Another: ‘I’m not sure how I should respond. I don’t think that I focus on the curriculum, but I do on the challenges that students face, so I can lift them up to a high level as possible.’ (translated)</p> <p>One opines: ‘I am not quite sure to be honest. Generally, I try to organize my teaching in accordance with the curriculum. The most important thing, though, is that my pupils feel that they have been given a skillset.’</p>

In part 2, teachers are given the option to make ‘Any other comments’. Five of them mention that they use mainly writing to support speaking. One of them gives his/her reason for this as writing and speaking being equally important, but the demands of the written exam means they spend more time on writing, leaving only limited time for TS. Two of them prioritise writing as they believe it is more important. They also mention that they have students listening to English as part of the *Pit Stop 8* activities and mention exposure to listening English outside the class.

### 5.1.4 Corroboration between stated TC from interviews and questionnaire

The questionnaire findings of the teachers, who came in lieu of the focus group as mentioned in chapter 4, support the TC about TS stated beliefs arrived at through the semi-structured interviews. Based on the interviews and questionnaires, these are the main findings:

Teachers stated beliefs comprise:

1. 'Doing speaking' instead of TS
  - ✓ TS is through reading aloud, games, grammar exercises, dictation, student speak in pairs/group work, presentations followed by question answers and discussion.
  - ✓ TS is done through mainly reading and writing and to a lesser degree listening.
2. Spoken fluency is more important than accuracy.
3. Listening to spoken English through TT in English or multimodal texts is 'meaningful input'.
4. It is important for students to speak English in class. It is 'meaningful output' and is achieved through 'learning by doing'.
5. Students should be prepared for speaking as it is demanded in the exam.
6. Feedback and error correction should not hinder SS.
7. It is crucial to reduce student anxiety and have a safe EFL environment to enable student performance.
8. Teacher self-efficacy is important to teaching and for student confidence in teachers.
9. In general, it appears that teachers:
  - Prioritise writing over speaking
  - Do not focus on curriculum specifications and demands
  - Believe that following certain textbooks fulfils the demands of the curriculum
  - Encourage students to seek English-speaking environments outside the classroom.

The next section presents enacted beliefs that arise from teacher actions in the classrooms during my observations and are open to interpretation as enactment of the stated beliefs in TC about TS.

## 5.2 ‘Enacted beliefs’ from observations: Findings and discussion

The table below presents the TS activities (as identified by the teachers themselves in the interviews as their TS) that were documented during classroom observations of six sessions for each teacher. An important detail to note is that I do not claim that teachers do not use other than the stated activities for TS, or claim that missing activities for some teachers means they do not use them as these activities could have been used outside my classroom observation sessions. What I do definitively claim is that these activities were stated by the teachers as their TS, and observed in the grade 8 classrooms. An explanation of what the activities entail follows the table.

**Table 5.3 Grade 8 classroom activities for TS**

Activities mentioned by teachers as TS (m)							
Activities observed in teachers’ classes (o)							
Teachers:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. Grammar exercises	m/o						
b. Grammar teaching in context			m/o	m/o	m/o		
c. Reading aloud	m/o						
d. Display questions on texts	m/o						
e. Display questions on lyrics	m			m/o	m		m/o
f. Reporting on pair/group work on texts	m/o						
g. Pair/group presentations	m/o						
h. Using a film as a ‘hook’ for discussion	m	m/o	m/o	m/o	m/o	m/o	m
i. Dictation			m		m/o		
j. Discussion of current affairs		m	m/o	m	m		
k. CALL (computer assisted language learning)			o		o		
l. Peer interviews to encourage speaking					m		
m. ‘Speed dating’				m			

**a. Grammar exercises (de-contextualised)** are typically used from the textbook because teachers believe that students must know grammar to be able to speak the language. The exercises are of two kinds: they do not have a direct connection to the texts being studied and are taken from a grammar book, or they are based on the text being studied, and the textbook offers activities based on grammatical relevance. I classify both the approaches as de-contextualised teaching of grammar because the teacher follows the textbook pattern, and this need not necessarily reflect any TC about the role of grammar in TS.

**b. Grammar teaching in context** was observed in two ways: either when students speak English, and ask the teacher for help, and the teacher responds by ‘modelling’ (term used by teachers) and giving some input to explain the relevant grammatical item or the teacher models correct usage as part of his/her error correction strategy in response to SS or chooses to focus on an aspect of grammar to facilitate learning. Most often, the students asked for help with vocabulary and pronunciation, and less often with tense and syntax.

**c. Reading aloud** is done either by the teacher as ‘meaningful input’ or, more often, by the students. When teachers read aloud, the students follow in their books and are aware that they will be tested on the comprehension questions at the end of the text. It appears to be a well-entrenched practice. Occasionally, the students interrupt to ask for meaning (if the text has no glossary), or they wish the teacher to pronounce a word again, because they were not aware of the pronunciation. In such cases, there is a natural ‘diversion’ into discussing the irregular pronunciation in English, and sometimes vocabulary, with the teacher using examples or asking students for them.

When students read out loud, the teacher steps into helping the struggling student with pronunciation if there is a long hesitation, peers come to the reader’s help at points, and again the students are clear that questions will follow. Vocabulary is taught incidentally here, either because the teacher anticipates that a word is difficult or students ask for the meaning of a word. Sometimes, the teacher chooses the student reader or students volunteer, or the pattern of reading aloud is determined by student seating. If a student refuses, the teacher does not persist and moves onto the next person.

**d. Display/closed questions on texts** are prevalent and modus operandi for all the teachers. The question-answer (QA) sessions are based on texts and are predominantly comprehension ones and offer a platform for SS in the classroom. The students mainly read out the answers from the text, or answer using set structures. The QA sessions which are open-ended (not based on texts students have read for homework or read out aloud in class), where one would expect referential/open questions often occur in the introductory phase of a lesson mainly demanding ‘yes’ or ‘no’, one-word or phrase responses which allow students to use English, albeit in a very limited manner. Here too, there is a rote-performance structure with close adherence to the textbook and display question sessions appearing to be the norm.

**e. Display questions on lyrics** follow the pattern described above. The difference is in the input for speaking, which is the presentation of song lyrics by students. As they have already

been given 'pre-set' questions, they answer these during their presentation, with some of them actually reading out answers, again showing no free speaking. The teacher follows up with some display questions and rarely is there open discussion, if any, allowing for free extended responses from students.

**f. Reporting on class pair/group work on texts** is based on reading passages from the text and answering display questions, open questions which require students to state their opinions or doing an exercise based on the reading for the day, which requires students to conduct Internet research and report their findings. These exercises are more open than display question ones, but students often read out what they have written or, in some cases, speak freely in Faroese or English. In some instances, the teacher extends this presentation and involves other students to comment/question classmates, so the teacher is not the only one involved in developing the discussion. Student responses are either in Faroese or English, (if they are in Faroese, the teachers often ask the students to use English), or they code-switch.

**g. Pair/group presentations** appear to be popular with topics chosen by the students or by the teachers. Students use PPT to make the presentation in class. Often, this ends up being a type of reading aloud exercise from notes/slides students have made. The class asks questions, and in some classes, on occasion, a somewhat extended discussion ensues mainly in Faroese and sometimes in English (when teachers remind students) with minimal teacher participation. Otherwise, it is the same mode as activities d and e.

**h. Using a film as a 'hook' for discussion** is either a full-length film or clips that serve as additional materials to be explored for inspiration as devised by teachers or as suggestion in the textbooks. The film is used for display comprehension questions, and specifically asking for student opinions. Occasionally, there are three exchanges amongst students before it relapses into the well-known IRF sequence (teacher initiation, learner response and teacher follow-up or feedback).

**i. Dictation** is given with the teacher reading out either single words or phrases with punctuations. At the end, the teacher collects the papers. The students are encouraged to peer-correct the dictation before submitting it to the teacher. The teacher returns the papers and makes general and individual comments on student performance. At the end, students take turns to read out the dictation passage.

**j. CALL** is used to facilitate the learning of grammatical items and vocabulary. The immediate feedback it offers students is mentioned as positive. The teachers feel because the error correction is from the computer and not the teacher, it appears to make it easier for students to learn from the exercise than worry about what the teacher thinks of student performance. Teachers claim it is also a fun way to learn vocabulary and grammar.

**k. Discussions of current affairs** are positively mentioned by teachers (e.g. the Scottish referendum and the like) as topics for discussion, where they can encourage student-participation in class. In including issues, it is in keeping with the Anglo-Saxon bias in the curriculum. The idea is to encourage open discussion with students taking turns and to keep a discussion going. This lasts for about three exchanges before it becomes the IRF sequence.

**l. Peer interview** is used to encourage a kind of role playing. Students write a set of questions they want to ask a peer and then have a chance to be asked themselves. They have help from each other to correct the questions they have written.

**m. Speed dating** is a variation of the peer interview, but typically allows for one-minute rapid exchanges before moving onto the next student. Students prepare questions beforehand.

This section has summed up the classroom activities of the participant teachers and is the first in a two-step charting of activities used for TS. These activities can be classified using the three categories of classroom talk functions outlined by Richards (2008) in table 2 (in chapter 3 on literature review of TS) as that need to be taught to ensure overall speaking competence of students.

My observations revealed that talk as interaction appears in the introductory phase of classroom sections, and never in taught TS activities, which explains its absence in table 5.3. When teachers were asked to remark on individual students who appeared to speak mainly English in the interaction mode of talk, the teachers identified them as students proficient in spoken English because of their being part British. The only exceptions were a student each in the classes of teachers 1 and 4 who were ethnic Faroese and had a flair for spoken English.

In table 5.4 the incidence of the three kinds of classroom talk is mapped. There is a predominance of task as transaction and some talk as performance. The latter though is often reduced to an IRF session or a reading aloud session (perhaps this explains the absence of code-switching) carrying the element of teacher correction of pronunciation and vocabulary clarifications with barely any discussion.

**Table 5.4 Classification of talk as observed in the classroom**

<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Talk-interaction (some code-switching)</b>	<b>Talk-transaction (Exercises used in class)</b>	<b>Talk-performance (no code switching)</b>
<b>1</b>	Opening informal remarks-no student response.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF.	Pair Power point presentations on topics chosen by students.
<b>2</b>	Opening and closing informal remarks - sporadic student response. Code-switching between L1 and L3 in almost equal measure.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF.	Group Power point presentations with specific roles assigned to students to help complete the task from <i>Pit Stop 8</i> .
<b>3</b>	Opening and closing informal remarks with easy flow of student responses. Jokes shared in this phase. Code-switching between L1 and L3 in almost equal measure.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF. CALL - Video input online adjective dictation test with online assessment.	Group response presentation to a fact-finding activity from <i>Pit Stop 8</i> .
<b>4</b>	Opening and closing informal remarks with student responses. Some jokes and ‘off the cuff’ interaction during activity time. Code-switching between L1 and L3, but more of L3.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF. Audio-visual input through lyrics followed by IRF.	Making individual presentations based on a song played for classmates from YouTube.
<b>5</b>	Opening and closing informal remarks with student response. Informal small talk between teachers and students. Reacting to peer presentations. Some code- switching	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Dictation in which student reads a passage aloud followed by teacher and peer correction.	Making individual presentations based on a song played for classmates from YouTube.

	between L1 and L3, but mainly in L1.	Student-designed interview questions to ask peers to promote formulation of questions in English.	
6	Opening and closing informal remarks with student response. Small talk. Some code-switching between L1 and L3, but mainly in L1.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF. Audio-visual input for novel <i>Forrest Gump</i> as basis for display questions.	Group response presentation based on <i>Engelsk for ottende</i> exercise in classwork.
7	Opening and closing informal remarks with student responses. Personal experiences recounted by teacher with student response. Some code-switching between L1 and L3, but mainly in L1.	Focus on message in the texts read aloud by teacher/student or translated by student through IRF teacher-led display questions on comprehension. Listening comprehension with audio input also offers a basis for IRF.	Making individual presentations based on a song played for classmates from YouTube.

This section has shown the correspondence between TC and TS through stated and enacted cognitions. It also reveals the kind of TS specific to teachers. These findings place the Faroese teacher participants as typical when it comes to studying TS in EFL based on the few studies that have directly dealt with the relationship between TC and TS. Chapter 6 goes into greater depth and affords other critical perspectives of relevance in viewing the findings.

The next section looks at the policy documents at the macro level to illustrate their influence on teacher action. The micro level documents serve to give an impression of what teachers teach.

### 5.3 Influence of Policy documents on teachers

The teacher is part of an educational system which involves duties and responsibilities that can be seen as two-pronged: administrative and pedagogical. These provide a framework for teacher action to be carried out and define learning outcomes for various subjects. It is relevant to explore to what extent policy documents influence TS in EFL.

### 5.3.1 The Curriculum – macro level

The MMR-designated curriculum adopts a skills-based and communicative competence approach to TEFL. It provides a general view of the significance of English for Faroese education. (Appendix 8)

It is clearly stated in the English curriculum for grades 7-9 that learners should in spoken English be taught to: (translated)

- a. express themselves well and correctly in terms of pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary
- b. to follow and participate in conversations in English in terms of everyday language and subject themes
- c. choose the style of speaking that strengthens the ability to communicate in various situations, i.e. be conscious of register differences
- d. receptively differentiate between various pronunciations, e.g. British and American English
- e. to make presentations in English.

Based on the learning outcomes for spoken English outlined above, it is expected that teachers choose a teaching strategy that fulfils the given aims.

It is evident from the interviews and observations that pronunciation and vocabulary are taught, if not explicitly, incidentally during reading aloud, or question answer exchanges, while no mention is made or observed of intonation. It is less clear whether ‘express themselves well’ in the curriculum should be interpreted as focus on fluency or accuracy or a combination of both in teaching. As per the findings, teachers do evince that it is a mixture of both with accuracy rating much higher attention. Presentations are certainly made in English, while the objectives ‘d’ and ‘e’ above are not directly taught, but practised as can be seen in objective ‘d’ when students’ pronunciation merits help or correction. Objective ‘c’ is not found in my data.

Several teachers expressed frustration with the curriculum for not providing a detailed approach to teaching and felt that they were a bit lost as there are no specific guidelines for the curriculum. Therefore, it was easier to do what has always been done, i.e. grammar, translation, reading aloud, dictation and presentation.

Interestingly, two teachers mentioned that they do not worry about the curriculum as they have a general idea of what is required. One of them added that the students do well in the exam and that speaks for itself. One teacher did not know the curriculum at all. Two of them were disgruntled with the curriculum and felt it did not provide any relevant details or advice. 'I find it (the question on curriculum) hard to answer. I haven't read the curriculum that much. I've just read my syllabus, read it, done my annual teaching plan, and I think I'm on the right course' (T5, Mar 12, 2015). A couple of them mentioned that by following *Pit Stop 8*, they must be fulfilling the curriculum requirements.

### **5.3.2 The Grade 8 syllabi – micro level**

The syllabi of the various teachers were perused to see how the curriculum was incorporated into the syllabi specifically for TS. Some teachers include excerpts of the curriculum (a-e in bullet points above) when filling out the forms for syllabi, which must be submitted to the school principal annually. They use the points as self-explanatory descriptions of their TS. Others describe the common activities viewed by the teachers as TS in their syllabi to show that they are fulfilling the demands of the curriculum.

- Teachers and students reading aloud
- Communication in English between teacher and student through asking and answering questions, expressing opinions and having informal chats in English
- Making presentations individually based on song lyrics of student's choice, and in pairs or groups based on a theme either chosen by student or teacher.

### **5.3.3 Teaching materials**

The classroom teaching materials used to teach speaking in grade 8 include:

- Exercises on grammar and translation as a basis for Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF).
- Teacher-led question and answers to test reading comprehension from textbooks or multimedia texts.

- Free and structured presentation topics chosen by teachers for which materials are chosen by students from the Internet for the former and based on textbook activities for the latter.

These materials engender monologic activities with one-way communication, and some task-based exercises, which draw upon student ability to use authentic language for meaningful purposes and could be dialogic two-way communication. Samples of teaching materials are available in Appendix 9 and they cover the kinds of activities observed in the classroom.

Teachers primarily use *Pit Stop 8*, where all the instructions are in English and only the glossary (originally in Danish by Alinea) has been translated into Faroese. It is published by the textbook society of The Faroe Islands, which falls under the auspices of NÁM. *Engelsk for ottende*, and *New Choice Reader*, which are from Gyldendal publishers, and other grammar textbooks and materials from Internet sources are other materials used in grade 8. Nám, the Courses department, directly under MMR has recommended the *Pit Stop 8* books as the textbook for the grade 8 and has conducted a course for teachers to understand how to use the books.

The teachers who were not fully satisfied with *Pit Stop 8* textbook mentioned that it did not have enough texts for literary analysis or grammar, and therefore, used additional materials, from other textbooks, which were usually Danish or Faroese grammar exercises for English learning, and short stories for analysis. It is worth mentioning that the teachers who attended a course in using *Pit Stop 8* were very happy with it and felt it opened several possibilities, but this did not stop them from relying on other texts to add variety.

Nám's recommendation of Pit Stop is significant, hence I've chosen to give a detailed view of the books. The educational intentions in *Pit Stop 8* state that the grade 8 book is specifically designed for the development of the speaking skills with the focus being on the needs of the individual learner, who together with the teacher can have an individual path to his/her language learning in an 'autonomous learning environment that encourages and supports learner participation and learner responsibility' (Carter *et al.*, 2008, p. 16). They underscore the importance of self-assessment as raising learner self-awareness:

One of the aims of Pit Stop is to have learners participate in and assume responsibility for their own language learning process... It is our belief that by making learners

aware of language learning strategies, providing language learning tools and encouraging the learner to take responsibility, each student will not only become a better learner, but also and more importantly, become more skilled and proficient when speaking, listening, reading or writing. (Carter, Kendon, Buhl and Hansen, 2008, p. 16).

They highlight the importance of the teacher's role as 'extremely important and necessary support for all learners in the autonomous classroom' (p. 17). As per the authors, there is incorporation of differentiation in teaching so each student can work towards his/her goal. The learning materials, it is said, offer good authentic texts and topics which are designed to capture the interests of both sexes.

The authors offer guidance for speaking (presentation and discussion) under the following headings:

**Before speaking** - they advise the use of mind mapping for learners to identify content, arranging ideas, identifying audience to facilitate what and how to convey, and choice of visual aids. This stage should also help with choosing vocabulary.

**When speaking** - the learner should be able to paraphrase when lost for words using fillers and general expressions. The teacher is expected to be the role model for this kind of usage. 'Intonation, facial expression and body language in general as well as script independence are important factors while speaking' (p. 20).

**After speaking** - they suggest that the learner evaluate the whole process from planning to execution. They advise feedback training for learners in giving feedback and receiving feedback to improve future performance.

The books are organised thematically and are a set of four and include a topic book, a task book and teacher's guide, which are further two books - one includes copy sheets, and the other specifies the educational aims.

The 'Faroese' Pit Stop website (Vegleiðing, Snar, 2011) offers a summary of the Danish Pit Stop (*Pit Stop* 8.alinea.dk) website on the educational intentions of the *Pit Stop* books 5-9, guidance for teachers and its relevance to the Danish curriculum for English. It offers an overview of the progression from Pit Stop books from grades 5-9. For grade 8, the following is specified (Progression, Snar, 2011): (translated)

**Focus:** Mainly speaking. There are two speaking modes: presentation and discussion. Vocabulary training and writing skills continue to be in focus.

**Word acquisition:** Verbs are given in the infinitive, and irregular verbs are marked with\*

**After every theme:** A speaking assignment: presentation and discussion.

**Tam's Tricks:** Listening input - Scottish dialect. Students use listening strategies. For students who find it difficult to follow, the complete script is available with a glossary as a copy sheet.

**Grammar:** Apart from pronouns, focus will continue to be on nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs.

The website outlines the learning outcomes for speaking specified earlier and mentions the following for students: Listen, read, discuss, guess, assess and evaluate (metacognition) (Námsætlan, Snar 2011).

The *Pit Stop 8* authors say that it is possible to achieve a high level of student autonomy, while the textbook is also designed for use in classes where there is a need to adopt a teacher-centred strategy. They declare that a range of texts for differing levels of student competence is available to satisfy the need of students of all levels (within the class), and the book systematically works towards increasing student vocabulary.

Apart from *Pit Stop 8*, the different textbooks used in the EFL class supply exercises in relation to reading comprehension, grammar, reading activities with student verbal responses, fact-finding, and student reporting on themes arising from texts. Adherence to textbooks mainly dictates the teaching approaches and additional materials like films, YouTube clips, etc., as already mentioned.

Three teachers mentioned that they used the same book as their other English-teaching colleagues in their schools, because the schools had no funding to purchase student books, they used other materials to offset the weaknesses of *Engelsk for ottende* or because as new teachers, they did 'not wish to rock the boat.' There also appears to be a bit of tension between pre- and post-reform teachers within the school, which one teacher remarked makes new teachers cautious about insisting on their choice of textbooks. Sometimes, new teachers manage to get their students to do something which surprises their senior colleagues. It is

then seen as a feather in the cap and a validation of them having ‘arrived’ on the professional stage.

Various sources have been delved into to arrive at the stated and enacted beliefs of teachers to build an image of TC on TS in grade 8. The next section casts a critical light on the findings from the various perspectives that have emerged from the ‘state of the art’ on TC and TS with the intention of understanding the status quo. Apart from using the lens of TC about TS, other perspectives of relevance are adapted to plumb the depths of what is essentially a very complex phenomenon. Despite teachers being the focus of this study, students and learning materials all have their roles in education, so some contextual focus on the students and materials cannot be avoided in the dynamic environment of education.

## **5.4 Further discussion**

This study was initiated to identify TC about TS of grade 8 teachers in EFL and its impact on teacher praxis through asking the following research questions that formed the crux of my study:

- What is the grade 8 teachers’ TC about teaching speaking in EFL?
- How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?
- How does their TC impact TS?
- How is ‘state of the art’ in TS reflected in grade 8 Faroese classes?

In the discussion, these research questions will be revisited using an integrated critical analytical perspective to explore the significance of the findings based on:

- ❖ The literature review for the study.
- ❖ Case study framework which may have influenced the findings.

These foci should ensure that the findings are placed in the context in a manner that yields in-depth and holistic perspectivisation of the issues being discussed.

### **5.4.1 Grade 8 TC about TS - literature review perspectives**

The literature review indicated that stated beliefs are the result of teachers verbally expressing their beliefs when asked about their teaching. This expression of stated beliefs may be complete or partial, and in some cases, teachers may be unable to put their beliefs into words as mentioned by Sahin *et al.* (2002). In my study, the teachers appear to express their beliefs about TS with seemingly little effort. The findings show that stated beliefs on TS are nearly identical in data sets from both semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. The correlation among the various teacher participants and the questionnaire respondents are an indication that teachers in this study have specific, identifiable stated beliefs that they can articulate, which identifies their concept of TS as indicated below:

- ✓ TS is through reading aloud, games, grammar exercises, dictation, student speak in pairs/group work, presentations followed by question answers and discussion.
- ✓ TS is done through mainly reading and writing and to a lesser degree listening.

Therefore, the stated beliefs of the grade 8 teachers reveal what Goh & Burns (2012) term ‘doing speaking’, where opportunities are provided for student performance rather than specifically teaching speaking. The reasons for doing this may be varied and are explicated as follows:

#### **5.4.1.1 Impact of the ‘apprenticeship of observation’**

In TC literature, the ‘apprenticeship of observation’ is given due acknowledgement. The teachers indicate that they are influenced by the way they were taught, which appears to be a predominance of the Grammar-translation method (GT). While they do not only use GT in grade 8, they show clear tendencies towards using some elements, viz. teaching grammar in isolation. They do this because they feel that this focus on forms will provide the students a basis for correct grammar, which will then enable them to transfer this into successful spoken English. Translation and reading aloud are the other observed GT elements. Teachers 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7 mentioned that written assignments dominated their schooling and greater importance was given to students being able to write well. This could be another reason for their not giving spoken English its place and for their focus on writing instead. To some

extent then, TC of these teachers has been influenced by their own education, be it primary, secondary or pre-reform TE.

#### **5.4.1.2 Believing ‘Doing speaking’ is TS**

The enacted beliefs bear out the stated beliefs in that the activities perceived as TS are mirrored almost in their entirety in classroom observations. The grade 8 teachers’ perception of TS is ‘doing speaking’ and is not comparable to TS as described in the theoretical literature (Goh & Burns, 2012). The authors indicate that just using certain activities to enable students to speak in class falls short of fulfilling the criteria for TS because it does not factor in the highly complex process of speaking with its physical, cognitive and socio-cultural interplay in real-time. The teachers appear to use elements of GT, skills-based approach (which seems to be the thrust of the given curriculum) and elements of Communicative Language teaching (CLT). Facilitating group work, using language for communicative activities like discussions, and asking for student opinions indicate the controlled discourse aspects of the CLT approach. Indications are that ‘apprenticeship of observation’ too has its influence in the grade 8 perception of TS.

In only ‘doing speaking’, the teachers lose the opportunity of explicitly teaching speaking, which research indicates is crucial if students are to learn speaking in EFL. As the literature review indicated in 3.4.1, TS must be taught explicitly, and this is not the case with grade 8 TS as the teachers themselves acknowledge. This observation is in no way unique to the Faroese school environment as mentioned in the literature review, where research shows that teachers confuse oral practice for oral communication. What is thought-provoking is to attempt to analyse the Faroese situation to arrive at possible indicators for this status quo as explored in 5.5.

#### **5.4.1.3 Implications of lack of teacher knowledge of TS.**

Borg (2003) indicates that there is need for EFL teacher knowledge research on other curricular aspects of language teaching than grammar, like the teaching of speaking, listening, and vocabulary, which have not been given significant representation. I attempt to address this dearth of studying the significance of teacher knowledge of TS.

If we were to recall Shulman's (1986) overview of teacher knowledge in 2.4.2, an attempt can be made to infer its relevance and significance in grade 8 contexts. Interviews and observations indicate that Content knowledge (CK), Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and curricular knowledge may offer insight into why teachers 'do' rather than 'teach' speaking. Knowledge of what speaking is, what teaching speaking entails, how to teach speaking in EFL, i.e. strategies that can be used to teach speaking, understanding of the curriculum and adhering to the learning outcomes, and using the tools of the trade for TS must all have input from somewhere.

Guerriero (2017) says that empirical research on how teacher knowledge influences decision-making indicates that teachers:

Need to be able to analyse and evaluate specific learning episodes, in combination with contextual and situational factors, and to be able to connect all this information to their specialist knowledge of the teaching-learning process in order to guide subsequent teaching actions. Thus, making good pedagogical decisions hinges on the quality of the pedagogical knowledge held by the teacher (p. 6).

This has implications for grade 8 praxis as interviews and observations indicate that teachers, while they have pedagogical knowledge, appear not to have a clear concept of what TS is in EFL and thereby lack PCK of TS. This is mirrored in other studies on TS in EFL as indicated by Chen and Goh (2014). If knowledge of the relevant theories/approaches of TS are to be acquired, where could it come from? It could either come from the 'apprenticeship of observation', from being formally taught in TE or from experience of actually teaching and sharing with colleagues. 'Several studies suggest that teaching experience needs to be coupled with thoughtful reflection on instructional practice, with non-formal learning through interactions with colleagues, and with deliberative formal learning opportunities' (Kleickman et al., 2013, p. 64).

The two post-reform teachers appear to be aware of the theoretical background of TS from TE as evidenced in their discourse, but had not observed explicit TS in the practicum as pre-service teachers as they remarked they saw the 'GT approach was very much alive' (T3, Feb 10, 2015). The other five teachers clearly indicated that they were predominantly taught English using the GT method, translation and literary analysis in TE and observed the same in the practicum. As student teachers, gaining required and evaluated experience in supervised teaching, they had not had occasion to practise TS in any form. All seven

indicated that GT, and a smattering of CLT in primary and secondary schools was the norm. Therefore, they could not have learnt through ‘apprenticeship of observation’ from these sources.

Formal teaching of TS, as part of TE, would be the next possible source. But, pre-reform teachers have clearly indicated that TE did not include knowledge of SLA or EFL. In fact, one teacher said it resembled higher secondary education as already indicated in 5.1.1, while others in describing the teaching in TE revealed that it approximated to GT, and literary analysis of different genres. The fact is that until 2008, TE in languages was styled on higher secondary lines. It was not until 2008 with the school becoming a part of the university and no longer a ‘professional bachelor degree’, did the face of TE and its ethos change (See appendices 10.a, 10.b for pre-reform TE curriculum, appendix 11 for TE written exam question papers and appendix 12 for current TE modular curriculum). The pre-reform teachers therefore could not and did not have access to knowledge of SLA or ELT in any form if they had not received any type of in-service training within these areas. It would therefore be illogical to expect them to have knowledge of or reflect the theoretical principles in their TS praxis.

As for knowledge of the curriculum, grade 8 teachers are not always aware of the contents of the curriculum, are dissatisfied with it and thereby not motivated to attempt to follow it or give it importance. This too influences TS as is indicated in 5.5.1.

#### **5.4.1.4. Positive impact of knowledge of students (KOS).**

KOS is considered an important variable in teaching. As mentioned in the literature review, knowledge of students and their characteristics provides insight into teacher perception of students’ proficiency, their learning experiences, and their development in the subject. Here, grade 8 teachers have their finger on the pulse. They show compelling evidence of understanding their students - from their English language ability, their personalities as students, and the challenges they face in actively trying to ensure that students make progress in English in an academic year. The grade 8 teachers demonstrate a clear and committed approach to minimising student anxiety in foreign language learning and focus on motivating their students by creating a safe and secure learning environment with the purposeful intention of facilitation of learning and student inclusion in the classroom. The awareness of

the student anxiety variable and its effects on learning might well stem from general pedagogy content knowledge, which pre-and post-reform teachers received in TE.

The findings demonstrated that teachers have a differentiated approach to error correction and feedback giving their strong students critical feedback because they know the student can cope and improve further. Shy and students who are insecure speaking, let alone speaking English, are treated with kid gloves. The encouragement to students who try was evident in the observations as also teacher awareness of student progress, which is also positively commented on by the teachers. Interestingly, all seven teachers exhibited an inordinate amount of sensitivity in this matter.

#### **5.4.1.5 Lack of focus on the metacognitive strategy in TS.**

The literature review highlighted the importance of equipping students with a metacognitive strategy to enhance their speaking skill. It is important to build learner awareness of potential challenges in verbal communication, which may contribute to the development of speaking. Using metacognitive strategies to solve spoken dilemmas must be overtly taught to learners because i.) the greater the frequency of salient target language input, the better the learning of speaking and ii.) the extent to which the target language data is embedded in the learners' schematic system is directly proportional to their awareness of the learning process and ability to negotiate towards a communicative goal. This crucial factor appears to be missing in grade 8 TS.

There are a few instances of approximation to metacognitive guidance to students. As already mentioned in 5.1.2.3, explicit instruction of coping strategies for communication were given to the students in instances. Apart from these very rare instances, I observed two more where I had to suspend my researcher role to become part of classroom interaction as the native speaker. Here, teacher 3 overtly told the students that in listening to English, the input would help them to learn expressions, and in interacting with me, they could note the art of turn-taking to make sure the communication flowed smoothly. The target language was generated functionally, i.e. fit for purpose by using fixed expressions for asking questions, in this context for a while in this session. The second instance was in the interview with teacher 7, who said he told the students that they could use coping strategies when speaking English. They could substitute a Faroese word or phrase when speaking English or use circumlocution, though the teacher used layman's terms to explain these strategies.

#### **5.4.1.6 Reliance on IRF exchange & display questions impede interaction.**

While the IRF exchange need not perform just one function, in the grade 8 classrooms, it is limited to monologic display sessions. Comprehension testing, post reading aloud and reporting homework assignments underline this with their asymmetric mode of interaction between teacher and students, rendering what ought to be communicating to a monologic exchange with no room for expanded student responses.

Scaffolding is ‘the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that he or she cannot perform alone’ (Ellis, 2003, p. 180). Teachers believe in scaffolding, which is proved in the IRF exchanges in class. When a teacher becomes part of the process, the role of the teacher becomes that of the proficient speaker, allowing for a kind of scaffolding which would be beneficial to student learning. There is minimal interaction in this sense in grade 8 classes, which potentially inhibits the learning of speaking.

The interaction in grade 8 does not promote learning of speaking through using metacognitive awareness, i.e. for students to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning to continue the learning process. Self-assessment, which can promote metacognitive awareness, is promoted in the ethos of *Pit Stop 8*, but teachers do not appear to explore this fully in either my observations or interviews. Apart from ensuring student comprehension, teachers use the display questions (mentioned in 3.8.1) as giving opportunities for students to speak (even if they read out answers), to promote inclusion, and it also allows them to check if the students have done their homework.

The display questions cannot fully facilitate the acquisition of EFL as they are used just for comprehension of the target language and fail to exploit the opportunity to allow for negotiating meaning with an interlocutor. An issue of significance is Long’s interaction hypothesis (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) where interaction is deemed to influence language learning through the negotiation of meaning that takes place in a dialogue/conversation. When people converse, they seek to communicate/comprehend the message through ‘modified output’ (clarification of what they do not understand and adapt their way of saying something to make the message clear). This kind of processing by students, where they think, correct and process utterances viewed as a form of comprehensible input for their language learning is missing in grade 8.

To turn to the predominance of display questions in grade 8, it would be useful to cite Long and Sato (1983), who found that ESL classroom discourse contained mainly display questions and referential questions were few and far between. Their conclusion is that teachers must find a role for referential questions to echo naturalistic discourse as this is beneficial in learning to speak a second language. Their observations that display and referential questions must be used in a balanced manner are valid for grade 8 EFL as well.

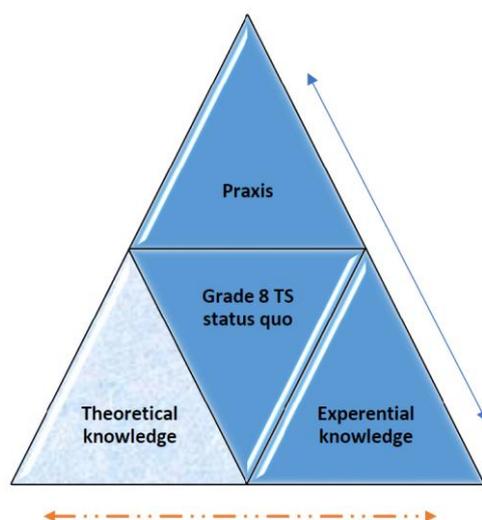
The referential questions (mentioned in 3.8.1) are minimal and in the absence of student engagement, become display question sessions between teacher and student. Seemingly, the function of language as transaction shapes classroom interaction resulting in language becoming the teachers' instrument of teaching rather than the students' instrument of learning.

#### **5.4.1.7 Inadequate professional development**

Furthermore, a common complaint from all the participant teachers was that there were no courses organised as part of their professional development. They felt the schools showed no interest and teachers were told that if they were to attempt to attend courses, which were not organised by MMR and later Nám, they would have to foot the bill themselves. Nám does not offer general EFL courses, but some of the teachers in the study benefitted from a course on how to use *Pit Stop* books. Significantly, two teachers who were the senior most in experience with 22 and 21 years of teaching EFL were lamenting that no courses had been offered in EFL since they finished their teacher training in the early nineties.

### **5.5 TS status quo in grade 8 and its implications**

To figuratively represent the status quo of TS in The Faroe Islands, the diagram below may be useful to highlight relevant factors.



**Figure 5.1 The status quo of TS in Grade 8**

It appears that the concepts of Content knowledge (CK) and Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) of TS are missing in the pre-reform setting of TE. It is expected that in a professional education study like teacher education, knowledge input is tailored to suit the needs of the profession. This relevant input should contribute to cognition building and cognitive change. Cognitive change is slow compared to behavioural change; resistance to change must be managed and shape praxis, which in time, can be tried and tested through continued praxis and interplay of theory and praxis in what is arguably an ideal situation to promote experiential knowledge. This symbiotic relationship represented in the base of the triangle as the dotted arrow has no basis in the pre-reform context as the pre-reform TE curriculum confirms.

Notwithstanding the discussion about transfer of theory to praxis, and the gap which inevitably exists between the two, one can still contend that with zero theory input, and no teacher professional development programme, the pre-reform grade 8 teachers are disadvantaged. In other words, it is presumed that these teachers have had to take a reflective approach based solely on experience. Informally, teachers may access sources of PCK for TS through self-interest for professional development, but the interviews gave little indication of this with one exception: two teachers acknowledged that they looked up TS after my interview and observation, but pointed out that they had neither taken courses or been given the opportunity to attend courses.

The five pre-reform grade 8 teachers can be placed on the right leg of the triangle as professionals who have gained experiential knowledge established in the realm between ‘apprenticeship of observation’ and own teaching experience with no PCK input, as their basis for TS praxis (though the teacher with just 2 years teaching experience is most likely to share characteristics with the new two post-reform teachers in the sense of typical challenges that new teachers face, which are explained later). Therefore, grade 8 teachers lack PCK, i.e. knowledge of speaking in EFL and knowledge of TS, which negates the possibility of theory-informed teaching. This is perhaps a compelling reason for why teachers ‘do speaking’ and do not teach speaking and why no congruences were found between the stated beliefs and the praxis observed - an issue that will be discussed in more detail below.

As for the two new post-reform teachers, in spite of having theoretical input for TS, their limited teaching experience may mean that their experience as learners overshadows the TE input, though the teachers show understanding of theories and are aware of them. This is because despite having declarative knowledge (knowing that), they have not had the time to convert it into procedural knowledge (knowing how).

The high representation of new teachers in my study would also have an effect on the kind of pedagogical approach adopted in grade 8. Melnick and Meister (2008) posit that new teachers are typically concerned with classroom discipline, student motivation and differentiation, assessment of student work, parent-teacher relations, organising classwork, worry about insufficient teaching materials and tackling problems of specific students. In short, focus is on general, pedagogical issues. For them, issues like knowledge of subject matter, different approaches to teaching, cognisance of school policies, and differentiation come afterwards. Therefore, new teachers must move in their trajectory of teaching before they can be expected to have PCK or curricular knowledge of the subject.

### **5.5.1 Curriculum and textbook dependence**

The implicit, eclectic approach to TS is worth exploring from the perspective of curriculum, and textbook dependence. The curriculum overtly specifies ‘making presentations’. The belief that the curriculum is being fulfilled in the syllabus of the individual teacher through a specific textbook or books may also be relevant in this

instance. Making presentations and discussion are the dual activities for speaking in *Pit Stop 8*. This is not surprising as the *Pit Stop* books are published as directly relevant to the Danish Ministry (UVM) curriculum and adopted by Nám for the MMR curriculum as if there were a one-to-one correspondence between the curriculum of UVM and MMR. The choice of these two activities by nearly all the teachers may indicate an adherence to the textbook and not a conscious choice for TS. Arguably, this also represents the TS activities in other EFL situations as demonstrated by Chen and Goh (2014). For teachers, who do not use *Pit Stop 8*, exam backwash in the guise of the spoken exam, which requires students to make a presentation, may be the reason why it is reflected in grade 8 TS.

## 5.6 Congruence/incongruence between TC and TS

Looking at the blue line in figure 5.1, grade 8 teachers show congruence between their TC on TS and the way they teach EFL speaking. The findings indicate near one-to-one correspondence between what they perceive as TS and how they teach it. One reason for this congruence might be attributable to the lack of PCK of TS in EFL as already analysed in 5.4.1.3. Also, as already indicated in 2.6, in EFL teaching, congruence is related to teacher expertise and level of development (Basturkmen, 2012; Buehl & Beck, 2015), this cannot be the case in grade 8 praxis due to lack of PCK. This is explicated by Barnard & Burns (2012) based on another EFL case study.

... where access to explicit theories was quite limited, the teachers' beliefs were rooted in their personal and collective experiences. Their teaching practices were regulated by normative ways of teaching and learning which were historically embedded in their local context, and into which they were socialised (p. 97).

A grade 8 teacher belief that is matched by action is that reading aloud helps students with pronunciation, vocabulary learning, indicates student ability, and ascertains comprehension. Furthermore, it is also a requirement in the oral exam.

Gibson (2008) says that reading aloud does not aid comprehension, because in the L2 or L3 classroom, students are engaged in their performance of the task and not in understanding the passage being read out. Long reading sections can be of help for honing prosodic features like intonation through reading aloud to oneself rather than the whole class. Gibson (2008) does say that for a limited time it may help shy students to start with reading aloud before

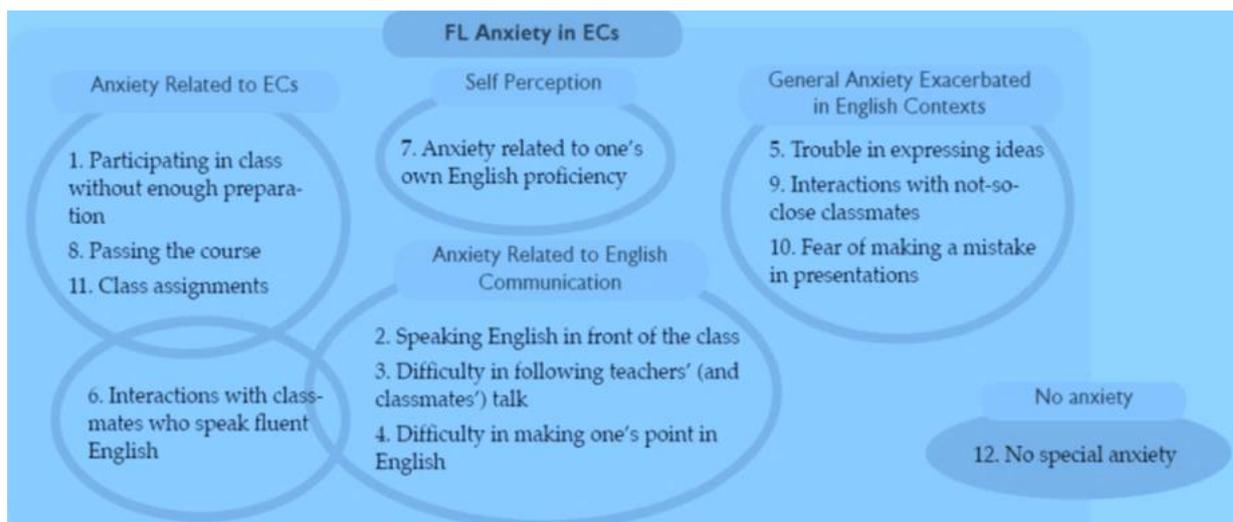
progressing to free speaking. Three of the grade 8 teachers do mention that if the students did not read aloud, then there would be no English speaking to be heard from them.

When we look at KOS, there is congruence between the belief in the importance of mitigating student anxiety and providing a safe learning environment for speaking and creating such an environment in grade 8 classes as already demonstrated in 5.4.1.4.

Loewen, (2007) considers that error correction could be done by recasting (it is subtle and is both clarification and correction) or by prompting (student's self-correction). But some researchers feel the implicit nature of recasts may result in students failing to notice them or their corrective purpose, while others argue that self-correction involves mental processing, which encourages noticing.

The teachers believe that it is important to have student speak (SS) in the class and that error correction in this context is useful for their students, but the belief that students should feel safe to perform in class is the overweening belief that prevents teachers from fully using the positives of error correction for student learning. This could be an indication of the core-peripheral belief dynamic.

Iizuka (2010) posits that firstly, foreign language (FL) anxiety is a unique form of anxiety specific to FL learning contexts and secondly, that a negative relationship between anxiety and learning in FL contexts reduces motivation, which is otherwise very important for FL learning. Based on her study of 125 Japanese EFL college students participating in an English content course (EC), the author indicates that her study shares findings with other FL anxiety studies like Horwitz *et al.* (1986). Therefore, FL teachers are encouraged to create a supportive and cooperative classroom atmosphere, to contribute and develop a sense of learner community, and use groupwork activities to mitigate learner anxiety.



**Fig. 5.2 Possible relations among 12 anxiety-provoking contexts in EC classrooms** (Iizuka, K., 2010, p. 107)

Ironically, the study identifies making presentations and discussions as chief sources of anxiety among the students in the study. If this yardstick were to be used for grade 8, *Pit Stop 8* actively promotes these two activities, and teachers use the latter activity with frequency, possibly undermining their very intention to reduce student anxiety. This might be the reason why teachers say they find it hard to get the students to speak English in class, and it might be advisable for them to consider teaching students how to make presentations and participate in discussions before requiring them to ‘perform’.

Regarding student anxiety about reading aloud, teachers allow shy students to read towards the end of the year. They make sure that there is a culture of acceptance for students to perform without anxiety or they listen to them on an individual basis without the rest of the class listening in. Interestingly enough, apart from one teacher, none of the others use peer-to-peer reading aloud activities to diminish anxiety.

As indicated in the literature review, examination backwash is a deciding factor in the congruence/incongruence dynamic. It is very clear that grade 8 teachers are conscious of the exam and presentations are often seen as good practice for spoken exams. This cannot be surprising as separate marks are given for spoken and written English, thereby emphasising the importance of both skills.

The oral exam structure for grade 9 English, which is presumably that which the teachers have as their foundation when they teach towards examinations, allows for two models: model A, where a student gets a known text and an unknown text. The student is required to

read aloud a few lines from the known text and make a presentation of the unknown text and have a discussion with the examiners; model B requires that students make a presentation of a self-chosen topic followed by questions from the teacher and then read aloud a few lines from a known text and answer questions on it. Teachers make clear that these exercises are definitively focused on and practised in grade 8 classes with exams in mind. It appears that in the absence of PCK, teachers choose an approach which can ensure that students can perform well at the spoken exams by using the saying 'practice makes perfect'. In other words, they are vulnerable to examination backwash.

The importance of 'student speak' (SS) is mentioned by nearly all the teachers, but they do not all promote it. There is seldom interactive communication or extended discourse, while display questions dominate teacher-student exchanges. The teachers mention in the interviews that they want their students to be able to use English to speak to foreigners, when students travel and in real-life situations, but they do not teach towards these ideas. The source of this incongruence may originate from teachers' 'apprenticeship of observation', lack of PCK for TS, or just an unconscious/individual style of teaching that sees SS as belonging to presentation and reading aloud activities or in keeping with the idea that teachers are not always aware of what they do as indicated in 2.6 by Lockwood (2007).

The pertinent issue of TT in English as 'meaningful input' is supported by the teachers even if they do not all use the terminology, though this belief is not transferred into practice. Some teachers clearly spoke more Faroese than English, and said they did so in the interviews, while others predominantly used English. Whether this was due to 'observer paradox' will be dealt with in the section on how the case study framework impacts the study. This incongruence may arise either from the teacher belief that writing is more important than speaking, or the belief that as English is only an L3, some teachers prefer to concentrate on Faroese rather than English.

An interesting and relevant issue is that of self-efficacy, which is important in teaching. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are teachers' 'beliefs in their abilities to support learning in various task- and context-specific cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social ways' (Wyatt, 2010 in Wyatt, 2015, p. 118). Wheatley (2002 in Wyatt, 2015, p. 120) strikes a note of caution about self-efficacy of teachers being at opposite ends of the spectrum. Low self-efficacy of teachers might engender cognitive dissonance, i.e. lack of congruence between belief and praxis, whereas high self-efficacy beliefs, which do not mirror reality, might prevent teacher self-reflection, and therefore, hinder learning for development. In

Wheatley's opinion, cognitive dissonance might make teachers passive and find them avoiding certain tasks, while over efficacy might mean teachers do not see the need to learn, and this has negative implication as teachers should ideally learn and develop through their careers. Teachers who feel less efficacious in relation to any particular task may be more willing to examine their own practices (Wheatley, 2005 in Wyatt, 2013). Teacher self-efficacy is an integral part of the success that a teacher will have in the areas of instructional, classroom management and efficacy for student engagement (Hoy, 2000 in Ball, 2010). Shaughnessy (2004) is of the opinion that teachers who have a high sense of efficacy and carry this out in praxis tend to have students who are likely to learn.

Bandura (1997 in Wyatt, 2013) opines that when it comes to self-efficacy, teachers' lack of self-awareness might give rise to statements that might not actually fit what they say. '... it might seem deeply problematic if there is a serious lack of fit between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and knowledge/skills' (Wyatt, 2015, p. 118). The author says it is important to establish relevant criteria to assess the apparent degree of fit of reported teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teacher knowledge.

Grade 8 teachers are confident of their self-efficacy in functioning in English. A few teachers have some reservations about their speaking English and feel that students appear more comfortable, but on closer scrutiny, they realise students are not that strong in spoken English after all. The others are clear that students are not that strong and they themselves are well-equipped. For the teachers who mentioned lack of self-efficacy in speaking English, this may be the reason for incongruence between belief in the efficacy of TT and not putting it into practise fully.

To all intents and purposes, most grade 8 teachers do not lack self-efficacy. One can debate the kind of self-efficacy which the teachers say they have. It appears to be in their ability to speak the language/communicate in English in the classroom, e.g. maintaining a dialogue. A combination of this language competence and their TC about TS has an impact on their praxis: teachers 'do speaking' actively through a set of exercises, which they deem to be TS and which are modelled from the textbook and materials used.

They are therefore concerned with increasing the amount of time they speak English, want students to speak more English in class, give more feedback for learning when students make a presentation, and make it clear that being subjects of my research has made them reflect on their praxis. This self-awareness may promote their accessing the how of TS informally,

but this is not sufficient as input of CK/PCK about TS has a crucial role in ensuring efficacy in TS, and speaking must be taught systematically and actively (Goh & Burns, 2012). It would be true to say that pre-reform teachers are not aware of their lacking CK/PCK in TS, and if post-reform teachers are aware, their newcomer status in the profession has not allowed for procedural knowledge to come into play. In addition, the role as new teachers may have diminished the new teachers' wish to implement and try out new teaching approaches. Borg (2006 in Wyatt, 2016, p. 122) clearly states that case studies of teaching expertise suggest that PCK is transformation of (teacher) 'knowledge of the subject matter into a form which makes it amenable to teaching and learning.' Wyatt (2016) adds that the knowledge possessed by teachers is directly proportional to experience, so novice teachers cannot have well-developed knowledge.

This section has illustrated the reasons behind congruence and incongruence, and the next section explores the presence of the 'state of the art' in TS, i.e. the research based knowledge of TS, in grade 8 praxis.

## **5.7 Reflection of 'state of the art' in grade 8 praxis**

In identifying aspects of the 'state of the art', the literature review has demonstrated that TS is lagging behind other skills in EFL teaching, with little significant progress from Burns (1998) to the Goh and Burns' (2012) 'Teaching-speaking cycle'.

### **5.7.1 The 'Teaching-Speaking cycle' in context of grade 8 praxis**

The Goh and Burns' TS cycle (2012) presented in 3.4.3 uses 'a holistic approach', which to reiterate, is relevant in two ways: it subsumes other methods of TS and combines approaches to offer a concrete model for TS. This can only add to its appeal for non-native English teachers and make it accessible for use.

The task of the teacher is to arrive at a combination of subject matter, pedagogy, appropriate content and complexity of context in an integrated fashion to create effective learning opportunities. To teach TS explicitly, teachers must be equipped with content knowledge of TS and pedagogical knowledge of how to teach speaking, which appears to be missing in

grade 8 teachers know how. TS is no easy task, and the model suggested may go some way towards mitigating non-native English teacher dilemma in TS in EFL in The Faroe Islands.

The TS cycle model incorporates the very critical facet of self-regulation through making students pro-active learners with self-awareness of their own learning, which is rarely, if at all, reflected in the grade 8 praxis reported in the results. In conjunction with this, the critical elements of teacher input and feedback which see teachers playing a decisive and active role in TS is not fully exploited in the grade 8 praxis.

The situation explicated in 5.4.1.3, where pre-reform grade 8 teachers have no formal input of the theory of teaching speaking, and the two post-reform teachers may not have had the time or inclination to put into praxis their understanding of TS, may make it seem baseless to look for a reflection of current TS strategies in the Faroese EFL classroom. But, while teachers are clear that they do not teach speaking explicitly, they say they do so implicitly. There are traces of the various theories integrated into the model of the ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’ in the chequered approach of grade 8 TS in EFL.

These appear in some limited sense through some activities affording glimpses of representation of the following stages:

- Stage 2 in the vocabulary input by teachers in class
- Stage 3 in the fluency through group work focus
- Stage 4 in the focus on pronunciation as part of fluency
- Stage 7 in the limited feedback and error correction.

Evidently, this reinforces the conclusion that teachers have an eclectic, diffused approach to TS with primary emphasis on ‘doing speaking’.

## **5.8 The influence of the case study framework**

The case study framework must have some kind of bearing on the research context and thereby the findings. One must acknowledge that observer paradox cannot be eliminated in field classroom research. I believe the following instances indicate this impact. Teachers 1 and 2 chose students who were good at English for reading aloud and were fluent for display question activities. Whether this is a result of ‘observer paradox’ or whether these students

in general are peer role models for their classmates is not clear as teachers 1 and 2 specified that the students who performed that day were ‘good in English’. This is presumably a natural reaction in wanting to showcase the best aspect of the class and the focus on competent student performance of activities contributes to this impression.

Teacher 5 mentioned he did speak a bit more of English in my observation sessions. While teacher 7 mentioned in the interview that he did not speak a lot of English in class, in my observations, he did speak a lot of English; in fact, there was only a smattering of Faroese to be heard. These incidents demonstrate that researcher presence does have a bearing on teacher action under observations. The catalytic role of the researcher in engendering critical self-reflection appears to have paid some dividends to the teacher participants in this study, which may be a small step towards acquiring a working knowledge of TS.

## **5.9 Summary of the chapter**

The chapter has delineated the main findings and placed them in the context of the major themes in the study. It appears that grade 8 teachers use a mixture of teacher-centred and learner-centred activities, but do not fully exploit the potential of either in TS. Their ‘doing speaking’ only fulfils the presentation mentioned in the curriculum with ‘talk as transaction’ dominating classroom interaction. In the ‘Teaching-speaking cycle’, glimpses of phases 2, 3, 5 and 7 are present in varying degrees, but not fully utilised or used in conjunction with the rest of the phases to offer a cogent approach or TS strategy.

As has been already established, lack of PCK, ‘apprenticeship of observation’, reliance on a textbook to fulfil learning outcomes in the curriculum, lower priority given to speaking and examination backwash all contribute to an eclectic, implicit and incidental approach to TS, which may affect student learning outcomes in speaking English in grade 8. Moreover, the apparent lack of in-service training is likely to be a decisive factor in the lack of integration of research based knowledge of TS in the grade 8 praxis studied.

In the next chapter, conclusions will be drawn, using the findings and discussions as the basis for making recommendations. This may allow ‘planes to land’ to use the metaphor from previous chapters in tune with the current ethos of TC research in EFL teaching, which calls for TC research to find its value in grassroots change in pedagogy. Limitations in my study and any modifications I may wish to make if I were to conduct such a study again will

be given. Finally, the possible contribution of my dissertation to case study, TC and TS research will be explored.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusions and implications for teacher education**

The aim of the case study was to elicit and analyse grade 8 teachers' cognition (TC) about teaching speaking (TS) in English as a foreign language (EFL). The objectives were to study how their cognition impacts TS and the reasons for congruence or incongruence between TC and TS. Finally, an attempt was made to trace the presence of 'state of the art' in TS within grade 8 praxis.

To this end, the following research questions were designed to elicit answers and provide the necessary focus to fulfil the purpose of my case study.

- What is the grade 8 teachers' TC about teaching speaking in EFL?
- How do the teachers teach speaking in EFL?
- How does their TC impact TS?
- How is 'state of the art' in TS reflected in grade 8 Faroese classes?

Semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis were used to elicit relevant data as the basis for analysis and interpretation. The seven case studies yielded 'thick description' and provided rich contextual information, which were analysed on the basis of the core issues in TC, TS and TC about TS.

### **6.1 Overview of findings**

To arrive at a cogent picture of the findings of this case study to allow for further discussion, it would be appropriate to let the research questions dictate their classification as follows:

#### **6.1.1 Grade 8 TC about TS in EFL**

The cognition of grade 8 teachers reflects the 'baggage' of the 'apprenticeship of observation' of their own experiences as learners. Grade 8 teachers follow a pattern of teaching speaking that is a projection of their individual experiences in the school

environment from grade 4 (grade 5 prior to 2008) to level A of the higher secondary education. Added to this, they believe that in using a textbook designed for speaking, they fulfil the demands of the curriculum and are, therefore, teaching speaking.

The *Pit Stop* textbooks have been given the stamp of formal approval and have become a bonafide way of TS as *Pit Stop 8* is specifically designed for this skill. The key strength of this book lies in its aim to raise the metacognitive awareness of students for learning, peer- and ipsative assessment, and this is not fully developed by the teachers. The activities of discussion and presentation are utilised in a limited manner resulting in their becoming IRF exchanges - student group discussion in L1 in the former or reading aloud in the latter. The communicative competence that speaking involves and the curriculum demands are reflected in an implicit fashion in grade 8 TS.

The teachers believe in their self-efficacy in teaching English, and in their own English speaking ability. This has an impact on their interest in the role of teacher talk (TT) in the classroom as both role models and sources of input for students. Feedback is an idiosyncratic mix of focus on form and meaning, and is used sporadically. It is seldom formative feedback, i.e. feedback in support of the learning process, and more often summative feedback of learning, i.e. assessing achievement.

The teachers believe that TS should be through reading, writing and listening. They give preference to fluency over accuracy, believe in ‘meaningful input’ (echoes of Krashen’s ‘comprehensible input’) for TS as teacher talk, which will help students acquire language. They use multimodal texts in the classroom and assume that students will absorb speaking from exposure to English through social media, online entertainment and gaming in a possible reflection of the natural approach to language acquisition. Grammar teaching indicates affiliations to the GT method rather than functional grammar in context.

### **6.1.2 Congruence or incongruence in the impact of TC on TS**

TC and teaching language studies reflect both congruence and incongruence in varying degrees. Grade 8 teacher praxis appears to have a one-to-one correspondence between their TC and their TS praxis. The reasons for this become evident when analysing their approach to TS, which in being influenced by the ‘apprenticeship of observation’, is conducted through reading aloud by teachers or students, comprehension and grammar exercises in the

initiation-response-feedback (IRF) mode, dictation, student speak in pairs/group work, and presentations followed by IRF, which seldom leads to discussion. This strongly resonates in the questionnaire findings used to underpin source and method triangulation.

The absence of formal input for SLA and knowledge of EFL approaches for grade 8 teachers can be attributed to the course content for TE pre-reform. It has shaped what the pre-reform teachers define as TS. This is the reason for the lack of availability of content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) for TS among grade 8 teachers. The exceptions are the two teachers from the post-reform period, who in their very short teaching careers reflect knowledge of SLA and EFL concepts, but as research indicates, may not have had the time to incorporate them in their teaching or their roles as new teachers makes them cautious of pushing new ideas. As the previous chapter explicates, this is either because of the new teacher syndrome, which finds classroom management issues dominate and set priorities, or the declarative - procedural knowledge dynamic as mentioned in 5.5. For all the teachers, 'the apprenticeship of observation' has offered a teaching toolkit for TS and in identifying it as TS and using it, the near complete congruence between TC and TS cannot come as a surprise.

Incongruence is reflected in error correction and student speak (SS). The culture of using error-correction as a learning tool is subsumed by the belief of teachers that it may negatively impact student speak (SS), which post-reform teachers feel is 'meaningful output' / 'learning by doing', as indicated in the interviews.

While teachers enjoy self-efficacy in their knowledge of English and ability for teaching, and believe in the significance of SS for student learning in EFL, the lack of an explicit, structured approach to TS (given the lack of CK and PCK), does not seem to allow for an overt practice of this belief leading to a predominance of 'talk as transaction' and not 'talk as interaction' with 'talk as performance' being reduced to reading aloud.

The teachers' approach to TS is significantly affected by examination backwash as they distinctly indicate in the interviews. The choice of using presentations can be attributed to either this examination requirement factor or textbook reliance, rather than any conscious aim to address the learning outcome, 'making presentations'. Teachers make this clear in their views on their lack of adherence to the requirements of the curriculum or their lack of conviction about the curriculum as expressed in the interviews.

### **6.1.3 Reflection of TS ‘state of the art’ in grade 8 praxis**

The development of TS in EFL teaching literature can be broadly encapsulated using terms as indirect and direct approaches, implicit versus explicit approach, and top-down or bottom-up. The literature review underlines that research in TS has not made any significant progress since the work of Burns (1998), and the ‘state of the art’ which I see as relevant for my study is the TS cycle (Goh & Burns, 2012), which is a metamodel as detailed in chapter 3.

TS in grade 8 can be described as an implicit, eclectic approach, demonstrating the presence of some glimpses of activities of three of the phases in the TS cycle, i.e. vocabulary input by teachers in class, facilitating fluency through group work focus, the focus on pronunciation as part of fluency and the limited feedback and error correction.

If ‘state of the art’ is, in some form, a possible reflection of ‘best practice’ in teaching speaking in EFL, and the TS model offers a persuasive basis for allowing for informed teaching of the speaking skill, how then should its lack of reflection in grade 8 TS be interpreted?

Currently, grade 8 teachers are ‘doing teaching’ and focusing on ‘talk as transaction’ and ‘talk as performance’ and with no focus on ‘talk as interaction’. The incidental reliance on activities (mentioned in 5.7.1), which are echoed in the TS cycle, without being a part of a specific and concrete strategic approach to TS, can be attributed to the following factors: ‘apprenticeship of observation’, an absence of PCK of TS, and lack of formal professional development opportunities for teachers. There is no clear teaching strategy for EFL speaking, but opportunities given for SS, and this is what TS literature identifies as ‘doing speaking’ and not ‘teaching speaking’.

The pre-reform teachers cannot be aware of the ‘state of the art’. The post-reform teachers focus on classroom management first and need time for declarative knowledge to shape their procedural knowledge, before any awareness of the ‘how’ of TS can permeate their teaching, which may then open avenues for the ‘state of the art’.

## 6.2 Pedagogical implications

This study has pedagogical implications for teacher education and teacher professional development in The Faroe Islands. To focus attention on the TS environment that the case studies have identified, the pedagogical implications become significant in the context of lack of CK and PCK. As Brown (2000 in Oberlie, 2003, p. 201) states, a teaching strategy provides ‘theoretical rationale that underlies everything a teacher does in the classroom’ and ‘draws on (...) issues, findings, conclusions, and principles of language learning and teaching.’ This sets the stage for viewing the research findings in my case study in the light of pedagogical implications.

Grade 8 teachers appear to have a core belief in the kind of environment they create, which has its prime focus on students feeling motivated to speak English in a non-threatening, safe and secure environment. While this is clearly a strength and of crucial importance, the lack of TS PCK prevents praxis that may directly stimulate student learning of speaking.

The teachers strongly indicate a firm belief in reducing student anxiety and empowering student classroom performance and practise this religiously. This belief could be viewed as a core belief, which impacts praxis and results in incongruence in other areas, in relation to e.g. error correction, making presentations as ‘talk as performance’ and feedback.

With regard to feedback on speaking, grade 8 teachers seldom use feedback on form (grammatical issues) and content (comprehension issues) for learning, i.e. where feedback is seen as formative and contributes to learning, and appear to use it predominantly of learning, where feedback is summative and student performance is held to some benchmark. This could be because feedback strategies are part of the interactive decision category in the practice of interactive thinking, i.e. thinking and acting on the spot *in situ* (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). These feedback strategies may be used effectively if teachers have knowledge of the purpose of error correction and feedback as distinct strategies for teaching and learning beyond their immediate application. This lack of PCK may inhibit the teachers’ conscious use of feedback for learning.

Error correction can be used in a cogent fashion while learners are using the language to communicate to help them notice their mistakes. Doughty (2001 in Loewen, 2007) argues that drawing learners’ attention to the connection between language form and meaning should be done when the students need the form to convey the meaning they intend. Grade

8 teachers exhibit this kind of error correction occasionally, but appear not to use other opportunities for explicit teaching hampered by the belief that it inhibits learners. Therefore, teachers minimise the possible contribution of error correction to learning speaking, presumably reflecting the deficiency of PCK.

The issue of self-efficacy must take the stage in any discussion on PCK. Teachers' strategic choices and their successes are related to teachers' knowledge base and understanding of the options available to deal with the various issues, which could be said to relate to their perceived self-efficacy. But, without PCK, the advantage of teacher self-efficacy is undermined making it difficult to incorporate new and informed ways of teaching speaking.

This combination of lack of PCK and little or no opportunity for professional development for grade 8 teachers poses complex challenges to engendering effective teaching of speaking in EFL. Therefore, the commitment by teacher education to teaching pre- and in-service teachers to address PCK is crucial. This investment would be a valuable contribution to EFL teaching as a whole and not just TS.

In light of the role of self-efficacy detailed in 3.10.2.2, the self-efficacy beliefs of grade 8 teachers (based on their own ability to speak the language comfortably in class) might underpin the grounds for their ability to use teacher talk as possible 'meaningful input', but offers less of a basis for discussing teachers' self-efficacy in TS in EFL. Self-efficacy promotes teacher confidence and the teachers in the study do have confidence in teaching what they view as speaking. This is understandable in the context of the justifiable lack of PCK.

### **6.3 Implications for language teacher cognition research**

My case study confirms rather than contributes new knowledge to the theories of TC, TS and TC about TS. It highlights how TC is affected by the 'apprenticeship of observation'. It illustrates that there is uniformity and concurrence between TC and TS in grade 8, which is true to research in the field. While the challenging factors for non-native English (NNE) teachers in EFL speaking are not unique to The Faroe Islands, the uniformity of perceptions of the interpretation of what TS is might be significant to the field. It is perhaps a reflection of the entrenched Grammar Translation Method (GT) in EFL teaching at all school levels in The Faroes and pre-reform teacher education, which contributes to this perception.

The predominance of the GT method appears to be more prevalent in the Faroese schools than other non-native English environments. In the Middle East and South Asia at least, research indicates that a proactive approach to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has made inroads. There is mention in EFL literature of challenges this poses to teachers in terms of weak or strong CLT, or discussions about if CLT is being used at all. No such discussion appears to be taking place in EFL teaching in the Faroese schools, where it is GT in the main with elements of CLT dictated less by curriculum demands and more by a prescribed textbook and examination backwash. This is not unique to the Islands and underpins that teachers need specific training in TS. When it comes to lack of PCK, my study raises the issue that pre-reform teacher education (TE) has had a defining role in TC about TS by not providing pre-service EFL teachers access to PCK or cognitive apprenticeship to promote praxis towards self-reflective and critical learning.

No research has been conducted on TC and EFL teaching in general or TS specifically in The Faroe Islands regarding grades 1-10. My case study could lay claim to breaking new ground in this limited sense.

Given that 14 (7 + 7) teachers out of a possible 44 grade 8 teachers participated in the study (31.8%), and many of them teach grade 9 as well, the picture of grade 8 TS appears representative of TS. The non-participant teachers match my sample of teachers in terms of national, socio-cultural, educational background and teaching approaches, which is grounds for some confidence that my cases may offer a fairly reliable representation of TS in The Faroe Islands. In providing 'rich description' set *in situ*, the study provides the context, which is the backbone of any case study making it valid and transferable to not just other grade 8 contexts, but also other EFL grades in the Islands. My case study findings share similarities with other EFL contexts outside The Faroe Islands (Chen & Goh, 2011; 2014), so my study might have significance for TS in other EFL environments.

Research into EFL teaching and teacher cognition as indicated in the literature review exhibits a shortage of studies in teaching writing, reading and listening because grammar teaching studies tend to dominate in this field. Therefore, my study can offer a platform to explore the other skills and create an awareness of the importance of the role of TC and PCK in shaping teaching.

## 6.4 Implications for language teacher education

In keeping with the contemporary ethos that TC research should inform, influence and impact teaching at the grassroots level, i.e. planes must land, teacher education comes under scrutiny as the means to influence teachers and teaching. I wish to emphasise that considerably more research is required before one can speak of establishing an effective pedagogical approach that teacher education (TE) in The Faroe Islands could take. Nevertheless, I explore some fundamental issues that may be of relevance.

The Department of Education (NÁD), since its reform in 2008, has been offering SLA and EFL teaching as an elective for year three and four students in TE since 2011. This venture has produced roughly 40 pre-service English teachers since. This may (as TC literature repeatedly validates when it speaks of informed praxis) take time before it filters through to teaching in the classroom and benefit the learners. It may be valid for TE to concentrate on making the implicit ‘apprenticeship of observation’ explicit to encourage teachers to reflect on their experiential knowledge of TS. This could be the platform for TE to proactively engender metacognitive awareness of TS with a view to facilitating TS actively and strategically.

Secondly, professional development for pre-reform in-service teachers, who have not been given formal PCK input, is a priority. To this end, school heads in conjunction with individual teachers and The Ministry of Education (MMR) could draw up a plan for professional development in EFL. Currently, there are no such courses for in-service teachers in EFL, and NÁD could fill this gap by designing courses fit for purpose.

Teachers are not passive professionals; they should and do seek self-development opportunities. The English teachers in the Faroese schools would like to provide input to MMR about the kind of professional scaffolding they need to keep them motivated, up to date and qualified. They have made it clear that they would like a forum for English teachers, which would be a knowledge bank, and offer opportunities for cooperation.

Here, an online course like the Speakapps.eu (Appel, Mhichíl, Jager & Prizel-Kania, 2014), which I took while doing my PhD, may well provide the scope for cooperation amongst teachers for TS. It provides on-line solutions, which help teachers to teach speaking and students to acquire speaking skills in pair or group interaction, while actively involving

teachers in creating their own tasks. These resources created by teachers can be shared in an open forum for the benefit of other EFL teachers.

Currently, teachers have a 'subject day', where the Courses department (Nám) provides a one-day workshop to present teaching materials and allow for teachers of grade 1-10 to discuss their professional needs. A workshop too is part of this day, where I've been asked to provide insight into various relevant issues - 'TC and teaching grammar' was a topic covered in the first session in January, 2017 and the next session with another topic based on teachers' requests will be in April, 2018. NÁM hopes to have this day as an annual fixture.

In the discussion session, all 16 participants mentioned that they had received no courses in teaching English since their teacher education, and several of them stated that they were representing the views of all their English-teaching colleagues in their schools who felt the same. Providing funding and opportunities for teacher development becomes significant in this context.

Thirdly, the concept of 'cognitive apprenticeship' becomes relevant and pivotal in this context. In short, in the words of Collins *et al.* (1989, p. 456 in Dennen, 2004) it is 'learning-through-guided-experience on cognitive and metacognitive, rather than physical skills and processes.' This would entail that pre-service teachers and new in-service teachers have mentors who are able to both model good and acceptable praxis and simultaneously encourage self-reflexive contemplation and discussion to enable teachers to contemplate their teaching and themselves as teaching professionals.

The authors identify the concepts of 'situatedness' and 'legitimate peripheral participation' as fundamental to 'cognitive apprenticeship'. According to the authors, situated learning is fostered through active participation in an authentic setting, where engaging with the actual environment provides relevant, accessible learning that can be transferred. The authors call for authentic contexts to be the fulcrum of situatedness, with their underlying cultural, historical, and institutional ethos. Legitimate peripheral participation (where an individual enters a school environment as an outsider, but works gradually towards participating completely, for example, a practicum) also engenders learning in cognitive apprenticeship as a natural process.

This kind of cognitive apprenticeship may be useful and possible, when teachers have acquired PCK in EFL teaching as a whole through formal education combined with professional training to create awareness and help implement a suitable EFL approach for

their students. Currently, pre-service teachers have a limited practicum period, and when they do enter the school environment, they may not be getting sufficient input for TS in EFL given the current situation.

Wyatt and Borg (2011) give comprehensive guidelines to facilitate in-service teacher development which are applicable to the Faroese context. They suggest that teacher education must be 'distributed over time rather than intensively' (p. 249) while building in the component of action research, proactive development of teachers through organisational and self-commitment, and supportive mentoring and tutoring, which do sound viable in the context of my study.

All three levels of the educational organisation - the strategic, tactical and operational levels - must work in conjunction with mutual respect for top-down and grassroots contribution towards creating a dynamic learning culture among teachers, which can inspire and facilitate teaching and learning, not just in TS, but in all aspects of EFL. I hasten to add that this would be a complex undertaking, and I do not underestimate the challenges involved. The status quo does indicate that some action is required to empower teaching.

## **6.5 Limitations**

Apart from the limitations inherent in the case study approach, which have been elucidated in the methodology chapter, the interviews have provided verbal data, which the research community acknowledges has weaknesses. The data may not always be fully reliable as it depends on interviewer skill in asking questions and the challenge for the interviewees to express their thoughts and ideas.

If I were to redo anything, it would be that I would have conducted a quantitative study of all teachers of English from grade 4 to 9. Using the feedback, I would have chosen representative samples, and atypical samples to conduct a qualitative case study, which might have provided a greater variety in the findings. In my study, teachers show insignificant individual variations, and confirm general EFL trends in TS. If I had had some unique cases, these may have offered different perspectives. Stake contends, "the objective of the case study is not to represent the world, but to represent the case" (Stake, 2000, p. 245). In this sense, I hope I've done justice in presenting my cases fully.

In reality, interviewees can verbalise only thoughts and processes of which they are consciously aware, thereby requiring automatic processes outside of conscious awareness be elicited by other means. Interviewees might try to surmise the interviewer's views and respond with what they think the interviewer wants or is the socially desirable response to give (Collins, Shattell & Thomas, 2005). Self-presentation, i.e. creating and presenting an image of oneself, might also affect verbal data based on the image of self, which the participant might wish to provide, colouring what is being articulated of knowledge and processes.

As highlighted in 2.9, the extent of 'shared understanding' between me as researcher and the teacher participants might also have impacted the study. During interview transcription, I noticed that I allow the interviewees a lot of time for ruminations, and at other times appear eager to get answers and move on too quickly to the next issue. I tried to mitigate this by doing better at the following interviews and by retracing issues. But, the descriptions I received as teachers' definition of TS and activities that comprise TS and the effect of TC do not appear to have been corrupted by the above-mentioned factors as there was consistency across the spectrum of teachers.

Observations might have been marred by the 'observer paradox' which may have skewed the data, not just in the activities identified or observed as TS, but in other ways, which might have escaped my notice. Given that teachers, students and learning materials form the basis of teaching and learning, the non-inclusion of students may seem to be a weakness, but as the aim was to identify TC about TS, I contend that students were not key. Perhaps, a few more observations of each teacher over a longer period of time might have offered greater insight into TC about TS.

## **6.6 Project impact**

Currently, there is no existing research on teacher cognition (TC) and teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) in The Faroe Islands. This project may prove useful in understanding teacher cognition and teacher behaviour in English specifically, but offers insight into other foreign languages as well. Another area where this could be key is Faroese as a second language, which is yet to be implemented, and the current immigrant trends in Faroese society create a need for it.

The Department of Education (NÁD) at the University is constantly trying to recreate itself and this project might provide a valuable insight into foreign language pedagogy that can be used to teach both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. The current initiative by the government to give importance to English as lingua franca contributes to the relevance of this project.

## **6.7 Future research implications**

Teacher cognition research on teaching speaking in EFL is an area that is yet to attract the attention it deserves, and this makes this study relevant and useful for other grade levels. As a viable alternative, one could choose two English teachers, each from grades 7-9, to compare and contrast the TS approach with regard to specific TS items like pronunciation, display questions, vocabulary, or the teaching of coping strategies. An exciting possibility would be to try this study at the higher secondary level to see if results prove to be different. A series of courses on teaching speaking could be organised for English teachers from the entry level of English to middle school, i.e. grades 4-6 to see if such an intervention bears any fruit in the successive years of their teaching. Students could be included in the study to see if foreign language anxiety is reduced over the years. Such a longitudinal study may yield valuable findings to contribute to teacher cognition about teaching speaking in English as a foreign language.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1. Participant profile form

Name:

Age /Sex:

Qualification:

Teacher: Y/N\*

English as elective in Teacher Education: Y/N

Graduated prior to 2008: Y/N

Years of teaching English:

Studied English abroad: Y/N

Stayed in English speaking country: Y/N

Nationality: Faroese/ From an English-speaking country

*\* Sometimes, when there is a shortage of teachers, 'non-teachers' fill in as substitutes — hence this question.*

## **Appendix 2. Letter of consent**

Your willingness to participate in this research is much appreciated. Below is a 1.) A description of the research and b.) A consent form. I would be much obliged if this form can be signed, scanned and emailed to me at [kalpanav@setur.fo](mailto:kalpanav@setur.fo) by January 15, 2015. Thank you very much. This document will be included in the appendix in the PhD dissertation.

### **About the research project**

The study is my PhD project conducted jointly under the aegis of The University of The Faroe Islands and The University of Aarhus. The supervisors are Associate Professor Susana Silvia Fernández from the Department of Aesthetics and Communication from The University of Aarhus and Professor Birgit Henriksen from Department of English, Germanic and Romance Studies at The University of Copenhagen.

The study will involve seven grade 8 classes in The Faroe Islands, and your class is one of these. The study will focus on the language teachers' personal beliefs regarding teaching speaking in English as a foreign language and their praxis.

This involves my conducting between 3-4 interviews with you plus observing and recording your teaching in the classroom for six sessions. The purpose of this study is to gain understanding of teachers' cognition and how it shapes their teaching praxis. This research it is hoped would offer academic inspiration to help teacher educators, teachers, school administrators, and researchers to better comprehend the reasons for teaching as teachers do.

### **Confidentiality**

All information collected will be confidential and will be used for research purposes only. Your identity will be anonymous and therefore only known to the researcher. This anonymity will also be preserved whenever data from this study are published.

The data will be stored in a computer, and only the researcher will have access to it. It will be used as appropriate for purpose. The researcher will not discuss any aspect of your teaching with any administrators, supervisors, or other teachers from your school or elsewhere.

### **Risks and Benefits**

There are no risks associated with participation in this research. It may well be that the discussions about your teaching during the interviews may help you reflect on your teaching. A summary of the findings will be available to you.

### **Your Participation**

Participating in this study is strictly voluntary. If at any point, you change your mind, and no longer want to participate, you can tell me. If you have any questions about the research, you can contact me at: kalpanav@setur.fo or +298 234588

**Consent:** I hereby consent to participating in this research for academic purposes.

Date:

Signature:

### Appendix 3. a. Grade 8 English classroom observation form- preliminary

Teacher: xxx	School: xxx	Date of Observation:	Time:
Researcher: Kalpana Vijayarathan			
Purpose: To ascertain aspects of teaching speaking in grade 8 English class			
	Y	N	Comments
1. Incidence of speaking in the classroom:			
Mainly monologic			
Mainly dialogic			
2. Choice of Learning Materials			
Have a clear speaking proficiency purpose			
Variety in texts used for teaching speaking			
3. Teacher Instructions			
In mother tongue (MT)			
In English			
Mixture of MT & Eng.			
4. Teacher Interaction/feedback			
In mother tongue			
In English			
Mixture of MT & Eng.			
5. Incidence of 'Transactional Teacher speak' (Input) in English			
Beginning of class			
Middle			
End			
Almost always			
Sometimes			
Almost never			
6. Enhancing Student participation (Output)			
Q & A to elicit 'student speak'			
Error correction			
Role play			
Students speak independently			

Students participate using MT			
Students participate using Eng.			
Students participate using MT & Eng.			
Interact with classmates using MT			
Interact with classmates using Eng.			
Interact with classmates using MT & Eng.			
7. Aspects of teaching speaking/activities			
Grammar			
Vocabulary			
Pronunciation/Intonation			
Discourse			
8. Overall impression			
Explicit teaching of speaking			
Implicit in planned activity			

**Appendix 3. b.1. Regular classroom observation form**

<b>Time</b>	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>Student</b>	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Texts</b>

**Appendix 3. b.2. Findings summarised**

<b>Class:</b>	<b>Materials:</b>		<b>Speaking activities:</b>
<b>Time in class:</b>	Teacher speak:		Pronunciation/intonation Vocabulary Discussion Role play Presentation
	Mono	Dialogic	Student speak

#### **Appendix 4. Semi-structured interview questions to elicit TC on TS in EFL**

1. What are your views on the EFL curriculum for the speaking skill in grade 8?
2. How does it represent what you think is important about teaching spoken English?
3. In your opinion, how should the speaking skill be taught in the classroom?
4. Do you teach speaking in the classroom implicitly or explicitly? How do you go about teaching implicitly/explicitly or both?
5. What kind of activities do you use in teaching speaking? Why do you use these?
6. How were you taught English speaking as a school/university student?
7. How were you taught English speaking as a teacher trainee?
8. Is it important for your students to speak English? Why/why not?
9. How would you describe your role in the classroom as an EFL teacher?
10. How much time in your classroom is spent on you talking, you think?
11. How much English do you speak in the classroom? (Follow up with reasons)
12. How do you provide opportunities for your students to speak English in the classroom?
13. How do you motivate your students to speak English in the classroom?
14. Do you think that you focus on fluency or grammatical correctness in teaching speaking? Could you give me your reasons why?
15. How do you give feedback for speaking activities? If no feedback, why?
16. Do you feel that errors must be corrected immediately? How do you practise this in the classroom?
17. What does MMR curriculum demand in the teaching of English?
18. In what way does your teaching of speaking relate to the demands of the MMR curriculum?
19. Do students enjoy speaking English in class? Why?
20. Which aspect of teaching is most important, you think?
21. How do you encourage students to function in English outside the classroom?
22. As a non-native speaker, can you comment on any special challenges you may face as an EFL teacher?
23. In your opinion, are students more comfortable speaking English than teachers? Why is this?
24. Would you like to add anything which you think is relevant or you feel that I didn't give you the opportunity to explore?

## Appendix 5. Email confirming accuracy of translation

**Kalpana Vijayarathan**

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**From:** [REDACTED]  
**Sent:** 20. apríl 2015 17:34  
**To:** Kalpana Vijayarathan  
**Subject:** Re: Interview addendum

Dear Kalpana,

Your written piece of the interview states accurately, what I said to you.

[REDACTED]

Best wishes,

[REDACTED]

Sendt fra FirstClass med min iPad

## Appendix 6. Questionnaire - Teaching speaking in Grade 8 EFL

**Part 1** Please choose one of the options for each statement

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
1	I spend time teaching speaking skills in my English class.				
2	When students make mistakes in speaking English, I correct them immediately.				
3	I use specific activities to improve English speaking in class.				
4	I have sufficient basis for giving oral English marks at year end.				
5	I encourage students to read and listen to English outside school hours.				
6	I speak English in my class.				
7	I ensure that students speak English in class.				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8	I think that speaking is a difficult skill to teach.				
9	I would like my students to speak English in class even if they make mistakes.				
10	I feel I'm confident and competent at speaking English in class.				
11	Students speaking fluently is more important than speaking correctly.				
12	Spoken English proficiency is just as important as the written one.				

Please feel free to answer Part 2 in Faroese. You may write below each question.

### Part 2

<b>1</b>	<b>The EFL curriculum for grade 8 (námsætlan between grades 7 &amp; 9) indicates a communicative competence perspective, how do you incorporate this in your teaching?</b>
<b>2</b>	In your opinion, how should the speaking skill be taught in the classroom? What kind of activities do you use in teaching speaking? Why do you use these?
<b>3</b>	How do you provide opportunities for your students to speak English in the classroom? Is it important for your students to speak English? Why/why not?
<b>4</b>	Do you think that you focus on fluency or grammatical correctness in teaching speaking? Could you give me your reasons why?
<b>5</b>	In what way does your teaching of speaking relate to the demands of the MMR curriculum

Any other comments:

### Appendix 7.a. Codes & categories for interview & questionnaire data analysis

TC as learner experience/ as professional experience	<i>Learner experience</i> <i>Professional experience</i> <i>Practicum experience</i>	
TC about teacher speaking English in the classroom	<i>“Meaningful input”</i> <i>Role model</i> <i>“Forced output”</i>	
TC about metacognitive focus in TS	<i>Learning to learn from teacher</i> <i>Learning to learn from peer</i>	
TC about teacher self efficacy	<i>NNS focus on accent</i> <i>NNS focus on ability</i>	
TC about role of student speak/teacher talk	<i>Student speak-Faroese or English</i> <i>Monologic/dialogic</i> <i>Peer/ teacher</i> <i>Teacher talk-Faroese or English</i> <i>Monologic/dialogic/IRF/</i>	
TC about speaking not imp as other skills	<i>Writing over speaking</i> <i>EFL speaking artificial</i>	
TC about exam teaching of TS	<i>Exam barrier to TS</i> <i>Exam focused teaching</i>	
TC about role of feedback-error correction	<i>Why feedback/why no feedback</i> <i>Formative/summative</i> <i>Why error correction/ why no error correction</i>	
TC about TS activities in the classroom	<i>Kinds of activities</i> <i>Reasons for activities</i>	
TC about student attitudes to English & speaking English	<i>Students like or dislike English</i> <i>Students like or dislike speaking</i> <i>Easy or not to get students speaking English</i>	

**Appendix 7.b.1. Codes & categories for observation data analysis:Talk in classroom**

<b>Kinds of Talk</b>	<b>Skills involved</b>	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Teaching</b>	<b>Codes</b>
<p><b>Talk as interaction</b> Focus on speaker Conversation-interactive Social function-collaborative</p>	<p>Opening and closing conversations, Choosing topics, Making small-talk, Joking, Recounting personal incidents and experiences, Turn-taking, Using adjacency pairs, Interrupting, Reacting to others, Using an appropriate style of speaking.</p>	<p>Chatting among friends, speaking to a teacher, cracking jokes.</p>	<p>Naturalistic dialogs: opening and closing conversations, making small talk, recounting personal incidents &amp; experiences, and reacting to what others say. Initiate interactions with a something that both participants have knowledge of. The comment should elicit agreement, since agreement is face-preserving and non-threatening.</p>	<p><i>Interaction</i></p>
<p><b>Talk as transaction</b> Focus on message, meaning &amp; comprehensibility</p>	<p>Explaining a need or intention, describing something, asking questions, asking for clarification, confirming information, justifying an opinion, making suggestions, clarifying understanding, making comparisons, agreeing and disagreeing.</p>	<p>Classroom group discussions, problem solving activity, frequent questions, repetitions, comprehension checks.</p>	<p>Activities Clarification, brainstorming, and simulations. Language accuracy for transactional use of language: 1. Pre-teaching certain linguistic forms for task completion. 2. Reducing complexity of task. 3. Giving adequate time to plan task. 4. By repeated performance of the task.</p>	<p><i>Transaction</i></p>
<p><b>Talk as performance</b> Focus on form &amp; accuracy</p>	<p>Using an appropriate form, presenting information in an appropriate sequence, maintaining audience engagement, using correct pronunciation and grammar, creating an effect on the audience, using appropriate vocabulary, using an appropriate opening and closing.</p>	<p>Classroom presentations, speeches, debates</p>	<p>Initially, talk as performance needs preparation &amp; scaffolding like for written text. Models of speeches, oral presentations, stories, etc. Using following phases: Phase 1 Building the context Phase 2 Modeling and deconstructing the text. Phase 3 Joint construction of the text. Phase 4 Independent construction of the text. Phase 5 Linking to related texts.</p>	<p><i>Performance</i></p>

## Appendix 7.b.2. Codes & categories for observation data analysis: TS activities in class

The teaching-speaking cycle (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 153-163)			
Stages	Developmental objectives for speaking	Teaching	Codes
1. Focus learners' attention on speaking.	Raising learners' metacognitive awareness about L2 speaking	Learners are given prompts to encourage them to think about the demands of speaking, and how they can prepare themselves for it. Prepare learners to approach a specific speaking task by understanding outcomes and thinking about necessary strategies to complete task.	<i>Learning outcomes and strategies given</i>
2. Provide input and/or guide planning.	Introducing or teaching new language.	Scaffolding learning in preparation to meet the demands of the speaking task such as vocabulary support, content or information for the task, teacher talk as example, key phrases for kind of task, communication strategies	<i>Vocabulary support Content support Information support Communication strategies</i>
3. Conduct speaking tasks.	Providing learners with a context to practise speaking through a communicative task. Focus on fluency.	Pair or group activities with information or opinion gaps. Discussions and problem-solving tasks. Talks and mainly monologic extended discourse.	<i>Individual/pair/group activities Discussions Monologic or dialogic</i>
4. Focus on language/ discourse /skills /strategies.	Creating opportunities for learners to improve language accuracy and enhance their effective use of skills and strategies. Focus on language accuracy.	Examining the transcript of a competent speaker to look for discourse markers and note how grammar and vocabulary contribute to coherence.	<i>Grammar input Vocabulary input Teacher Modelling</i>
5. Repeat speaking tasks.	Learners repeat speaking task(s) from Stage 3. Difference between Stage 3 & Stage 5 is that learners have now had a chance to analyse and practise selected language items or skills during Stage 4.	Repetitions could be carried out by: 1. Repeating parts of the original task 2. Repeating the entire task 3. Students change groups or partners 4. Introducing a new task similar to the earlier one.	<i>Repeating tasks partly or fully New tasks</i>
6. Direct learners' reflection on learning.	Self-regulating learning through monitoring and evaluating what learners have learnt from the preceding stages. Areas to be further improved. Plans for improving specific areas.	Reflection can be done individually, in pairs, or even in small groups. General prompts for reflection in the form of handouts for learners to complete or as headings for learners' journals.	<i>Encouraging self-reflection In pairs, groups or whole class discussions</i>
7. Facilitate feedback on learning.	Teacher provides learners with feedback on their performance in earlier stages of the cycle. Peer evaluation too can be useful in this stage as written reflection from stage 6 is available.	Comments or grades on an individual learner's skills and performance from observation sheets used during the speaking task. Exchange of written individual learner reflections and comments on each other's progress and achievements. Consolidated comments from teacher based on written reflections from the class.	<i>Teacher Feedback during lesson Teacher Feedback at the end Peer feedback during lesson Peer feedback at the end No feedback</i>

### Appendix 7.c. Codebook and sample coding extracts

The codes have been designed to elicit teacher cognition (TC) from various perspectives and in the context of teaching speaking in EFL. All the codes contribute to answering the research questions.

The first set of codes 1-18 are based on teachers' stated beliefs from semi-structured interviews and reveals issues that are relevant to their TC. The second set of codes 19-32 are based on teachers enacted beliefs observed in the classroom with focus on coding teaching speaking (TS) as interpreted by the teachers. The third set of codes 33-35 looks at the kinds of speaking in the classroom. The rest of the codes from 36-45 are that which help perspectivisation of the study and incorporate analytical features that place the study in the context of the research environment. Code 46 reveals serendipitous critical self-reflection by the teachers and code 47 is issues not relevant to the study.

No:	Codes	Description
<b>Stated beliefs based on semi-structured interviews</b>		
1	TCEFF	TC about teacher efficacy
2	TC/TSa	TC about student accuracy
3	TC/TSf	TC about student fluency
4	TC\$	TC about speaking not important as other skills
5	TC\$w	TC about writing being more important than speaking
6	TCFB	TC and feedback
7	TCEc	TC and error correction
8	TCc	TC about curriculum
9	TCx	No knowledge of curriculum/curriculum irrelevant
10	TCEFL	TC and English as a foreign language
11	TCCong	TC congruence
12	TCincong	TC incongruence
13	TCAOs	TC as apprenticeship of observation-schooling
14	TCAOte	TC as apprenticeship of observation-teacher education
15	TC on TS	Teacher cognition about what is teaching speaking
16	TSact	Activities teachers believe is TS
17	TCTT	TC about teacher talk
18	TCSS	TC about student speak
<b>Enacted beliefs based on classroom observations</b>		
19	TSA	Teaching activities as TS
20	TSAg	Teaching Grammar
21	TSAgc	Teaching grammar in context
22	TSrat	Reading aloud + translation
23	TSDQt	Display questions on texts
24	TS DQl	Display questions on lyrics
25	TSRtxt	Reporting on texts – pair/group work
26	TSPres	Presentations – pair/group
27	TSFilm	Film as hook
28	TSDict	Dictation
29	TSCA	Discussion of current affairs

30	TSCALL	CALL
31	TSPeerint	Peer interviews for speaking
32	TSPresDQ	Display questions based on presentations
<b>Kinds of Talk</b>		
33	Tint	Talk as interaction
34	Tt	Talk as transaction
35	Tp	Talk as performance
<b>Perspectivisation</b>		
36	EBT	Examination backwash in teaching
37	STA	Student attitudes to English speaking
38	TXBU	Textbook usage
39	TXBc	Textbook usage equated to fulfilling curriculum
40	TSE	Explicit teaching speaking
41	TSI	Implicit teaching speaking
42	PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
43	NPCK	No pedagogical content knowledge
44	NPD	No professional development
45	RC	Researcher as catalyst
<b>Serendipitous critical self-reflection</b>		
46	RSX	Serendipitous critical self-reflection
<b>Irrelevant to aim of study</b>		
47	XYZ	Irrelevant to aim of study

### Sample Coding extracts

The extracts chosen are but a brief representation of the main focus areas of the study divided here into stated and enacted beliefs to indicate how coding was carried out in these core areas.

### Samples of Coding Extracts - Stated beliefs based on semi-structured interviews

No:	Codes	Description	Samples of coding
13	TCAOs	Teacher cognition as apprenticeship of observation – Schooling. Here’s where the teachers describe at length how their schooling dealt with TS, which offered some insight into why they teach the way they do.	<p>GT method, in school I think. There wasn't much free speech. It took place in Faroese and we only spoke English when translating &amp; reading.</p> <p>And, so she spoke English during the lessons, so it feels natural in a way - not to copy her, but that was the way I was taught.</p> <p>Both when I was in primary, secondary school, also upper secondary, yes, I've always had teachers who have spoken English during the lessons.</p> <p>The traditional method. Lot of grammar exercises, analysis of stories. No presentations.</p>

14	TCAOte	<p>Teacher cognition as apprenticeship of observation – Teacher education (TE) As professional teachers look back on TE experience and offer insight into their current practice.</p>	<p>I think it (TE) has a big role because ELT is not the same as just being able to speak English... there were certain things that I identified as things that will work well in teaching speaking.</p> <p>If I were to think of TE, I think teaching lacked something, and that which was lacking was in fact, the spoken English was given a lower priority (as opposed to the written).</p> <p>The English that we spoke was almost reading aloud, not that we had English dialogue. Traditional GT. Film reviews using traditional literary analysis in studying the structure of literary genres- exposition, rising action, climax, etc. We explored the theme, “American Dream” through poetry, lyrics, etc for our final paper in English in TT. How to motivate students through asking questions.</p> <p>Not explicitly taught how to teach speaking. No Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories taught.</p>
15	TC on TS	<p>Teachers’ description of how they teach speaking in EFL. An overall picture of how they teach speaking.</p>	<p>By using Pitstop, where I try to get all involved and they express what they have to.</p> <p>I teach speaking through the text for the day, and I say today we will discuss the text and it will be in English.</p> <p>I do it by trying to speak English in class as much as possible.</p> <p>Through group presentations on stories where I give them main characters, time and place and so on and say you have to speak about it.</p> <p>By reading aloud for them and asking them to read aloud. But, it’s mainly through reading and wriitng that leads to speaking that I use...through reading, listening, watching films, speaking can be taught. I teach speaking by speaking and obviously, listening to spoken English – both using the cd that comes with the book.</p>
16	TSact	<p>TS seen as activities A description of the activities that teachers believe</p>	<p>Listening to music with lyrics.</p> <p>We’ve tried reading aloud in class. It helps vocabulary.</p>

		comprises TS, which they actively use in their EFL classes.	<p>In English, then it is a regular part of teaching every week-reading aloud. They get to pronounce English.</p> <p>Sometimes I have a dictation where they have to write word for word, other times they fill in the blanks.</p> <p>I've given them a book to read. They have to answer some questions in writing. Then they will have to present it.</p> <p>I show them a painting/picture as inspiration – groupwork and feedback to the teacher based on this.</p>
36	EBT	Exam backwash in TS. Reveals the influence of the exam on teacher behaviour in the classroom and how the requirements are directly addressed in class.	<p>I think it's important that I make them aware of the exam and prepare them for it. They have to speak English at the exam.</p> <p>I need to train them to speak English. I'm conscious of the exams. So, I need to help them understand that presentations help them in the exam.</p> <p>Reading aloud is important because they have to read aloud in the exam. The examiner might say that their pronunciation is not good.</p> <p>It is good practice for the exam I tell them.</p>
7	TCEc	TC and error correction. The teachers give a clear picture of how and why they practise error correction and their motivations for or against using it.	<p>If the student is one who is good, I would correct them.</p> <p>Here, I think that I correct students if it's a very serious error. If they always use 'is' &amp; 'are' incorrectly, if it's these kinds of basic errors. Otherwise, if it is some small mistake, then I'd rather prioritise that they speak instead of being focused on whether they're being grammatically correct. But, it can also become so wrong that you have to correct. The danger is that they don't dare to speak.</p> <p>In speaking, I haven't corrected except perhaps one who is good at it and makes the same mistakes and then I tell that person you're so good at English, you should not be making this kind of mistake.</p> <p>It depends on how serious the error is. If they simply do so in the use of 'is' &amp; 'are', then it is easy to correct in the sense, you can teach them that and they understand the difference. Simple errors are</p>

			easier to correct immediately, the more serious ones demand that one sits and thinks about it before going into correct it. The serious ones too must be corrected, they are not less significant, but I think basic errors make the language sound lacking.
15	TC on TS	Teacher cognition about TS. Overall teacher thoughts about how teaching should be taught.	Otherwise, the perfect English teaching should be done in English. The continuity of it (spoken English) is in the reading out by students. I see also that I have to give them the fundamentals of grammar.  As to how this (TS) can be done -they must be allowed to SE as much as they can-this is important.
3	<u>TC/TSf</u>	Teacher cognition and student fluency more important than accuracy. The classic fluency/accuracy debate is active in teachers' minds and they are conscious of their stance for choosing one over the other.	I think fluency is more important than accuracy.  Here, I will say that it is about making them speak English. I don't think about the grammar. I just want them to speak.  No, as it's (fluency) more important for them to speak English than necessarily speak it correctly. That will come. It's important to get them speaking English.
1	TCEFF	TC and self-efficacy Teachers' opinions on how their ability to speak English well impacts their classroom behaviour.	I think you must be good at English to teach it, but that's not that case. So, it depends on how you teach. I would perhaps speak more English in the classroom. I don't think I'm a teacher who follows a traditional pattern.  I feel I'm not that good at English and I feel that I lack updating. Sometimes I feel that the school should feel that is their responsibility to say," X you have had English for many years, should you not go there (for a course). "
46	RSX	Teacher critical self reflection. Teachers indicate self-reflection through their musings.	I think it's a problem that we don't talk about our teaching-us teachers. We just move on...If we speak English sometimes in the classroom that's ok. We have some small discussions about it sometimes (in the school) but it's not that big of a deal.
47	XYZ	Irrelevant to aim of study. Issues	When I look at this particular class that I have, then I'm quite happy because I can see that they're

		<p>were raised which have no direct relevance to area of study, even if they are interesting.</p>	<p>advancing. I can see that, but I didn't see that in the other class the year before. It was grade 9 and it was a bit of the same... with loose ends. But this class is focused and so much want to succeed. They do their homework. I'm quite happy I must say. I'm pleased with it.</p> <p>But, I have another class, the Cambridge First Certificate in English-there I have some very good students. They really have good English, almost fluent. Sometimes I tell them like, "what's the word?" and they give me the word &amp; I know they also have days where they are like "what's the word?"</p> <p>I got a German teacher. She was actually nurse. She hadn't had German for 20 yrs or something. We felt that she was on our level. She wasn't superior in any way and that moved us much further than it might have done if she was superior to us.</p> <p>When I was in practicals in X school in 1987. It was a grade 9 class. It was a shock for me when I came into this class. I was to observe for the first two days &amp; then had to teach myself. They were so very good at English, were better than me &amp; much better than I had expected them to be. I recall that in some places in the Eastern part of Torshavn people had cable TV and watched English programmes.</p> <p>This principle (of having the same teacher) that was from grade 1-9, I've tried it once-both teacher &amp; students get tired of each other. One feels that one is being repetitive. The only special thing was one gets a special relationship with them. But in terms of learning subjects, I don't think it's a good idea. In this school, teachers are divided into those who teach 8&amp;9, and so on. I think if you have agreed to take a class in English in grade 8, I've always seen that as a condition that you continue to grade 9 as well.</p> <p>The headmaster stated that in doing so (streaming students according to ability), we could see the most advancement on the lowest level because I remember some teachers who tried it the first year. We did this &amp; were not so pleased with it because a</p>
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			bunch of students that got on C level were not really weak.
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### Samples of Coding Extracts - enacted beliefs based on classroom observations

No	Codes	Description	Samples of coding
20	TSAg	Teaching speaking activities – grammar for its own sake seen in class.	“Who and “Which”. It’s not difficult but quite important. When do we say ‘who’ & ‘which’?. Explains the rules of usage in Faroese as textbook is in Danish.
22	TSrat	Teaching speaking activities – reading aloud + translation observed.	Teacher: I would like to ask one of you to read on page 64 in the task book. “When fear strikes”. <i>Names a student:</i> Could you read from pg 64? <i>Names a student:</i> Could you translate? I’d like you in pairs now. One student reads aloud & the other one translates it.
23	TSDQt	Teaching speaking activities – display questions on texts observed.	Teacher: What else do we get to know from the text? What about their situation? Student: It was bad. Teacher: How was it bad? Student: A man died. Teacher: How’s the weather? Student: It’s cold. Teacher: Is it raining? Student: No.
32	TSPresDQ	Teaching speaking activities – presentation becomes IRF. The teacher-student sessions do not develop into natural conversation.	Both student begins reading out in English from the prepared presentation “Vegetarians, vegans & animal welfare” word for word. Teacher: “Why did you choose this topic? Student: “I don’t like meat. They eat a lot of it at home.” Another student asks a classmate: “What is organic meat? Presenter: “You can do research to find it.”. Another student: “A video like this shows the worst. There are also farmers who treat their animals properly.”  Teacher: “Is there anything you won’t eat because it isn’t treated properly?”  Student: I don’t mind people eating sheep in The Faroes. The animals are treated properly. Any

			<p>company that does not treat its animals properly, I won't eat.</p> <p>Teacher: "What about whale meat?"</p> <p>Student: "I love it."</p> <p>Student: "I don't eat whale meat."</p>
27	TSFilm	Teaching speaking activities – Film as hook to generate discussion.	<p>Teacher: Have you heard of Forrest Gump? Let's watch a clip.</p> <p>You have an impression that he isn't intelligent but physically strong. What impression did you get?</p>

## Appendix 8. Grade 8 MMR curriculum (extracts translated)

### Background for English grades 4-9

English as a subject is skill, knowledge and culturally-oriented and comprises the English language, English culture and international affairs. As the international language of communication, it is a significant factor in globalisation, provides membership in a global community and promotes tolerance. The English language and culture are a part of both Faroese and Western cultures and, therefore, afford access to other languages and cultures. It is important to learn English in a manner that equips Faroese people to communicate in English. (translated)

### Aims of English teaching: (translated)

To develop the students' skills:

- To acquire English
- To develop reading and writing skills
- To develop knowledge of the English language and about the language towards acquiring linguistic, cultural, and aesthetic knowledge and consciousness and general study skills.
- To develop communicative skills to communicate internationally about general and subject issues.
- To acquire competence in understanding, analysing and interpreting texts in English.
- To enable membership and participation in the globalised world.

### Grades and hours/week for English:

Grade	4	5	6	7	8	A	B
						9	10
Hours	60	90	120	120	120	120	120

The core areas of the English subject comprise spoken English, written English, culture and linguistic knowledge.

### Spoken English

Students must develop their communicative competence in terms of being able to communicate in English as a global language and discuss international issues. Therefore, different communicative strategies, appropriate teaching tools and various listening and speaking approaches must be used in teaching spoken English. It is advisable for students to be conscious of their learning styles and work mode and how best they can learn English.

## Appendix 9. Samples of teaching materials

<p><b>Director</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You are the leader of the group. You must help your group to start a discussion about the text.</li> <li>• Your questions in the group could start with: What...How.....what do you think...</li> <li>• In the end you make a conclusion</li> </ul>	<p><b>Guide</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You must find a paragraph in the text that you want to read in your group/class</li> <li>• The paragraph can be sad,funny, exciting, scary or interesting</li> <li>• What do you choose ?</li> </ul>
<p><b>Projector</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You must describe a person, an environment, an incident or something else that you find interesting in the group/class.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Neologist</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You must find six different words in the text</li> <li>• A new word that you never have seen before.</li> <li>• A difficult word</li> <li>• A strange word</li> <li>• A funny word</li> <li>• An interesting word</li> <li>• An important word</li> </ul>
<p><b>Connector</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You must find a paragraph or word in the text that is a metaphor</li> <li>• Put the text in perspective. Have you read any similar texts</li> </ul>	

# Hotel California

- Answer at least two of these three tasks (a, b and c)

1.

- a) What is your first impression of the poem/song?
- b) Translate and define the meaning of ten difficult words in lyrics

2.

- a) How do you interpret the lyrics?
- b) Why do you think the song is called "*Hotel California*"?
- c) Tell us why you either like or dislike the song

3.

- a) Find 15 verbs and 15 nouns in the lyrics
- b) Find some information on the internet about the song and the group

# Knowing Me Knowing You

- Answer at least two of these three tasks (a, b and c)

1.

- a) What is your first impression of the poem/song?
- b) Write down a summary of the poem

2.

- a) How do you interpret the lyrics?
- b) Why do you think the song is called "*Knowing Me Knowing You*"?
- c) Tell us why you either like or dislike the song

3.

- a) Find 10 verbs and 10 nouns in the lyrics
- b) Find some information on the internet about the song and the group

from: *Pitstop8-Topic book*

From  
**Stormbreaker**

by Anthony Horowitz

Recruited. They told him his uncle Ian Rider died in a car accident. But fourteen-year-old Alex Rider knows that's a lie, and the bullet holes in his uncle's car confirm his suspicions. But nothing prepares him for the news that his uncle was really a spy for Britain's top-secret intelligence agency. Alex is recruited by two agents to find his uncle's killers and complete his final mission to uncover the mystery behind the new supercomputer from Sayle Enterprises. Suddenly he finds himself caught in a deadly game of cat and mouse. There is no way out.



"I'll move quickly forward. What drew Sayle to our attention was his most recent invention. A quite revolutionary computer that he calls the Stormbreaker," Blunt said.

Stormbreaker. Alex remembered the file he had found in his uncle's office.

"The Stormbreaker is being manufactured by Sayle Enterprises," Mrs. Jones said. "It's based on a completely new technology. It uses something called the round processor. I don't suppose that will mean anything to you."

"It's an integrated circuit on a sphere of silicon about one millimeter in diameter," Alex said. "It's ninety percent cheaper to produce than an ordinary chip because the whole thing is sealed in so you don't need clean rooms for production."

"Oh. Yes ..." Blunt coughed. "I'm surprised you know so much about it."

"It must be my age." Alex said.

"Well," Blunt continued, "later today, Sayle Enterprises are giving away tens of thousands of these computers. In fact, it is their intention to ensure that every secondary school in England gets its own Stormbreaker."

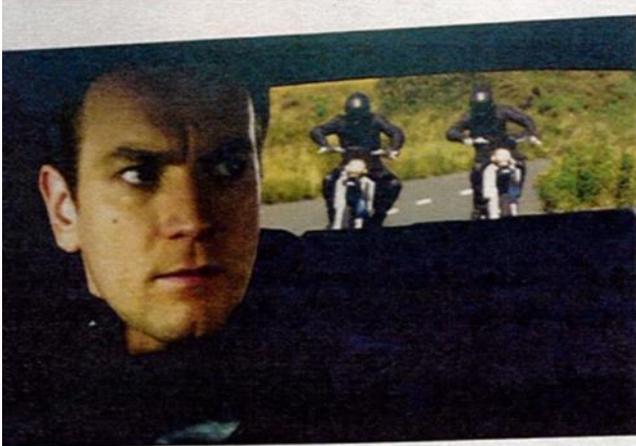
"You still haven't told me what this has got to do with me." Alex said.

Mrs. Jones took over. "For some time now we have been concerned about Mr. Sayle. He has contacts in China and the former Soviet Union, countries that have never been our friends. And the security arrangements down at Port Tallon worry us. He's more or less formed his own private army. He's acting as if he's got something to hide. The government's too keen to get their hands on these computers to listen to us. That was why we decided to send our own man down to the plant."

"You're talking about my uncle." Alex said.

"Yes. He was there for three weeks and in his first reports he described Sayle as short-tempered and unpleasant. But at the same time, he had to admit that everything seemed to be fine. But then he told us he'd discovered something. That the Stormbreakers mustn't leave the plant and that he was coming up to London at once. He left Port Tallon at four o'clock. He never even got to the freeway. He was ambushed in a quiet country lane."





Alex sat in silence. He could imagine it. A twisting lane with the trees just in blossom. The silver BMW gleaming as it raced past. And, around a corner, a second car waiting ... "Why are you telling me all this?" he asked.

"It proves what we were saying," Blunt replied. "We send a man down. He finds out something and he ends up dead. Maybe Ryder discovered the truth -"

"The computers are being shipped out three weeks from now." Mrs. Jones added. "That's why it's essential for us to send someone else to continue where your uncle left off."

Alex smiled queasily. "I hope you're not looking at me."

"We can't just send in another agent," Mrs. Jones said.

"We have to send someone in who won't be noticed," Blunt continued. "A few months ago, one of these computer magazines ran a competition. 'Be the first boy or girl to use the Stormbreaker. Go to Sayle Enterprises and meet Harold Sayle himself.' It was won by some young chap who's apparently a bit of a whiz kid when it comes to computers. Name of Felix Lester. Same age as yourself. He looks a bit like you too. He's expected down there two weeks from now."

"Wait a minute ..."

"You've already shown yourself to be extraordinarily brave and resourceful," Blunt said. "First at the junkyard ... that was a karate kick wasn't it? How long have you been learning karate?" Alex didn't answer so Blunt went on. "And then there was that little test we arranged for you at the bank. Any boy that would climb out of a fifteenth-floor window just to satisfy his own curiosity has to be rather special, and it seems to me that you are very special indeed."

"What we're suggesting is that you come and work for us," Mrs. Jones said. "We have enough time to give you some basic training and then we'll arrange for you to take the place of this other boy. You'll go to Sayle Enterprises and stay there until the day of the ceremony. You'll be able to meet Harold Sayle and perhaps you'll also find out what it was that your uncle discovered. You shouldn't be in any danger. After all, who suspects a fourteen-year-old boy of being a spy?"

twisting - kronglut  
queasily - illa til passar  
satisfy - nokta  
preposterous - vitleyst  
snoop - sneyta  
trust - her: hendur  
propose - skjóta upp

"All we're asking you to do is to report back to us," Blunt said. "That's all we're asking. Three weeks of your time. So what do you say?"

There was a long pause. Blunt was watching him with polite interest.

"No," Alex said.

"I'm sorry?"

"It's a dumb idea. I don't want to be a spy. Anyway, I have a life of my own." He found it difficult to choose the right words. The whole thing was so preposterous he almost wanted to laugh. "Why don't you ask this Felix Lester to snoop around for you?"

"We don't believe he'd be as resourceful as you", Blunt said.

"He's probably better at computer games." Alex shook his head. "I'm sorry. I don't want to get involved."

"That's a pity," Blunt said. "We'd better move on then to discuss your future," he continued. "Like it or not, Alex, the agency is now your legal guardian. Your uncle has left the house and all his money to you. However, he left it in our trust until you are twenty-one. So there will, I'm afraid, have to be some changes. We propose to put the house on the market. Unfortunately, you have no relatives who would be prepared to look after you, so I'm afraid that also means you'll be sent to an institution. There's one I know just outside Birmingham. Not a very pleasant place, but I'm afraid there's no alternative."

"You're blackmailing me!" Alex exclaimed.

"Not at all."

"But if I agree to do what you asked ...?"

Blunt glanced at Mrs. Jones. "Help us and we'll help you," she said.

Alex considered, but not for very long. He had no choice and he knew it. Not when these people controlled his money, his present life, his entire future.

"You talked about training," he said.

Mrs. Jones nodded. "If you agree to what we want, we can start at once."

"Start at once." Alex spoke the three words without liking the sound of them. Blunt and Mrs. Jones were waiting for his answer. He sighed. "Yeah. All right. It doesn't look like I've got very much choice." He glanced at the slices of cold lamb on his plate. Dead meat. Suddenly he knew how it felt.



# Real Life Spies

track 80

Copy sheet 23

- Read/listen to the story of Mata Hari and fill in the true-false.

## Mata Hari

Mata Hari was the stage-name for Dutch-born Margaretha Geertruida (Grietje) Zelle. In 1905, after divorcing her husband, she began a career as an exotic dancer and high class prostitute in Paris, and took the name Mata Hari (meaning "sun" or "Eye of the Dawn"). She presented herself as a princess from Java. Posing as an exotic person was easier in those days because of the lack of telecommunications.

Mata Hari mixed with the upper class and became a courtesan to many important high-ranking military men and politicians. This put her in a very good position to get information. The Netherlands remained a neutral nation in World War One, so the Dutch Mata Hari could cross national borders freely. At one point she was interviewed by British Intelligence and she admitted to being a spy for the French. The French later denied this. It is still unknown whether this was true.

In January 1917, an employee of the German Embassy in Madrid sent a radio signal to Berlin, saying that they were receiving excellent information from a spy codenamed H-21. French intelligence picked up the message and were able to identify H-21 as Mata Hari. On February the 13th 1917, Mata Hari was arrested in her Paris hotel room. She was then tried for espionage and found guilty. She was executed on the 15th of September, 1917 at the age of 41.

- |   | true                     | false                    | doesn't say              |  |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Margaretha Geertruida (Grietje) Zelle was born in Germany.       |
| 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | She divorced her husband in 1910.                                |
| 3 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Mata Hari means "Sun" or "Eye of the Dawn".                      |
| 4 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | She said she was a princess from Jamaica.                        |
| 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | She was a courtesan to important men.                            |
| 6 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | During World War Two she was a spy.                              |
| 7 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Mata Hari admitted to being a spy.                               |
| 8 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Her codename was C-21.   |
| 9 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | She was found guilty of spying and sentenced to prison for life. |
| 0 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | She died at the age of 41.                                       |

## 9 Spørgende biord/interrogative adverbs



How did you find me?  
How many of these people do you know?  
How much/often/soon will they pay us?  
When do we start?  
Where is my guitar?  
Why must we do this?

### OPGAVE 32

*Indsæt de rigtige spørgende biord:*

1. \_\_\_\_\_ did you buy that sweater? (In London).
2. \_\_\_\_\_ shall we see you again? (Next Thursday).
3. \_\_\_\_\_ did you scream? (I was frightened).
4. \_\_\_\_\_ often do you go swimming? (Once a week).
5. \_\_\_\_\_ are the Sunday papers? (In the dining room).
6. \_\_\_\_\_ can't we go to the concert? (It's too expensive).
7. \_\_\_\_\_ much do we have to pay? (Ten pounds).
8. \_\_\_\_\_ is the next train for Newcastle? (At 10 o'clock).
9. \_\_\_\_\_ will you get to the station? (I'll take a taxi).
10. \_\_\_\_\_ have I seen you before? (At Joe's Bar in Birmingham).
11. \_\_\_\_\_ did you sleep last night? (Very well, thank you).

### OPGAVE 33

*Oversæt til engelsk:*

Hvorfor har du ikke været her før? Hvornår er din familie flyttet til byen?  
Hvor længe har I været i denne by? Hvor bor I? Hvor mange børn er der i familien? Hvor gik du i skole? Hvor meget ved du om matematik? Hvor vil du gerne sidde? Hvorfor bliver du rød i hovedet?

### OPGAVE 34

*Par-arbejde. Se på billedet og dan mindst 4 spørgsmål til det i rækkefølgen*

Where ?  
Why ?  
How ?  
When ?



*Besvar derefter hinandens spørgsmål.*

### **OPGAVE 31**

*Gør følgende spørgsmål færdige (måske, så de bliver velkendte sætninger fra dit hjemmeliv):*

How can I ever make you understand \_\_\_\_\_ ?

Why don't you ever \_\_\_\_\_ ?

Where did you put the \_\_\_\_\_ ?

When are you going to \_\_\_\_\_ ?

How many times have I told you \_\_\_\_\_ ?

## MÁLUPPGÁVUR (1-4)

### 1. Put the verbs in the past tense.

Example: She wrote (write) to the hotel manager to complain.

- a) When they \_\_\_\_\_ (see) the policeman, they \_\_\_\_\_ (run) away.
- b) The vase \_\_\_\_\_ (fall) off the table and \_\_\_\_\_ (break) into pieces.
- c) We \_\_\_\_\_ (go) to Florida last year.
- d) I only \_\_\_\_\_ (sleep) for a few hours and \_\_\_\_\_ (wake) up very early next morning.
- e) I \_\_\_\_\_ (speak) to my dad and he said it was ok.
- f) They \_\_\_\_\_ (find) the photographs and \_\_\_\_\_ (send) them to Michael in America.
- g) I'm sorry, he's not here. He \_\_\_\_\_ (leave) about ten minutes ago.
- h) Angela \_\_\_\_\_ (feel) dizzy and had to sit down.
- i) Tom and Anna \_\_\_\_\_ (meet) at college.

### 2. Put in the reflexive pronouns.

Example: I wished them a good holiday. I hope they enjoy themselves.

- a) She doesn't need help. She can do it \_\_\_\_\_.
- b) Roger seemed nice. He even told us a lot about \_\_\_\_\_.
- c) She didn't help me at all. I washed the car \_\_\_\_\_.
- d) Did you have an accident, Harry? Did you cut \_\_\_\_\_?
- e) The child fell from a chair, but it didn't hurt \_\_\_\_\_.
- f) It was a rainy day, and windy too, but we enjoyed \_\_\_\_\_ indoors, playing cards.
- g) Do your parents need to tidy your bedrooms, or do you do it \_\_\_\_\_?

Eyðkennisstrongur: \_\_\_\_\_

1

3. Put in *some* or *any*.

Example: Do you have any apples?

- a) Yes, we have \_\_\_\_\_, what colour would you like?
- b) Well, if you have \_\_\_\_\_ green apples, I would like \_\_\_\_\_.
- c) No, I'm afraid we haven't got \_\_\_\_\_ green ones, but I think, we have \_\_\_\_\_ new yellow apples. Would you like \_\_\_\_\_ of them instead?
- d) Yes please, and can I also have \_\_\_\_\_ oranges?
- e) Dad, did you get any green apples? No, he didn't have \_\_\_\_\_,
- f) but I bought \_\_\_\_\_ yellow ones instead.

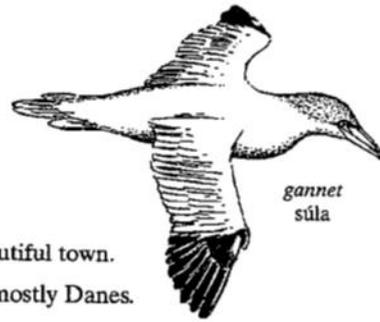
4. Put these irregular nouns in plural.

Example: Last night mum found several lice (louse) in my sister's hair.

- a) And she had just given me two of her \_\_\_\_\_. (scarf)
- b) For dinner we had rice instead of \_\_\_\_\_. (potato)
- c) Two \_\_\_\_\_ (thief) were caught last night stealing computers.
- d) They bought nice presents for their \_\_\_\_\_. (wife)
- e) The \_\_\_\_\_ (knife) are very sharp.
- f) Some homeless people live miserable \_\_\_\_\_. (life)
- g) I am not afraid of \_\_\_\_\_. (mouse)
- h) We saw three cows and two \_\_\_\_\_. (calf)
- i) We met two \_\_\_\_\_. (woman)
- j) They had three \_\_\_\_\_. (child)

2

Eyðkennisstrongur: \_\_\_\_\_



## Afturbeind fornøvn

### 25. Set inn *who (m)* ella *which* § 104-105

- a Edinburgh, \_\_\_\_\_ is in Scotland, is a beautiful town.
- b The Vikings \_\_\_\_\_ went to Britain were mostly Danes.
- c My sister, \_\_\_\_\_ you met yesterday, wants to speak to you.
- d London, \_\_\_\_\_ is on the Thames, is the capital of England.
- e We walked round the Serpentine, \_\_\_\_\_ is a small lake in Hyde Park.
- f John F. Kennedy, \_\_\_\_\_ was an American president, was shot in 1963.

### 26. Set inn *who*, *whom*, *whose* ella *which* § 104-111

\*\*\* Set síðani 4 framman fyri teir setningar, har fornafnið  
eins væl kundi verið *that*

- a Kevin Costner, \_\_\_\_\_ starred in *Bodyguard*, is a very famous actor.
- 4 b Hollywood is a place \_\_\_\_\_ fascinates many people.
- c One of the actors with \_\_\_\_\_ she starred was Tom Cruise.
- d Many of the people \_\_\_\_\_ were invited to the premiere didn't turn up.
- e The actress \_\_\_\_\_ necklace was stolen went to the police.
- f A singer \_\_\_\_\_ everybody knows is Elton John.
- g The city \_\_\_\_\_ the Beatles came from is Liverpool.
- h The director \_\_\_\_\_ they interviewed didn't speak English very well.
- i Beethoven, \_\_\_\_\_ music you have listened to, is one of the world's  
finest composers.

Tá ið afturbeinda fornafnið  
ikki er grundliður,  
ber til at koyra tað burtur  
Fletta er ógvuliga vanligt  
í rálumáli.

Sigast kann:

- um fólk:** This is one of the actors { she starred with  
*who(m)* she starred with  
*that* she starred with
- um annað:** The book { I bought  
*which* I bought } was a bestseller  
*that* I bought

27. Set inn *who(m), which* ella *that* § 104-111

\*\*\* Set síðani 3 við teir setningar,  
har fornavnið ekki er neyðugt.



*fulmar  
havhestur*

- 3
- a The man \_\_\_\_\_ she loves has left her.
  - b Nothing \_\_\_\_\_ he told me was true.
  - c He is the man \_\_\_\_\_ telephoned this morning.
  - d My father, \_\_\_\_\_ is very old, has broken his leg.
  - e It's a poor heart \_\_\_\_\_ never rejoices (gleðist).
  - f The egg \_\_\_\_\_ I ate this morning was not good.
  - g We often spoke of the places \_\_\_\_\_ we had visited together.
  - h He is the fastest runner \_\_\_\_\_ the school has ever produced.
  - i The house \_\_\_\_\_ stands at the corner was burnt down last night.

n Á enskum er einki komma um **neyðugar** afturbeindar setningar,  
men komma er um **óneyðugar** afturbeindar setningar.  
Sí frágreiðing í mállærunum.

28. Set inn *who, whom, whose, which, that* ella *einki*. § 104-111

(Ofta er meira enn ein möguleiki)

\*\*\* Set síðani komma, har það er neyðugt



*shag  
skarvur*

- a He was always late \_\_\_\_\_ she hated.
- b A friend \_\_\_\_\_ is reliable is good to have.
- c A film \_\_\_\_\_ made me cry was "the Titanic".
- d She is the lady \_\_\_\_\_ daughter you met at the party.
- e Smoking \_\_\_\_\_ is a bad habit is unfortunately popular.
- f Shakespeare \_\_\_\_\_ wrote Hamlet lived in the 16<sup>th</sup> century.
- g England has the best tea \_\_\_\_\_ one can buy.
- h However, most coffee \_\_\_\_\_ we drink in England is poor stuff.
- i Can you buy the painting back from the man to \_\_\_\_\_ you sold it?
- j His only sister \_\_\_\_\_ he loved very much died when she was in her teens.

# Synonym game

Group \_\_\_\_\_



- |              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 1. BIG       | 1.  |
| 2. COLD      | 2.  |
| 3. SEAT      | 3.  |
| 4. MAD       | 4.  |
| 5. ILL       | 5.  |
| 6. TINY      | 6.  |
| 7. HOP       | 7.  |
| 8. SKINNY    | 8.  |
| 9. SHUT      | 9.  |
| 10. BEGIN    | 10. |
| 11. FINISH   | 11. |
| 12. CLEVER   | 12. |
| 13. MIDDLE   | 13. |
| 14. FRIENDLY | 14. |
| 15. SIMPLE   | 15. |
| 16. STONE    | 16. |
| 17. TOSS     | 17. |
| 18. WEIRD    | 18. |
| 19. ENJOY    | 19. |
| 20. HUGE     | 20. |

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

## Synonyms or Antonyms?



**Antonyms** are two words that mean the opposite or nearly the opposite of each other.  
**Synonyms** are two words that mean the same or nearly the same as each other.

Read each word pair. Write an **S** next to word pairs that are synonyms.  
Write an **A** next to word pairs that are antonyms.

- |                           |                             |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| _____ 1. sit/stand        | _____ 13. rare/uncommon     |
| _____ 2. watch/view       | _____ 14. near/distant      |
| _____ 3. work/play        | _____ 15. miniature/small   |
| _____ 4. pal/friend       | _____ 16. angry/irate       |
| _____ 5. car/automobile   | _____ 17. musical/melodious |
| _____ 6. wild/tame        | _____ 18. lead/follow       |
| _____ 7. dull/boring      | _____ 19. protect/defend    |
| _____ 8. teach/instruct   | _____ 20. buy/sell          |
| _____ 9. hot/chilled      | _____ 21. jump/leap         |
| _____ 10. smelly/aromatic | _____ 22. book/tome         |
| _____ 11. noisy/quiet     | _____ 23. inside/within     |
| _____ 12. rapid/fast      | _____ 24. hungry/full       |

# Adjective Word Scramble

Group \_\_\_\_\_

- |               |     |
|---------------|-----|
| 1. IBG        | 1.  |
| 2. HTO        | 2.  |
| 3. TFSA       | 3.  |
| 4. EWN        | 4.  |
| 5. AHCPE      | 5.  |
| 6. LAET       | 6.  |
| 7. LDO        | 7.  |
| 8. MLLAS      | 8.  |
| 9. IHHG       | 9.  |
| 10. WLSO      | 10. |
| 11. DKAR      | 11. |
| 12. WLO       | 12. |
| 13. RSEOSUI   | 13. |
| 14. SAEF      | 14. |
| 15. RYTEPT    | 15. |
| 16. DLCO      | 16. |
| 17. PENXSVEI  | 17. |
| 18. RFEFEITDN | 18. |
| 19. RLAEY     | 19. |
| 20. GLITH     | 20. |

## Group\_\_\_\_\_

Complete the sentences using there is/are

The Alphabet	26 letters
9 planets	Solar System
11 players	Football team
50 states	United States
27 countries	European Union
3 colors	Italian flag
12 months	A year
7 days	A week
4 seasons	A year
20 teams	Italian Football League
5 players	A basketball team
5 vowels	The alphabet
6 strings	A guitar
5 rings	Olympic flag
One thousand meters	A kilometer



## Joby in the Sweetshop

by Stan Barstow

**J**oby put two pennies into Gus's hand and Gus opened the door, setting a bell ringing. The inside of the shop was quiet and cool. There were jars of jam and marmalade and cans of all kinds of things piled high on the shelves against the walls; boxes of sweets and bars of chocolate on the counter and an open sack of potatoes and another of sugar on the floor. They listened for someone coming but there was no sound from anywhere.

jar *krukke*  
 jam *syltetøj*  
 marmalade always made of  
 oranges in English!  
 can *dåse*  
 shelf (shelves) *hylde*  
 bar *plade*  
 counter *disk*

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When Gus put his hand into a box of sweets, it was like a signal to Joby. He did the same while Gus, not at all afraid, stretched right over the counter to reach the cigarettes. At the back of Joby's mind as he stuffed handfuls of sweets into his pockets was the thought that the shopkeeper was a very long time coming.

And just then the voice, like a kick to the heart, said, "And what do you think you are doing?"

**T**hey sprang round, their bodies going stiff with fear as they saw that the man was on their side of the counter, between them and the door. Shock robbed them of their voices. They stared at him, saying nothing. The shopkeeper, a thin elderly man, reached out and locked the door, cutting off all hope of escape.

"I asked you what you thought you were doing."

His voice was stiff and cold as iron. Joby, weak with shock and fright, thought he had never heard a voice like it, nor seen a face as hard and fierce as this man's. Oh! but he had feared this from the first. He had known it from the first. He had known it must happen some time. If only they could go back ten minutes and be playing with the ball in the street, and no thought of the shop in their heads!

**G**us managed to speak. "We wanted some chewing-gum, please," he said, as though he didn't understand the man.

"Yes, that's right," Joby heard himself whisper, "just some chewing-gum. He's got the money for it." He gestured towards Gus who opened his hand and showed the two pennies in his palm.

"Chewing-gum, eh? Well, you won't find any in that box of sweets, nor under the counter either."

His eyes looked over the top of his spectacles, grey and hard, as he spoke to them. He waved his hand towards the back of the shop.

"You'd better go through there with me. Go on, now, let's be having you!"

He pushed them before him into his living-room. They stood near the table, not knowing what to do with their hands.

"Are you going to fetch a bobby?" Joby asked.

A sudden view of the trouble to come flashed through his mind. The police at home; the surprise and shock of his parents; everybody knowing; the scene in court; grammar school shut to him because he was a bad character; probably

**stretch over** put his arm over

**reach** get to

**stuff** *stoppe*

**robbed them** took away from them

**e' scapo** running away

**fierce** *barsk*

**managed to speak** only

just got the words out

**gesture** move one's hand

**palm** inside of the hand

**spectacles** *briller*

**let's be having you**

come along

**bobby** policeman

**view** picture

**to come** *forestdende*

**flashed** went quickly

**court** *retten*

**grammar school** *skolen*

*der giver adgang til*

*universiteterne*





Borstal instead, or somewhere just as bad. He wanted to sit down. The fear was in his legs and they wouldn't hold him up much longer.

The shopkeeper ignored the question. He said, "Now then, empty your pockets."

Quickly, Joby put sweets on the table, searching carefully for any forgotten in the corners of his pockets. Gus produced two packets of cigarettes, as well as the sweets. To these they added all the other pieces of useful rubbish which they had in their pockets.

The shopkeeper looked at it. "Is this all?"

They nodded together. The man pushed his own things to one side and then took off his glasses and rubbed his eyes with his free hand. Joby wanted to look quickly at Gus and receive

Borstal school for  
criminal children  
search look  
pro' duce take out  
rubbish skrammel  
nod move one's head up  
and down  
rub gnide  
re' ceive get



some sign of help, but he could only shoot frightened looks at the face of the shopkeeper. He hastily turned his eyes away as the shopkeeper lifted his head up and put back his spectacles.

**“W**hat’s your name?” he asked Gus. “Your real name, of course.”

Gus told him, and he nodded as though he knew all about him. “And who are you?” he said to Joby.

“Joseph Weston,” Joby said. “Everybody calls me Joby.”

“What would you think of everybody calling you ‘thief?’” the man replied quickly.

“I wouldn’t like it,” Joby said quietly.

“No... Well, you’d better tell me what made you come into my shop to steal. How long have you been doing this kind of thing? Do you usually do this in every shop you go into?”

Gus answered him and sounded honest and sincere.

“No, we’re not thieves, Mister, really. We just thought it would be a bit of fun. The others said we wouldn’t dare. And most of our friends have gone on holiday and... We’ll never do it again, will we, Joby? This has taught us a lesson.”

“Fun, eh? You know where that kind of fun will take you? Into the reform-school. And there’s no chocolate there, nor holidays at the sea, either. And when you get out, everybody will know you are thieves and nobody will trust you any more. What sort of a start in life is that? You might think you have all the time in the world, but you will have to think about getting a job before you know it, and you won’t get far when everyone knows you are a thief... What school do you go to?”

“Tinsley Road,” Gus said.

“I’m going to Cressley Grammar School in September,” Joby said.

“Have you passed your exam to get in?” The man looked at Joby as he nodded. “Then why the devil do you want to spoil a chance like that by behaving like this?”

It was the tone of tired anger in which he spoke now that made Joby realize he was not going to report what had happened. He hardly heard the rest of what was said, because he felt so relieved.

**“P**ick your things up and get along home.” The shopkeeper moved away from the fireplace. “And have a good think about what I have told you.”

They gathered together their belongings and put them in their pockets before making for the door.

shoot looks look very quickly

honest ærtig

sin’cere oprigtig

dare turde

re’form-school school

for young criminals

trust stole på

spoil ødelægge

be’have opføre sig

realize understand

re’port anmelde

re’lieved lettet

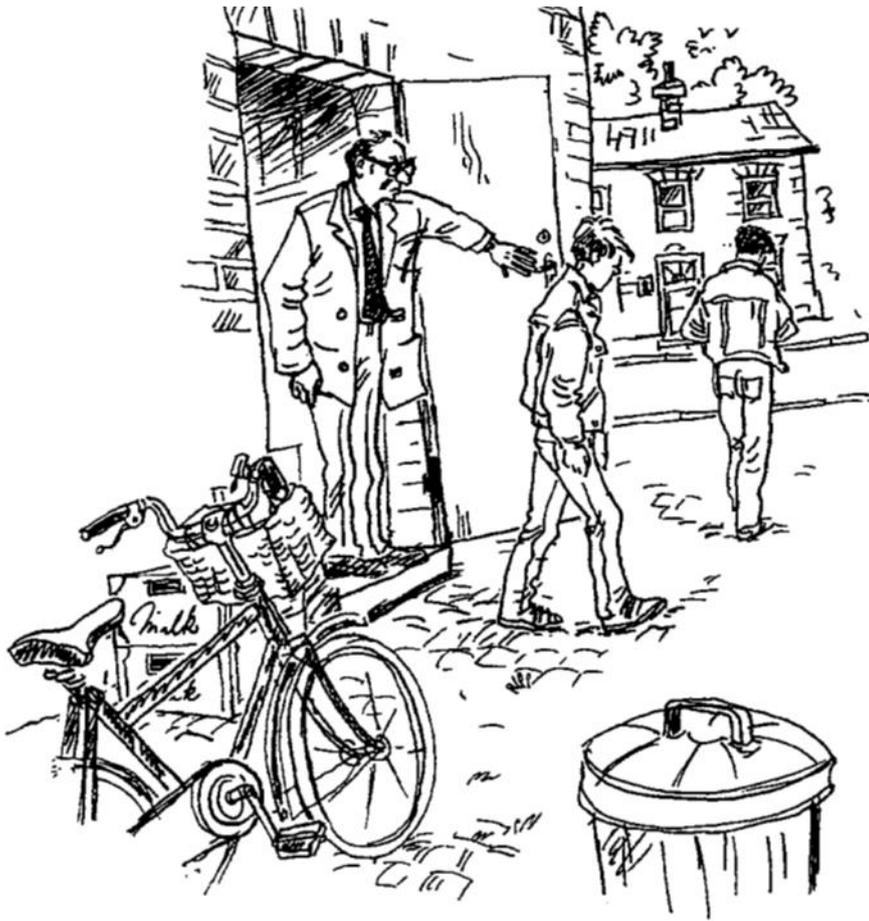
have a good think think

carefully

be’longings things they

owned





"You can go out the back way," the man said and opened the door to let them pass through.

"Are you going to tell our dads?" Gus asked.

"You'd better wait and see about that. But remember this, I know who you are and if I hear of you getting into any more trouble like this, I shall go straight to the police and tell them about today."

"Don't worry, Mister," Gus said thankfully, "we shan't get into trouble again. We've had enough for today."

He stepped out into the yard. Behind him, Joby stopped. He wanted to say something. He felt he should. He felt as though a great weight had been lifted from him.

He looked up at the man and said, "Thanks, Mister. Thanks very much."

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The shopkeeper put his hand on Joby's shoulder and pushed him out after Gus. "Get off home. Just think of what I've told you and you'll be all right."

They didn't speak until they had gone some way from the shop, then Gus said, "I thought we were in for it that time!"

"So did I." Joby looked sideways at Gus's face, trying to read his expression. "I think we had better stop now."

"Yes, we'd better. It's not safe now."

**T**hey went into a field and sat down to talk about what had happened. Small clouds of fear still troubled Joby now that he was away from the shop.

"Do you think he will tell our dads?" he asked.

Gus laughed. "No, he won't tell now. He let us off with a good talking-to, didn't he?"

The church clock struck the half-hour.

"What time's that, then?"

"Half past four."

"I shall have to be off home to tea, then," Joby said.

"Oh, there's plenty of time." Gus sat up and looked all around the empty field. "What about having a quick smoke first?" He

we were in for it we  
were going to get into  
bad trouble  
ex'pression the look on  
his face  
trouble *bekymre, plage*  
a talking-to he scolded  
them



put his hand into his pocket and brought out an unopened packet of cigarettes. Joby stared at it.

"Where did you get them?"

Gus grinned. "Where do you think?"

"But you gave them all back."

"All except these!"

A smile of both admiration and unhappiness forced itself on to Joby's face.

"Honestly, Gus, you are a devil!"

"Well, are we going to have one, then?" Gus said.

"No." Joby got to his feet quickly. "I've got to go. My Mum said I mustn't be late. I'll see you later. So long."

He began to walk away across the rough grass. By the time he reached the edge of the field he was running. He wondered what Gus thought of him, and didn't care. His only interest now was to get as far away from Gus as possible.

ex'cept *undlagen*

admi'ration *beundring*

honestly *ærtig talt*

rough that had not been

cut

edge *kant*

1. Why does Joby give Gus some money?
2. What do they do when they get into the shop?
3. How do they feel when they hear the shopkeeper?
4. Where is the shopkeeper – and why?
5. What does Joby wish?
6. Why does he not believe that they wanted to buy chewing-gum?
7. What does Joby see in his mind when they go into his living-room?
8. What do they take out of their pockets (and what is the 'rubbish')?
9. "We did it for a bit of fun." Do you think either of the boys has done this sort of thing before?
10. What does the shop-keeper say happens to thieves?
11. How does Joby know that it is going to be all right?
12. Why does Joby stop before leaving the man's house?
13. How does Joby feel when he sees the packet of cigarettes?
14. Why does he want to get far away from Gus at the end of the story?
15. Why does the shopkeeper let them go? Is it the right thing to do?
16. Do you think either of them will do anything like this again?
17. Most people steal something at one time or another. Does it matter?

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## Appendix 10.a. Pre-reform curriculum for English as elective in TE (original)

### ENSKT, linjugrein

#### § 28. Endamálið er, at tey lesandi

- læra at málbera seg bæði munnliga og skrivliga á vanligum nútíðarmáli,
- gera seg kunnug við ljóðfrøðiliga og mállærusliga bygnað málsins, orða- og týðningarlæru tess,
- fáa sær kunnleika um týðandi tættir í bretska mentan,
- fáa sær innlit í didaktikk greinarinnar, arbeiðshættir og hjálparamboð.

#### 2. stk. Innihaldið er:

- 1) Munnligar og skrivligar málburðarvenjingar, innihaldsligar og málsligar tekstviðgerðir, kunning um samfelagsviðurskipti, mentan og málnámsfrøðiliga støðutakan, ið verða serstakliga nútíðar fagrar bókméntir og yrkisbókméntir úr ymsum enskt mæltum umveldum, Tekstírnir, ið eiga at umboða fleiri stílsløg, skulu lýsa hesi umveldi bæði mentanarliga og samfelagsliga, og dentur verður lagdur á málnámsfrøðiligan lesna.

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- 2) Aðrir tekstformar: ljóðbond, sjónbond, filmur, útvarps- og sjónvarpssendingar o.a.
- 3) Skrivligar málvenjingar við støði í ymsum uppgávusniðum.
- 4) Ástøðilig og verklig kunnan í ljóðfrøði og -læru.
- 5) Ástøðilig og verklig kunnan í málføði og mállæru, har ið dentur verður lagdur á at sammeta ymsar mállæruskipanir.
- 6) Kunnan í orðagerð og týðningarlæru málsins.
- 7) Kunnan um ymiskt undirvísingartilfar.
- 8) Undirvísingin eigur í høvuðsheitum at vera á enskum máli.

3. stk. Tey lesandi gera í 4. ári eina einstaklingsuppgávu, sum fevnir um evni innan fyri skrivliga og munnliga undirvísing í enskum. Rættingarvansar, ið eru grundaðir á rætting av næmingaavrikum, verða viðgjørdir í uppgávuni. Lærarin skal gódkenna evnisvalið.

#### 4. stk. Próvtøkan.

Próvtøkan er skrivlig og munnlig.

1. Tann skrivliga royndin fevnir um
  - a) týðing av føroyskum teksti til enskt, royndartíðin er 2 tímar
  - b) roynd í stíli (essay), royndartíðin er 4 tímar.
2. Tann munnliga royndir fevnir um
  - a) framløgu av og orðaskifti um einstaklingsuppgávuna, sum er skrivað í 4. flokki,
  - b) ókendan greinatekst - samandrætt og greining innihaldsliga og málsliga,
  - c) bókméntir.
3. Tann munnliga royndin eigur øll at vera á enskum máli.

5. stk. Eitt próvtal verður givið. Próvtalið er grundað á eina heildarmeting av allari royndini.

## **Appendix 10.b. Pre-reform curriculum for English as elective in TE (translated)**

### **The aims:**

Students must:

- learn to express themselves in contemporary English, written and spoken
- acquire knowledge of the phonetic and grammatical structure of the language, the word classes and the importance thereof
- acquire knowledge of important factors of British culture
- gain insight into didactic analysis, approaches and aiding tools

### **Content:**

- Spoken and written language exercises; content and linguistic textual analysis; knowledge of social condition, culture and language pedagogical decision making, gained particularly from contemporary literary and non-literary texts from English speaking countries, which must represent different genres and reveal the cultural and social aspects of the countries, with emphasis on language pedagogy.
- Other text types: audio and videotapes, films, radio and TV broadcasts, etc.
- Written linguistic exercises based on various task forms.
- Theoretical and practical knowledge of phonetics and learning.
- Theoretical and practical knowledge of linguistics and grammar with specific emphasis on comparison of grammars of different languages.
- Knowledge of word-formation and its importance in the English language.
- Knowledge of different teaching materials.
- Teaching should be mainly in English.

### **Examination:**

Written and spoken.

1. The written exam consists of:

Part 1: Essay writing (literary /non-literary) (4 hours)

Part 2: Translation of a Faroese text to English (2 hours)

2. The spoken exam consists of:

a) Presentation and discussion of the assignment written in year 4.

b) Textual analysis of an unfamiliar text.

c) Literature.

The oral exam should be in English. One examination mark will be given.

## Appendix 11. Pre-reform English exam for TE

### Partur I

Vel antin A, B ella C.

#### A: Chat Language

The topic of your essay is Chat Language. In your essay you are expected to

1. Characterize the language in extracts 1 and 2 using at least three quotations to substantiate your views.
2. Discuss to what extent chat language may be used in language teaching situations.
3. Assess the value of chat in language teaching considering both pedagogical aspects and the impact on the pupils' language.

#### B: The Ultimate Safari

The white woman (journalist) who visits the refugee camp at the end of "The Ultimate Safari" (text 4) writes an article for a serious newspaper telling the story of the main character and her family. Write this article.



#### C: Kilkelly

The title of your essay is "Migration and Identity". In your essay you are required to

1. Include an analysis and interpretation of Peter Jones' poem "Kilkelly".
2. Use "Kilkelly" as your point of departure in a discussion of the implications involved in choosing to become a migrant.
3. Compare the situation of John in the poem with that of Faroese youngsters at present.

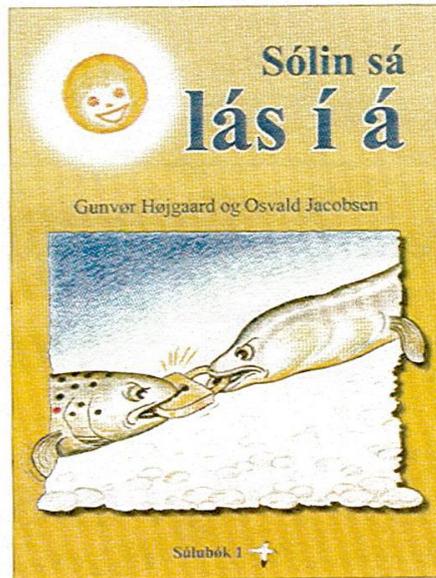
FØROYA LÆRARASKÚLI

DESEMBER 2008

*Skrivligt enskt*

Partur II

Øll hjálparamboð eru loyvd



## Umseting

### Súlubøkur læra børn at lesa

**Nýggjar Súlu-bøkur, sum júst eru komnar á marknaðin, geva børnum møguleika at læra at lesa longu, tá tey duga nakrar fáar bókstavar. Smáu lesibøkurnar hoyra til bókstava- og ljóðbókina, Súlan, sum byggir á gransking um innlæring og er eitt týðningarmikið amboð í fyrstu lesiinnlæringini**

Tey seinastu árin hefur nógv kjak verið um lesiførleikar hjá børnum. Skrivligt samskipti er í dag so umfangandi, at øll børn mugu læra væl og virðiliga at lesa. Fyri at mæta tørvinum á dygdargóðum arbeidsamboðum til hesa uppgávu, hava lærararnir, Gunvør Højgaard og Osvald Jacobsen, skrivað bókstava- og ljóðbókina, Súlan.

Høvuðsbókin, Súlan, kom á marknaðin seinasta heyst og hefur fingið góða móttøku. Rithøvundarnir hava hildið fleiri væl-vitjað skeið, og eftirmetingin hefur verið framúr góð. Og nú eru fyrstu lesibøkurnar til Súluna útkomnar. Bøkurnar eita Sólin sá lás í á og Sólin sá ís í á.

Lesibøkurnar eru ætlaðar næmingum at lesa, so hvørt, sum teir hava lært teir ávísu bókstavarnar. Fyrstu bøkurnar hava lætt og ljóðrøtt orð, sum saman við myndum, geva barninum stuðul og mót til lesingina. Eftir ætlan koma seks smáar lesibøkur til Súluna út hetta skúlaárið.

Myndirnar í bókini siga eina søgu, sum prátast kann um. Í tekstinum eru nógvar endurtøkur, og samanlagt kann bókin við orðum og myndum geva næminginum eina góða uppliving av at hava lisið eina bók.

Hugsjónin handan Súluna er, at børn læra at lesa við at binda bókstav og ljóð saman. Gransking vísir, at okkara evni at vera varug við einstøku ljóðini í talumálinum eru avgerandi fyri lesilæringina. Kanningar í millum annað USA og Danmark hava staðfest, at tú sleppur ikki undan at arbeiða skipað við sambandinum millum bókstav og ljóð, um tú vilt náa einum neyvum lesiførleika.

Brot úr grein "Súlubøkur læra børn at lesa. Dimmalætting 11. nov. 2008.

## Appendix 12. Current curriculum (in effect from 2008) 4 modules

<b>Skeiðsnummar</b> <i>Course number</i>	
<b>Heiti</b> <i>Title</i>	Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching (ELT) & English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
<b>ECTS</b> <i>ECTS</i>	
<b>Fortreytir</b> <i>Prerequisites</i>	Nil
<b>Stig</b> <i>Level</i>	Bachelor
<b>Endamál</b> <i>Purpose</i>	To give students a working knowledge of the theories and methodology of ELT to competently and critically evaluate curriculum design for teaching English.
<b>Læruúrtøka</b> <i>Learning outcomes</i>	On completion of the course, learners should be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe and critically discuss the various theories of ELT and EFL and compare these to other theories of learning.</li> <li>• Identify the various approaches to ELT methodology and apply them in the context of the classroom.</li> <li>• Apply ELT methodologies to evaluate English textbooks in use in schools and their relevance to the curriculum and their efficacy as materials for language learning.</li> </ul>
<b>Innihald</b> <i>Content</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An overview of the history and development of the English language</li> <li>• English as a global language.</li> <li>• The theories of ELT and EFL</li> <li>• ELT and its methodology</li> <li>• Curriculum, syllabus design and kinds of syllabi</li> <li>• Designing EFL lessons for the various levels in the schools.</li> </ul>
<b>Læru- og undirvísingarrættir</b> <i>Learning and teaching approaches</i>	Lectures, projects and pair/group work
<b>Próvtøkuháttur</b> <i>Assessment method</i>	Written assignment & design of presentation on given topics.
<b>Próvdøming</b> <i>Examination</i>	Internal assessment
<b>Próvtalastigi</b> <i>Marking scale</i>	Passed /failed
<b>Lestrarlisti</b> <i>Bibliography</i>	
<b>Ábyrgd</b> <i>Contact</i>	Kalpana Vijayarathan

<b>Skeiðsnummar</b> <i>Course number</i>	
<b>Heiti</b> <i>Title</i>	English Grammar and Language Learning
<b>ECTS</b> <i>ECTS</i>	
<b>Fortreytir</b> <i>Prerequisites</i>	Nil
<b>Stig</b> <i>Level</i>	Bachelor
<b>Endamál</b> <i>Purpose</i>	To give students an understanding of English grammar, its role in language learning and the influence of linguistics on English Language Teaching (ELT)
<b>Læruúrtøka</b> <i>Learning outcomes</i>	On completion of the course, learners must be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assess the relevance of English grammar to ELT and design grammar teaching approaches in the context of EFL.</li> <li>• Use linguistics as a tool in ELT and evaluate its role and contribution to ELT.</li> <li>• Conduct an analysis of the challenges involved in second language learning in the context of the Faroese school system.</li> </ul>
<b>Innihald</b> <i>Content</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An overview of English grammar</li> <li>• Universal, Prescriptive and Descriptive grammar</li> <li>• Grammar and usage-teaching approaches</li> <li>• Second language learning and acquisition</li> <li>• An introduction to basic linguistics</li> <li>• Applied linguistics and language teaching.</li> </ul>
<b>Læru- og undirvísingarrættir</b> <i>Learning and teaching approaches</i>	Lectures, projects and pair/group work
<b>Próvtøkuháttur</b> <i>Assessment method</i>	A written assignment on teaching grammar in context
<b>Próvdøming</b> <i>Examination</i>	Internal assessment
<b>Próvtalastigi</b> <i>Marking scale</i>	Passed /failed
<b>Lestrarlisti</b> <i>Bibliography</i>	
<b>Ábyrgd</b> <i>Contact</i>	Kalpana Vijayarathan

<b>Skeiðsnummar</b> <i>Course number</i>	
<b>Heiti</b> <i>Title</i>	Principles of Assessment-Practical Pedagogy
<b>ECTS</b> <i>ECTS</i>	
<b>Fortreytir</b> <i>Prerequisites</i>	Nil
<b>Stig</b> <i>Level</i>	Bachelor
<b>Endamál</b> <i>Purpose</i>	To give students an understanding of the principles of assessment of and for learning in the context of the teaching of the four language skills in ELT.
<b>Læruúrtøka</b> <i>Learning outcomes</i>	On completion of the course learners should be able to : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate and apply the principles of assessment in context.</li> <li>• Critically apply principles of practical pedagogy in designing a skills-based ELT approach based on assessment tenets.</li> <li>• Evaluate the role of the teacher in assessment and the ethics of assessment in the ELT classroom.</li> </ul>
<b>Innihald</b> <i>Content</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Classroom Management-an introduction</li> <li>• Pedagogical leadership-the teacher as leader</li> <li>• Formative and summative assessment- a critical perspective</li> <li>• Assessment of the four skills in ELT</li> <li>• Action research-assessment of self as teacher</li> </ul>
<b>Læru- og undirvísingaráttir</b> <i>Learning and teaching approaches</i>	Lectures, projects, PBL and pair/group work, Observation of teaching
<b>Próvtøkuháttur</b> <i>Assessment method</i>	An individual presentation of a classroom activity designed to use teaching approaches to two language skills in the context of a relevant assessment framework.
<b>Próvdøming</b> <i>Examination</i>	Internal assessment
<b>Próvtalastigi</b> <i>Marking scale</i>	Grade scale 0-13
<b>Lestrarlisti</b> <i>Bibliography</i>	
<b>Ábyrgd</b> <i>Contact</i>	Kalpana Vijayarathan

<b>Skeiðsnummar</b> <i>Course number</i>	
<b>Heiti</b> <i>Title</i>	Literature in Context and as a Tool in Language Teaching
<b>ECTS</b> <i>ECTS</i>	
<b>Fortreytir</b> <i>Prerequisites</i>	Nil
<b>Stig</b> <i>Level</i>	Bachelor
<b>Endamál</b> <i>Purpose</i>	To give an overview of the different genres of English literature, and apply the major approaches of literary criticism in literary analysis within literature as a language learning tool.
<b>Læruúrtøka</b> <i>Learning outcomes</i>	On completion of the course, learners must: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identify the various periods in the history of English literature and recognize the various literary genres.</li> <li>• Describe the different approaches to literary criticism and critically apply them in the context of literary analysis.</li> <li>• Demonstrate the validity of using English literature to teach the English language.</li> </ul>
<b>Innihald</b> <i>Content</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A history of English literature</li> <li>• The major approaches to literary criticism</li> <li>• Analysis of literary texts using the tenets and tools of literary analysis</li> <li>• Language through literature-design tasks for the four skills</li> </ul>
<b>Læru- og undirvísingarrhættir</b> <i>Learning and teaching approaches</i>	Lectures, projects, mock-teaching sessions and pair/group work
<b>Próvtøkuháttur</b> <i>Assessment method</i>	Writing a synopsis for an individual presentation of a lesson to demonstrate understanding of a literary analytical approach to two texts of varying genres and provide rubrics for assessment. This will be presented at the examination. A single grade to be awarded.
<b>Próvdøming</b> <i>Examination</i>	External assessment
<b>Próvtalastigi</b> <i>Marking scale</i>	Grade scale 0-13
<b>Lestrarlisti</b> <i>Bibliography</i>	
<b>Ábyrgd</b> <i>Contact</i>	Kalpana Vijayarathan