THE IMPACT OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING:
A CASE STUDY OF FOUR NOVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND CLASSROOM
PRACTICES

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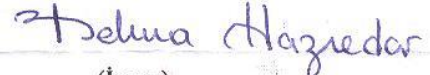
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FOUR NOVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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"The impact of in-service teacher training: A case study of four novice teachers' beliefs and classroom practices" Yeditepe University, Educational Sciences Institute, 2013.Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Yasemin Yıldız

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Acknowledgements

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the potential impact of in-service teacher training (ISTT) on trainees' beliefs and classroom practices immediately after and 6 months after the training. A case study was carried out that involved four-week training based on theoretical knowledge about markedness theory. First, the trainees were observed to identify their existing grammar teaching practices. Second, they participated voluntarily in the training. Thirdly, they were interviewed and observed to reveal the impact both at cognitive and practical level. Finally, six months later they were interviewed and observed again to see the extent of the impact of the training. The observations after the training provided insights into how the trainees transferred what they learnt from the ISTT into their grammar teaching practices. The interviews revealed a number of themes that could account for the motives of the teacher change and development. The observations provided concrete evidence for the pedagogical changes the trainees experienced, particularly in their instructions, materials, and approaches to grammar instruction. By contrast, the interviews revealed the various dimensions of change and development in the trainees after the ISTT.

The study mainly found that knowledge-based training has the potential to deeply influence the trainees and enable concurrent cognitive and practical changes after the training identified in the observed lessons. Secondly, it was found that the trainees implemented what they learnt in the courses observed, while in the unobserved ones they reported that they were inhibited by the contextual constraints, which led to failure to reflect the cognitive change. Thirdly, it was revealed that the trainees maintained the changed beliefs and grammar teaching practices even in six months observed in practices and clearly verbalized in the interviews. Finally, the theoretical knowledge acquired made it possible for the trainees to experience pedagogical changes in their grammar instruction of marked structures, which they can generalize to the other courses.

The study presents a number of critical implications for in-service language teacher training: (i) knowledge-based training supported by hands-on language awareness activities could lead to conceptual change in in-service trainees, which can

also be extended to pre-service teacher training where language awareness and practicum can be integrated, (ii) the delivery mode of the trainings should inspire trainees to teach in a new way rather than prescribe them for a particular way of teaching, (iii) trainees should engage in relevant language teaching activities using the new knowledge acquired to create pedagogical connections to their own teaching, (iv) for a conceptual change in trainees, pre- and post- training monitoring activities should be designed, and follow-up support should be provided for changes in six months.

KISA ÖZET

Bu araştırma, hizmet içi öğretmen eğitiminin (in-service teacher training (ISTT)) katılımcı öğretmenlerin inançları ve sınıf içi uygulamaları üzerinde eğitimden hemen sonra ve altı ay sonraki olası etkisini incelemektedir. Durum çalışmasında belirginlik kuramının (Markedness Theory) kuramsal bilgi yönüne dayanan 4 haftalık bir eğitim uygulamıştır. Durum çalışması, 4 aşamadan oluşmuştur. İlk olarak, katılımcı öğretmenler var olan dilbilgisi öğretme uygulamaları belirlenmek üzere gözlemlenmiştir. İkinci olarak, eğitime gönüllü olarak katılmışlardır. Üçüncü olarak, hem bilişsel hem de uygulama düzeyinde eğitimin etkisini anlamak için kendileri ile görüşülmüş ve gözlemlenmiştir. Son olarak ise altı ay sonra eğitimin etkisinin kapsamını belirlemek için görüşme ve gözlemler yeniden yapılmıştır. Eğitimden sonra yapılan gözlemler, katılımcı öğretmenlerin hizmet içi öğretmen eğitiminden kazandıklarını dilbilgisi öğretme uygulamalarına nasıl aktardıklarına dair bakış açıları sunmuştur. Görüşmeler ise öğretmen değişim ve gelişiminin altında yatan dürtüleri derinlemesine açıklama imkânı veren bazı konuları ortaya çıkarmıştır. Gözlemler, özellikle dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik yaklaşımlar, malzemeler ve öğretim yöntemleri ile ilgili olarak öğretmenlerin yaşadığı pedagojik değişimler için somut kanıtlar sunmuştur. Görüşmeler ise hizmet içi öğretmen eğitimi sonrasında katılımcı öğretmenlerdeki değişim ve gelişimin değişik boyutlarını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Araştırmanın ana sonuçlarına göre bilgiye dayalı eğitimin katılımcı öğretmenleri geniş ölçüde etkileme ve eğitimden sonra hem bilişsel hem de uygulamaya dönük değişimleri sağlama potansiyeli bulunmaktadır. Araştırmadan elde edilen bir diğer sonuç da katılımcı öğretmenlerin gözlemlenen derslerde öğrendiklerini uyguladıkları yönünde olmuştur. Diğer taraftan, gözlem yapılmayan derslerde bağlamsal sınırlamaların kendilerini engellediği ve bunun da bilişsel değişimi yansıtmalarını olumsuz etkilemiş olduğunu belirmişlerdir. Araştırma, katılımcı öğretmenlerin sonraki 6 ay içinde bile değişen inanç ve uygulama yöntemlerini devam ettirdiğini de ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu durum, uygulama da gözlemlenmiş ve görüşmelerde de belirtilmiştir. Son olarak, kazanılan kuramsal bilgi, katılımcı öğretmenlerin belirgin yapıların (marked constructions) öğretiminde pedagojik değişimler deneyimlemelerini ve bunu öteki derslere de yöneltebilmelerini mümkün kılmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın hizmet içi öğretmen eğitimi açısından bir takım önemli sezdirimleri bulunmaktadır: (i) pratik dil farkındalığına yönelik etkinliklerce desteklenen bilgiye dayalı eğitimin, katılımcılarda kavramsal değişime yol açabilir, ki bu aynı zamanda dil farkındalığının ve stajyerlik eğitiminin birleştirilmesiyle aday öğretmenlere de uygulanabilir (ii) eğitimlerin verilme biçimi katılımcıları buyurgan yöntemlerden ziyade yeni bir öğretme şekli uygulama konusunda yönlendirmelidir, (iii) katılımcılar, kendi öğretme yöntemleriyle pedagojik bağlar oluşturmak amacıyla kazanılan bu yeni bilgiyi kullanarak dil öğretim etkinlikleri uygulamalıdırlar, (iv) katılımcılarda kavramsal değişim için eğitim öncesi ve sonrası izleme etkinlikleri oluşturulmalı ve uzun dönemli değişimler için devamlı destek verilmelidir.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1.The Focus of the Study

This thesis explores the impact of an in-service teacher training (henceforth ISTT) on the changes in the trainees' grammar teaching beliefs and classroom practices immediately after and 6 months after the training. There are three sources of motivation that inspired the researcher to conduct this study. These include (1) the professional position held as a trainer at a higher education institution in İzmir, Turkey, (2) the increasing engagement in and demand for ISTT practices, (3) general need to create a knowledge-based training content to trigger conceptual, permanent changes in teachers' beliefs and practices as well as the training need identified for the four teachers whose grammar teaching instruction indicated a lack of functional and contextual understanding, (4) the research gaps in the area of in-service teacher training that improves theoretical content knowledge along with practical pre- and post- interviews and observations that might lead to conceptual change in teachers.

The impact of one-shot in-service teacher training sessions on teachers' beliefs and practices has also long been questioned. It has been observed that teachers passively listen to the trainer and go back to their teaching context with insufficient knowledge that could inspire them to change their instruction. It is common that such trainings would not lead to conceptual changes, which then help

them to transfer the new knowledge they learnt into their classrooms. It is also clear that the sessions tended to prescribe a teaching recipe focusing on methodological issues rather than knowledge of and about language.

It seems to me that these trainings have failed to lead to pedagogical and instructional changes in teachers. The literature also supports my observation mentioning numerous contextual and methodological problems found in INSET designs (Lamb, 1995; Cullen, 1994; Yan, 2008). Veenman et al (1994, p.304), on the other hand, add to this that there is little research on whether the knowledge gained in the training can be transferred by the trainees into the actual classrooms. In Turkey, there are limited studies that explore the impact of training through observations and interviews that document concurrent changes in beliefs and practices unlike the extensive research studies in the world. Therefore, this study is the first attempt to investigate the impact of ISTT on language teachers' grammar teaching instruction in Turkey context.

The study attempts to fill a gap identified by Bartel (2005, p.418) as an in-depth study of in-service language teachers' acquisition of knowledge about language (KAL), and how they use this new knowledge in their own classrooms. In addition, the study will provide critical insights into how the trainees acquired KAL and used it in their own context.

1.2.Rationale and Research Questions

The previous section focused on the primary reasons why I selected this research area as the focus of the thesis. I therefore highlighted professional, academic, and contextual factors. Based on this research motivation, the main research question is "What are the possible effects of ISTT on trainees' beliefs and practices? Under this main RQ are the following sub-questions.

1) Will the training result in concurrent change in trainees' beliefs about and practices in grammar teaching?

2) Will the training enable the trainees to transfer their knowledge into actual classroom practices immediately after the ISTT?

3) Will the training lead to long-term change in teachers' actual classroom practices six months after the completion of the ISTT?

1.3.Research Context

This part addresses the context in which research was carried out and introduces the language teaching program the trainees work in. The training was run at department of foreign languages at Gediz University in Izmir, Turkey, which was established in 2009. The department offers one-year pre-sessional English courses to provide students with academic English language skills to be able to follow the courses presented in English in their majors in the faculties. The students are required to graduate from the preparatory school with successful completion of B2 level in 8-month time. The main aim of the program is to develop in students the ability to use language productively at academic level. Within this context, the teachers are expected to work intensively and diligently. A teacher normally teaches

24-26 hours weekly, which is challenging for most of them. They also have other responsibilities such as proctoring, exam marking, oral exam conducting and professional development. Within the scope of the professional development activities, teachers are observed for developmental purposes and the weaknesses diagnosed in teaching are carefully noted to be included in ISTT programs for the teachers who need. In these regular observations, newly recruited teachers were observed to teach grammar through decontextualized, sentence level, rule-based, transformative and mechanical-drill oriented approach. They were identified as those who provided explicit grammatical knowledge without any emphasis on the contextual and functional aspects of grammar points. The insightful depiction and description of the pre-training observations will be presented in the findings section. Such a grammar lesson that improved only declarative knowledge is assumed to be insufficient for a successful acquisition of the grammar subjects targeted. Therefore, a training program was designed which could improve the trainees' knowledge of grammar through which they can integrate procedural knowledge as well rather than only declarative knowledge.

An ISTT model was accordingly designed to improve the trainees' linguistic knowledge about the target grammatical structures, which could help the trainees question their existing beliefs, based on a knowledge-based criterion. More specifically, the primary aim of the training was to expose the trainees to linguistic input out of which they could discover and create new insights and new beliefs and in turn new practices. The training could be an example of ISTT that specifically focus more on linguistic knowledge, less on methodological issues. This training provided for the trainees addressed structural, functional and discourse knowledge of

cleft constructions. The rationale behind this purpose was to equip the trainees with all dimensions of grammatical knowledge so that they can expand their grammar teaching perspectives and create more effective instruction.

The inclusion of linguistic content into the training aims to provide teachers intuitive insights into changed practices corroborated by the beliefs that are not erased but enriched. This conceptualization may influence trainees' views and practices in six months at conceptual and cognitive levels. The major focus is to initiate a change in trainees' mind for a better understanding and implementation of the new knowledge learnt during the training.

Thus, research will principally explore the implementation of new knowledge in teaching practice by highlighting the concurrent changes in beliefs and practices in six months. It will also insightfully elaborate on contextual and methodological constraints in the implementation of the training and the trainees' attempts to transfer new knowledge as well as personal constraints which could facilitate or hinder the long-term maintenance of teaching practices. With this in mind, facilitating and disruptive causes will also be investigated.

1.4. Significance of study

The study contributes to the existing teacher training literature in several dimensions since it evaluates the impact of short, hands-on, trainee-based inductive teacher training on teachers' beliefs and practices unlike the traditional teacher training sessions where the trainees are assigned passive roles in the internalization of knowledge and without undertaking any cognitive effort to learn new ways of

teaching. First, the conclusions drawn from the study will be meaningful not only for language teachers in that it shows clearly that teachers should be given trainings where they actively discover new pedagogies of grammar teaching by bridging theory and practice. Since the trainees will be helped out to be consciously aware of the beliefs they hold before the training and encouraged to see the changes they have been going through by asking them to teach in their own classroom in the presence of a trainer, it is clear that they will benefit pedagogically, personally and academically from the engagement in such a professional experience. Second, the findings will contribute to me as the researcher of the study as it allows me to gain new insights into how to design an effective, conceptual change promoting training projects. I have developed my professional, experiential, academic and theoretical knowledge by working in such a context. Third, the study will provide teacher trainers with a project that might have worked well enough depending on the context of the study. The key themes and constraints explored and identified will help them consider such factors when they conduct a similar program. Fourth, the study will provide insightful knowledge about how trainees may benefit from such theoretically-oriented teacher trainings under demanding working conditions as was the case in the study. Concentrated on teaching too many hours, teachers can find ample opportunity to practice new knowledge and explore the integration of it into language teaching. These exercises or trials might provide them with insights into how theoretical knowledge can have pedagogical impact on their learning and development.

Another significance of the thesis lies in the fact that it specifically investigates the changes in their conceptions of grammar teaching as well as teaching practices in

the observed lessons immediately after the training and six months after the training. There are also several unique characteristics that make this thesis original:

1. It is the first attempt to look at the impact of linguistic and language awareness training on trainees' teaching of focus constructions within a markedness framework

2. The input sessions in the study was designed by using the markedness framework. For instance, the trainees were asked to reflect on how they consider the difficulty levels of the grammatical structures and instruct them. The Implicational Generalization Hypothesis (IGH) proposed by Hamilton (1994) suggests that knowledge of more marked forms implies the knowledge of less marked ones. Since the trainees were trained to promote knowledge and skills in teaching clefts constructions which could have pragmatically and structurally varying degree of markedness, it can be thought and interpreted with reference to Hamilton's IGH that the knowledge of marked forms that teachers acquired during the training also includes knowledge of less marked forms, which could promote trainees' learning to teach unmarked structures with minimum training. However, this is only an assumption and needs to be further studied. It was not in the scope of this study to control or measure the trainees' learning and development teaching unmarked forms.

3. By exploring the impact in six months, the thesis sets out to provide evidence for the lasting impact of linguistic training on teachers' beliefs and practices. Particularly in Turkey, research regarding impact lacks this dimension. Therefore, this study has not only reported the actual changes in the trainees'

cognition and classroom practices immediately after and 6 months after the training, but also interpreted the result in ways to contribute critically to the parties in the field of in-service training. It also demonstrates clearly the complex interplay between pedagogical policies of institutions and personal and pedagogical characteristics of teachers as well as learners' profile.

1.5. Summary

This chapter presented an introduction to the thesis with an emphasis on the focus, rationale and context of the study. I also provided detailed information about the training itself and rationale for the integration of linguistic content.

CHAPTER 2

IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

2.1 Introduction

There has been an increasing need for the foreign language teachers in Turkey at especially tertiary level due to the increasing number of English-medium universities across the country. This growing demand also brings with it the need for teachers qualified more for high academic skills than for professional know-how. This trend directs particularly in-service language teachers to develop themselves professionally and academically. This need is sometimes addressed by the institutions themselves or by the language teachers themselves. If it is done by the hand of the institution, a teacher trainer is permanently employed or invited on and off to the school to give one-shot training on a particular issue needed by the teachers. On the other hand, teachers themselves may apply for the in-service teacher training programs and finance the cost themselves or partially sponsored by the institution. The topic of the training for the most part is determined not by them but by the institutions. This is based on my experience as a teacher for 17 years at state and private schools. I have never been given a needs analysis for professional development, but have been asked to attend seminars for in-service teacher training. This personal observation can also be supported by Bayrakçı (2009), stating that there is little research on the identification of in-service teachers' actual needs for professional development. The existing in-service teacher training programs organized by the ministry of Education in Turkey lack efficiency and fall short of addressing the actual needs in appropriate ways (Altun, 2011; Bayrakçı, 2009; Özer, 2004). The information about the in-service teacher training in Turkey is about the

case in the state schools such primary, secondary and high schools. Unfortunately, there is no research on the state and status of in-service teacher training in the higher education context, which needs to be explored and reported.

In the international literature, however, there are different in-service trainings available provided by specialized institutions such as NILE Teacher Training Institute in Norwich, England, conducted by ELT professionals such as Rod Bolitho, David Nunan, and Brian Tomlinson. In this institution, several short term courses spanning two weeks are offered with an emphasis on different aspects of language teaching such as methodological and pedagogical components, each prioritizing different pedagogical components of language learning and teaching. Cullen (1994) highlights on the fact that there are fairly predictable sets of components. In a methodology / pedagogical skills component, different language teaching methods and techniques are explored, and the various classroom skills the trainee needs to teach successfully are discussed and practiced. Under this component, there are methodology (usually the theoretical part), micro-teaching, and practice teaching. For the linguistics component, a primarily theoretical component, theories of language and language learning, the place of English in society and the school curriculum, and awareness of the language itself are included. In a literature component, the trainees may be required to study 'classical' or indigenous English literature, both to increase their knowledge and appreciation of the texts themselves and to help them teach some of these texts to their more advanced examination classes. Finally, there may or may not be a language improvement component that aimed at improving the general language proficiency of the trainees.

Among these components, based on the needs reported by the teachers, different training topics can be the subject. In Turkish context there is serious lack of effective needs analysis and assessment in in-service teacher training area also reported by Bayrakçı (2009). Having seen that there is almost no research on this, I carried out a needs analysis study through an online questionnaire. I collected data from 107 in-service language teachers at tertiary level in Turkey. Table 1 shows the findings.

Table 1
Needs analysis of in-service teachers

Training components	N	%
Language Improvement	39	36,4
Subject matter	24	22,4
Skills	24	22,4
Theory	13	12,1
Methodology	7	6,5
Total	107	

This short survey may show the training needs of Turkish-speaking teachers of English at tertiary level. They believe that they need training on language improvement, followed by subject matter and skills component. Theory was ranked as the fourth and the last was methodology. One reason "Theory" component was poorly ranked could be the challenge to transfer this knowledge into classroom practice. Another could be that people tend to avoid their weaknesses and prefer to work within a scope where they feel professionally competent. Similarly, in a study Berry (1990) with secondary school teachers where teachers were asked to rank methodology, theory and language improvement component considering what they need most, Berry found that theory component was ranked third out of 5 components listed in Table 1. In another study, Lafond & Doğançay-Aktuna (2009) examined the views of 61 students and alumni of graduate programs regarding the importance and relevance of linguistic theory for their pedagogical practice and found that

respondents from varying years of experience held positive views concerning the role of linguistic theory for their development as teachers. They also found a U-shaped response pattern, where the most novice and the most experienced teachers were more positive about the value of theory. They concluded that the primary objective of integrating theoretical elements in language teacher education programs should be to enhance language awareness and professional development of teachers, rather than to enable the trainees to make direct applications between theory and classroom practice. However, in this thesis, I support the view that language teachers should be trained for linguistic component or a theoretical component (Cullen, 1994) possibly an area of knowledge that could be a source of constant support to them (Edge, 1988). As a source of pedagogical decisions and developing practices, linguistic component in training requires commitment to professional development and lifelong learning and development (Barduhn, 2002). For example, by providing linguistic input in theory of markedness and information principle in English for the trainers and by helping them discover the functions and discourse of a particular marked structure namely cleft constructions, I intend to encourage the trainees not only to do professional development but also to implement this linguistic knowledge they gained from the training in their classroom practices.

The transfer issue from theory to practice is the challenge that should be discussed in more detail. In the training that is run in this study, teachers are expected to acquire linguistic knowledge or theoretical knowledge provided by the trainer and to discover practical side of the input through language awareness tasks through the active participation in the training. They are expected to see the difference between the training and its classroom applications. However, Ferguson (2002) questions how

language awareness on a teacher education relates to change in classroom practice and sees this transformation to be problematic both for trainers and trainees. He argues for a shift from thinking about language to thinking about the practical side of working with language for teaching purposes. Ferguson also suggests that the shift from conceptual work to practical level is difficult to achieve. Therefore, teachers are required to undertake new roles in teaching: working on the practical implications of linguistic knowledge. The complexity of the issues such as how language works in use and how it is learnt in use could pose difficulty for them to exercise these roles. There appears the need for them to understand the discourse view of language and language learning. The following quotation from Sweet (1899, p.99-100 cited in Trappes-Lomax, 2002) refers to this practical study of language professional: text, context, cohesion, contextual meaning:

> … we speak in sentences. But we do not generally speak in detached sentences; we speak in concatenations of sentences. … The relations between sentences and texts are analogous to those between words and sentences: both are relations of context. … the meanings of words are brought out more clearly in connected texts than in detached sentences. These considerations point clearly to the conclusion that the main foundation of the practical study of language should be connected texts, whose study must of course be accompanied by grammatical analysis.

Sweet here highlights the relation between discourse and grammar that should be focused in teaching, as well as in language teacher education, in order for language teachers to transfer linguistic knowledge into practices in teaching language. The shift of the linguistic input into practice is possible if a balance and relationship can be constructed between 'input' and 'discovery'. Both approaches to teacher learning have advantages and disadvantages. The former seems to be more direct and more economical of time and effort, while the latter could be more indirect, more time and energy consuming, thus creating a negative aspect for the

trainees (Ur, 1996). However, Ur also proposes 'enriched reflection' model where source of knowledge (whether input from outside or self-discovery) could be integrated and incorporated into the trainees' own reflective cycle for the effective teacher learning can occur. Smyth (1987), on the contrary remarks that trainees should not be provided with instrumental input that they can transform into practice, but rather the knowledge they need is rooted in practice and inseparable from the practice itself. He further argues that the linguistic input learnt through direct instruction can be easily taught. Such knowledge should be learnt through a process of exploration. During this discovery process, trainees try to make sense of it and reflect on the underlying principles implicit in action and those that they surface, criticize, restructure, and embody in further actions. However, while Wright (2002) found it effective for trainees to explore, reorganize, and consolidate their existing knowledge of language and redress misunderstandings through the practice of discovery-based activities, he also claims that if trainees are exposed to areas they are not familiar with, they may simply lose their interest to engage in due to the cognitive effort exerted to understand the new data without direct implication in teaching. In the current ISTT, the trainees are trained to learn about an area they are not familiar with, but they are implicitly guided or role modeled to discover and induce the teaching implications with the interview questions and apply them in the lessons under the researcher's observation.

2.2 The Role of Language Awareness

Language awareness (LA) is central to the issues identified by Brumfit (1997, p.167) for language education such as the description of content knowledge, the linking of content knowledge with teaching expertise, and the ways in which the connections between subject knowledge and classroom methodology in training programs to be made. LA is also a way of creating a closer relationship between content knowledge and language methodology.   A training approach prioritizing LA may offer creative ways of focusing on language learning and teaching in the classroom.

LA is also a methodology by which trainees engage in analyzing language data where they follow an inductive and discovery-oriented approach as supported by Smyth (1987). Ellis (1997), Rutherford (1987) and Nunan (1998) also argued for LA activities to enable learning through induction and employment of noticing. In a similar way, LA activities seek to enhance teachers' overall sensitivity to language. As Wright (2002) suggested, a linguistically aware teacher not only understands how language works but also can evaluate the students' struggle with language and is sensitive to errors and other interlanguage features. A teacher with language awareness can also generate metalinguistic discussions and explore specific features of a text as a learning material. Wright and Bolitho (1993) also claimed that inductive language awareness approach is particularly effective when trainees explore, reorganize and consolidate their existing knowledge of language. Wright (2002) also argued that trainees need to deepen their relationship with language, become autonomous explorers of language, to begin to develop a lifelong interest in language and to develop their sense of fun and play with language. He also

highlighted that LA activities help trainees to be involved in language data and to generate new knowledge and rules inductively by doing rather than passively absorbing expert input. The knowledge created in this way can be a tool to build a pedagogical relevance to linguistic knowledge.

Having discussed the LA activities and their effects on trainees, the main aims can be summarized as follows based on Wright (2002). These activities initiate and develop in trainees a spirit of inquiry, which in turn reduces the dependency on expert resources more than it needs to be. They also help trainees become reflective about language by creating a process whereby they develop links between linguistic knowledge and classroom activity. Trainees can also explore ways of integrating the content and the methodology.

2.3 Transfer of Linguistic Input in the Classroom Practice

Though in in-service teacher trainings, LA activities can be clearly and efficiently conducted, it is challenging to provide this transformation. Ferguson (2002) discusses three issues: 1) what kind of activity is teaching, 2) how teachers change their classroom practice, 3) how practical a teacher education course is.

For the first question, the definition of teaching should be clarified. Freeman (1994) argued against the views that trainees trained for LA can transfer new knowledge in the classroom in that teaching is not just putting knowledge in the shape of pedagogical theory or language awareness into action but knowing in action as it is highly context-bound.

The second question can be clarified with reference to Ferguson (2002) who claims that LA activities do not lead directly to change in classroom practice. LA is a necessary component but quite insufficient to cause a change in trainees' classroom practice. Ferguson (1993), Fullan (1982), Hurst (1983) cited in Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson (2002) suggest conditions for how LA should be implemented to create change in classroom practices. Firstly, training and support must be provided before and during the implementation of LA activities. Secondly, the training site should be close to where the trainees teach. In addition, not only the individual training but also the group or department should be involved in the training. Finally, training should allow for experimentation with and adaptation of the innovative idea in its context, namely in the classrooms. The extent to which these conditions are ensured will determine the success level of any training that might lead to change in teachers' classroom practices. In the current study, all these conditions have been met particularly in terms of the support by the trainer and an active context where new ideas could be experimented and adapted in the classrooms.

The third question is related to the context of the teacher education course. Lavender (2002) proposed a framework for this aspect as adapted by Ferguson (2002), which is as follows:

Figure 1. Context for a teacher education course

1. Training course in trainees' setting. Trainees come from a homogenous range of institutions.	2. Training course in trainees' setting (i.e. country or institution) Trainees come from a heterogeneous range of institutions (possibly from different countries
3. Training course in trainer's setting (e.g. UK). Trainees come from homogenous range of institutions (and possibly from same country)	4. Training course in trainer's setting (e.g. UK) Trainees come from a heterogeneous range of institutions (possibly from different countries

According to figure 1, as one moves from cell 1 to cell 4 it will be less and less likely to create a direct link between language awareness and the trainees own classroom. More specifically, the trainees will find it harder to think about the implications of LA activities in their classroom practice. The closer the setting is to the trainee's, the more effective the training will be particularly in terms of the extent to which knowledge and skills acquired during the training can be transferred into their classroom practices. Therefore, the least effective one, according to Ferguson, will be the fourth option as the group members come from different countries and the setting for the training is not the trainees' workplace.

A brief link to my study can be mentioned to justify why the in-service training based on theoretical knowledge and LA could be successful in helping trainees transfer in the classroom practices.: 1) training site and trainees classrooms are in the same site, 2) training and support will start from the very beginning even before the training (interviews, observations, post observation sessions), 3) training is group-based where trainees will learn collaboratively from each other as well, 4) during and after the training, the trainees will be able to experiment and adapt their innovative ideas either in their classrooms or in the materials they are supposed to

write as part of the training. These dimensions of the current study can contribute to the accomplishment of the training on trainees' classroom practices and beliefs.

2.4 Teacher Language Awareness (TLA)

This section argues the importance of possession of high level of explicit knowledge of grammar for an L2 teacher. Language awareness was first dealing with LA of learners, suggesting that learners with the ability to provide accurate analysis and description of language are likely to be effective users of the language. The argument is the existence of a direct connection between possessing explicit knowledge of formal aspects of language and performance in using the language. More specifically, it is claimed that language users with higher levels of explicit knowledge can relatively better perform the language. This assumption was more based on the language development of learners and less on that of language teachers (Hawkins, 1984; Sinclair, 1985; Carter, 1994; McCarthy and Carter, 1994; van Lier, 1995; 1996). However, Andrews (2007, p.10) discusses the potential direct contribution of explicit knowledge of the language coupled with the ability to describe and analyze it to effective teaching. Edge (1988, p.9) also highlights the centrality of knowledge about language and language learning in language teacher training. In practice, Bolitho and Tomlinson (1980; 1995), Wright (1994) and Thornbury (1997) integrate language awareness development activities based on this assumption. More recently, Andrews (1999b) and McNeill (1999) evidence the potential influence of TLA on teaching effectiveness. The present study also explores empirical evidence that supports the assumption that explicit knowledge of formal aspects of language does have a powerful impact on teaching effectively. With this in mind, in line with Andrews 2007, p.29), an in-service language teacher training was

designed to encompass the major components of Language Awareness: a) subject matter knowledge, which is crucial to the successful application of TLA in pedagogical practice (Thornbury, 1997) b) language proficiency, which is of significance in the quality of teachers' reflections about the language and in using structurally accurate and functionally appropriate language when mediating language contained in materials, language used by the learner, and language produced by himself/herself (Andrews 2007, p. 39) and c) teachers' awareness of language from learners' perspective, more specifically, of learners' developing interlanguage. For component *a*, information principle in English is focused to provide the trainers with a framework of how information is structured in English, highlighting the interplay between old and new information and its contribution to the textual and contextual meaning represented by the syntactic forms. For component *b*, cleft constructions (it-clefts and wh-clefts) were introduced with their forms, meanings and uses in context as well as the functions they undertake in texts. For component *c*, markedness theory was described and discussed to raise teachers' awareness of learners' perspective, especially of markedness degrees of the forms they are going to teach. By doing so, teachers can consider the degrees of difficulty, frequency and complexity of what they are teaching in relation to the similarities and differences between learners' first language system and that of the second language they are learning.

According to Andrews (2007, p. 40), there are also attitudinal and contextual factors in the successful application of TLA in pedagogical practice. The former includes teachers' self-confidence, or lack of confidence about grammar, and teachers' overemphasis on content knowledge rather than methodology, classroom organization and student responsiveness. The latter covers factors such as pressure of

time and the imposed necessity to follow a prescribed syllabus. The current research

also considers these factors and discusses the potential impact of these factors on the

teachers and their classroom practices.

Thornbury (1997, p. x) defined TLA as 'the knowledge that teachers have of

the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively'. This

definition assumes the direct relation between the subject matter knowledge and

teaching. It also implies a fact also suggested by Edge (1988, p.10) that an effective

teacher needs to undertake the role of *analyst* of the language not only to be able to

talk about the language itself but also to analyze it and to understand how it works to

respond appropriately and accurately to doubtful cases. Similarly, Hales (1997,

p.217) supports the role of subject-matter knowledge on language awareness. She

argues that LA requires being sensitive to grammatical, lexical, or phonological

features as well as to different meanings conveyed by different forms in use. The

lack of subject matter knowledge may lead to confusion in the classroom. In one of a

series of observations I made with the trainees as part of this project, one trainee

experienced difficulty in explaining the difference between ergative and passive use

of the same verb, *open*. When he presented the following sentences on the board *the

door opened* and *the door was opened*, a student asked why there are two similar

forms to convey the same meaning and added that there should be difference in

meaning. The trainee attempted to provide an explanation but failed to show the

ungrammaticality of *the door was opened* when used without an agent in by-phrase.

The explanation was that in the ergative form, what opened the door is an external

factor, while in the passive form it is someone but we are not informed who because

it is not important to know. The central role of subject matter is once again revealed

in this classroom case where the teacher provided inaccurate and insufficient information. However, the teacher managed to explain mechanical exercises that require transforming sentences from active to passive and to ergative and vice versa, but failed to provide information on meanings of these forms, resulting from a gap in subject matter knowledge. It seems that form and meaning relation is not adequately acquired by the teacher who lacks the relevant knowledge of the underlying systems of the language as claimed by Hales (1997, p.217).

The complexity of TLA can also be discussed in relation to the link between subject matter knowledge and language proficiency. Any weakness in the latter could be a barrier to the successful application of the former in that language proficiency is the medium of the subject matter knowledge. The weakness may manifest itself in teachers' content related activity both pre-lesson and in-lesson (Andrews, 2007, p.27). During the preparation of a grammar-based lesson, a language-aware teacher reflects on lesson content and includes in the materials both explicit knowledge of grammar subject and the communicative uses of these forms. Therefore, according to Andrews (2007, p.28), any model of TLA should consider the close relation between knowledge of subject matter and language proficiency, the need to reflect on this knowledge for communicative purposes, the need to reflect upon subject matter and language proficiency for planning and teaching process as well as an awareness of language from learners' perspective to identify the possible difficulties posed by the materials and lessons, which could be closely related to markedness theory, a theory leading to a hierarchy among the grammatical forms of the same set or to a criterion that helps identify the markedness degree of forms in relation to others.

2.5 TLA and Pedagogical Content Knowledge

A close link is claimed to exist between TLA and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in many studies (see, e.g., Shulman, 1987; Brophy, 1991; Gess-Newsome and Lederman, 1999; and Turner-Bisset, 1999 and 2001) as cited in Andrews (2007, p. 29). According to Brophy (1991, p. xii), PCK is defined as 'a special form of professional understanding that is unique to teachers and combines knowledge of the content to be taught with knowledge of what students know or think they know about this content and knowledge of how this content can be represented to the students through examples, analogies, etc. in ways that are most likely to be effective in helping them to attain the intended outcomes of instruction'.

This view highlights the role of teachers in mediating content to the students to accomplish an effective student learning. Similarly, Turner and Bisset (2001) describe PCK as the indispensible part of effective teaching. On the other hand, Freeman (2002) approaches the complexity of PCK from students' and teachers' sources of linguistic knowledge emphasizing that the prior knowledge and concepts of language of the former are largely from L1 acquisition process, but that those of teachers can be defined in linguistic terms. Freeman claims that there are three potentially conflicting elements: teachers' linguistic knowledge, the students' first language background and the classroom language interactions, for which Freeman regards PCK a messy and even unworkable concept that could be paralleled with subject matter.

However, Andrews (2007, p.30) discusses the crucial role of TLA at this interface described as conflicting elements by Freeman. These potential conflicts can

be overcome by the language-aware teacher who possesses knowledge of subject matter and language proficiency. Shulman's view (1987, p.15) also lends support to this case described above by claiming that 'the key to distinguishing the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by the students'. This shows that teachers' subject matter based on linguistic knowledge and students' prior knowledge based on L1 could well be combined to enhance learning outcomes of learners through pedagogically informed instructional decisions of language-aware teachers.

The inadequacy of subject matter alone is justified by Duff (1988), arguing the need for an L2 teacher to possess a comprehensive knowledge of language they teach, as it is this knowledge of subject matter that informs TLA. This view is also supported by Andrews (2007, p.32), who regards subject matter knowledge as the core conception of TLA and as the knowledge selectively drawn upon by the teacher in order to facilitate the learners' acquisition of language. Knowledge of subject matter without awareness may not aid in learning process. So it is the awareness of teachers with subject matter that actually leads to the facilitation of the learning.

These ideas outlined above show that TLA plays a key role in teacher effectiveness. Andrews (2007, p.32) attempts to justify what Wright and Bolitho claim as 'the more aware a teacher is of language and how it works, the better' with reference to the three options in language teaching by Long and Robinson (1998): '*focus on formS*', '*focus on form*' and '*focus on meaning*'. The first of these, 'focus

on formS', refers to teaching discrete points of language without any reference to the 'sentence beyond' level. TLA is of potentially crucial role in this approach by which learners' explicit knowledge is developed. This approach also requires a carefully designed lesson as well as a systematic and comprehensive corrective feedback by the teacher. The ability to provide these for the students inevitably requires TLA.

The second is 'focus on form' which refers to overt attention to incidentally arising linguistic elements in lessons where the main aim is to promote a meaning or communication-based tasks or activities. This approach is associated with Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) with strong and weak versions as adapted by Skehan (1996, p.2003). The former implies that forms are learnt with little instruction by the teacher, while in the latter explicit instruction can be provided pre- or after the communicative tasks are conducted. TLA plays a key role in both versions of TBLT in that spontaneous linguistic problems arising out of the activities in the strong version necessitate the ability to decide on effective ways of improving learning, just as the weak version requires teachers to concentrate on grammar points before, during and after the tasks with a predetermined well-designed plan (Richards, 2002, and Nunan, 2004).

The third is 'focus on meaning', which is in line with natural approaches where learners are allowed to construct their own interlanguages without specifically taught grammar as in the L1 acquisition process. This option also requires teachers to have a considerable level of language awareness in that they need to select texts for comprehensible input, devise tasks linguistically adjusted to the learners' level,

and control their classroom language use a little beyond learners' current level of competence (Andrews 2007, p.34).

2.6 The Impact of TLA on Teacher Behavior

In recent years, there have been various attempts to evidence that limited knowledge of the target language may pose challenges to the planning of teaching and learning objectives (Edge 1988; Cullen 1994; Barnes 2002; Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson 2002; Andrews 2007). The issue is more specifically examined and discussed by Thornbury (1997) in terms of the effect of TLA on teacher behavior. Thornbury (1997, p. xii), for example, explored the various dimensions of the issue and argued the possible instructional impact of weak language awareness on teachers in four main categories: a) a failure on the part of the teacher to anticipate learners' learning problems and a consequent inability to plan lessons that are pitched at the right level; b) an inability to interpret course book syllabuses and materials and to adapt these to the specific needs of the learners; c) an inability to deal satisfactorily with errors, or to field learners' queries; d) a general failure to earn the confidence of the learners due to a lack of basic terminology and ability to present new language clearly and efficiently. The list of teacher behavior ranges from methodology to teaching and learning process. It seems inevitable that teachers with limited or inadequate language awareness may experience various teaching-related challenges in second language teaching. In addition, Wright and Bolitho (1993) argue that there is a significant positive relation between TLA and pedagogic tasks such preparing lessons; evaluating, adapting and writing materials; understanding, interpreting and designing syllabuses; and assessing learners' performance. These tasks are at the

core of classroom practices and therefore an insufficient degree of language awareness may lower teachers' performance particularly when a teacher is unable to identify and compensate for shortcomings in a course book, or is "caught out" by a learner's question on the language' (Wright and Bolitho, 1993, p.292). This assumption can be rationalized with reference to a survey applied to English native-speaker teachers of EFL, where they were asked to characterize the grammatical knowledge and awareness required of teachers (Andrews, 1994). The following specific areas were identified as to how TLA may affect teacher behavior:

1) Knowledge of grammatical terminology

2) Understanding of the concepts associated with terms

3) Awareness of meaning/language in communication

4) Ability to reflect on language and analyze language forms

5) Ability to select/grade language and break down grammar points for teaching purposes

6) Ability to analyze grammar from learners' perspective

7) Ability to anticipate learners' grammatical difficulties

8) Ability to deal confidently with spontaneous grammar questions

9) Ability to think on one's feet in dealing with grammar problems

10) Ability to explain grammar to students without complex meta language

11) Awareness of 'correctness' and ability to justify an opinion about what is acceptable usage and what is not

12) Sensitivity to language/awareness of how language works

(Andrews, 1994, p.75)

Leech (1994, p.18) also collected a set of similar data on the 'mature communicative knowledge' of grammar required by the teacher. He concluded that a model teacher a) should be capable of putting across a sense of how grammar interacts with the lexicon as a communicative system, b) be able to analyze the grammatical problems that learners encounter, c) have the ability and confidence to evaluate the use of grammar, especially by learners, against criteria of accuracy, appropriateness and expressiveness, d) be aware of the contrastive relations between native language and foreign language; e) understand and implement the processes of simplification by which overt knowledge of grammar can best be presented to learners at different stages of learning.

These specific areas elicited to characterize the qualities that EFL teachers are supposed to have in different studies. Thornbury (1997); Leech (1994), and Wright and Bolitho (1993) interestingly coincide with one another in terms of the teacher characteristics covered. As Andrews (2007) points out, both of the lists basically have three pedagogical areas: knowledge, awareness and ability directly related to 'input'– 'the target language samples to which the learner is exposed' (Ellis, 1990, p. 96). These studies seem to share the idea that language teachers should have language awareness which also has a bearing on their classroom behaviors.

The crucial role of input in second language learning is comprehensively discussed by Ellis, who argues that second language learners learn the target language from the samples of that language to which he/she is exposed, either deliberately or incidentally (Ellis, 2005, p.217), and successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input'. It is the distinctive way input is mediated to the

learners that shows the significance of teacher language awareness. Presenting input in a way conducive to learning seems to depend on teachers' pedagogical capacity and degree of language awareness.

This current training aimed to improve teaching competences of the trainees particularly by promoting knowledge of subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge, and by raising language awareness in order to facilitate transfer of this knowledge to the classroom setting.

The next section will focus on the theoretical framework of the study, namely markedness theory, information structuring and focus constructions, particularly cleft constructions.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: MARKEDNESS

3.1 Markedness

Markedness theory has been considered by researchers in SLA to have applicability in the learning and teaching of a second language. Therefore, the term has been interpreted in different linguistic domains with a different focus. Since its introduction in the 1930s, it has been used in the explanation of first and second language acquisition, foreign language learning and teaching, and other related sub fields of language because the notion of markedness helps to account for why some forms are acquired earlier than others or learnt more easily than others. And most importantly it can capture both universal and language- specific constraints. The training for the current research highlighted Turkish-specific constraints in understanding the forms, functions, and meaning of cleft constructions with a view to promoting cross linguistic awareness in the trainees.

Markedness is a term first introduced by Trubetzkoy (1939) and Jakobson (1941), who carried out phonological study of adult language typology. They argue that markedness theory highlights distinctions between pairs of related forms and structures contained in each member and the range of distribution of each. More specifically, they claim that the unmarked form has an unspecified and thus considerably wider range of distribution, appearing as it does in neutral-hence unmarked-contexts. For example, Jacobson hypothesized that the contrast between the openness of the low vowel [a] and the total closeness of the labial consonant [p]

is learnt early in child language and is a universal language property and will be the last to be lost in cases of Aphasia.

On the other hand, the marked form contains at least one more feature, morpheme, or rule than the unmarked counterpart. This distinction can reveal psycholinguistic implications in that markedness involves complexity and expectation (Santos, 1987). The marked form is regarded as the more complex of the related forms with an additional feature, morpheme, or rule. Clark (1973) supports this view by stressing that the comprehension of such complex forms are processed in a slightly longer time. Similarly, Givon (1995) defines markedness as associating structural complexity, frequency distribution, and cognitive complexity. It follows from this that marked elements are structurally more complex, less frequent and therefore cognitively more salient as also stated by Callies (2009, p. 53). It is then natural that such complex structures require more attention, more mental effort and cause more processing time for the recipient. These will be considered respectively. However, as criticized by Dryer (1995), Givon's definition does not include the difficulty likely to be experienced by the speakers. The characterization of markedness in Naturalness Theory by Dressler et al (1987) also shows that markedness is closely related to the cognitive–physiological complexity of linguistic units. From another perspective identified a decade ago, Eckman (1977) relates this psychological complexity to a measure of degree of difficulty. To Eckman, if it is assumed that humans learn to do things which are less complex before they learn to do things which are more complex, thus markedness can accurately reflect difficulty. All these perspectives have one thing in common: the processing of marked structures require more cognitive work. More specifically, the unmarked form is

considered to be the more expected item as it has a wider range of distribution and is a more basic form, while marked forms are expected forms only when specific information highlighting is intended.

Markedness can also be interpreted in the framework of Universal Grammar (UG). UG   presents an inherent learning hierarchy in the process of second language acquisition (Battistella, 1996). White (1989) notes that markedness can also account for the acquisition sequence with reference to the difficulty of acquiring certain constructions and transferability of rules across languages. More specifically, learners are thought to have already acquired knowledge of the L1, by setting the appropriate parameters guided by UG based on the data they are exposed to. When such a person having already set the parameters for the language s/he would be using begins to learn another, it is then inevitable that some transfer will occur from the acquired system to the new one. The features to be transferred and the degree of the transfer are closely related to the typological relationship of the L1 and the L2. When the parameters for the same principle coincide in the L1 and the L2, then positive transfer will be observed, but if they do not, negative transfer or interference may occur. In other words, the unmarked linguistic features may be first transferred to the target language if the degree of markedness is the same for the two languages. However, if the degree of markedness between the two languages interacting in the process of learning differs, then these structures may be more difficult to acquire. Platzack's (1996) Initial Hypothesis of Syntax holds that the initial states of the L1 and the L2 acquisition are identical in that the initial state (UG) includes functional categories with all features set at default or unmarked strength, namely weak, claimed to be the default value.

However, as the overt movement on the surface structures to shape the surface form to convey the intended meaning and the communication effect is costly (Chomsky 1993, 1995), all learners, whether the L1 or the L2, are assumed to acquire or learn weak forms even if the L1 grammar has strong feature values. It is claimed by White (2003) that the learner first has to identify the strong features and set them on the basis of the L2 input to which s/he is exposed and in which there is evidence for overt movement. Liceras (1986) and Mazurkewich (1984) predict in the Initial Hypothesis of Syntax that L2 learners resort to unmarked options made available by UG regardless of the situation in the L1. However, there is also experimental evidence that this view is controversial. For example, White (1990 and 1991) suggests that L2 learners do not first learn all features set at weak values, referring to the French-speaking learners of English who transfer strong features from the L1 to the L2, hence allowing verb movement over adverbs in the L2.

According to generative transformational grammar, markedness is seen as a criterion for identifying whether marked structures are part of innate language faculty (core grammar) or part of peripheral grammar (periphery grammar). Chomsky (1986) describes core grammar as that part of the relatively stable (steady) state of the language faculty that results from the setting of parameters in UG (unmarked rules of grammar). For example, WH-movement (i.e. Move α) is presented as a core rule of English. Periphery grammar is additional, marked, language-specific rules and exceptions in language such as moving specific constituents in the canonical word order. Constituents are fronted by pre-posing or placed at the end by postposing and/or extraposing to meet the discourse and contextual linguistic requirements. It is

this external grammar to which focus constructions are claimed to belong. One reason for this is that such sentences have structures that are exceptions to those produced through the principles and parameters set by the first language acquirers when they were first exposed to the linguistic data. However, when this is applied to the SLA context, most of the knowledge and skills involved in the L2 falls outside the UG domain (Jordan 2004, p.255). Therefore, a UG-based approach to the issue may not be enough to account for the comprehension and use of syntactic and lexico-grammatical phenomena.

Within the functional framework, *functional typology* seeks to describe patterns of similarities and differences among languages and to determine which types and patterns occur more/less frequently or are universal in distribution as well as how language structure, meaning, and use are integrated (Troike, 2006). The application of this approach to SLA includes what developmental stages of L2 acquisition are, why some L2 constructions are more or less difficult than others for learners to acquire, how selective cross linguistic influence or transfer is and/or why some elements of L1 transfer to L2 and some do not. From this perspective, the notion of markedness is a related concept that helps specify whether any specific feature of a language is "marked" or "unmarked. Based on functional framework, a feature is "unmarked" if it occurs more frequently than a contrasting element in the same category, if it is less complex structurally or conceptually, or if it is more "normal" or "expected" along some other dimension.

Table 2

Markedness Differential Predictions for SLA from Troike (2006)

Feature in L1	Feature in L2	Prediction
Marked	Unmarked	L2 feature will be easy to learn
		L1 feature will not transfer to L2
Unmarked	Marked	L1 feature will transfer to L2

This notion can be applied to all levels of linguistic analysis as cited by Troike (2006, p.65-66). For instance, in phonology, the universal syllable structure which occurs in languages of the world is CV (consonant _ vowel, as in *me* and *ba-nana*), so this structure is "unmarked". It is much less common to have a sequence of c-clusters at the beginning or end of syllables; English sequences like *street* [stri:t] and *fence* [fɛnts] are "marked" in this respect. In addition, in vocabulary, the preposition *in* denotes location while the preposition *into* is more complex, denoting both location and directionality. *Into* is thus "marked" in contrast with *in* because it is both structurally and conceptually more complex. In syntax, on the other hand, the basic word order in sentences of SVO (subject–verb– object) is more common in languages of the world than is SOV. SVO is thus relatively "unmarked" and SOV relatively "marked." In discourse, the expected "unmarked" answer to the English formulaic greeting "How are you?" is "*Fine, How are you*?" (No matter how the respondent is actually feeling). A response which reports information about one's health or other personal conditions is not expected in this routine exchange, and so is "marked." Similarly, the "unmarked" response to a question requesting information is an answer about the same topic. Silence or a comment on a different topic is a "marked" response because it is not in accord with "normal" conversational practice.

The issue of markedness has been discussed in relation to different areas of linguistics. However, there are some other studies concerning the L2 setting that highlight how structures with different degrees of markedness in the L1 and the L2 are acquired. For example, Jakobson (1941) discussed the order and relative difficulty for acquisition and predicted that unmarked elements are likely to be acquired before marked ones in children's L1 and to be easier for a learner to master in the L2. Similarly, Eckman (1977) suggests selective transfer from the L1 to the L2 and proposes the *Markedness Differential Hypothesis*, in which he predicts that unmarked features in the L1 are more likely to transfer, as well as that marked features in the L2 will be harder to learn. However, transfer also depends on the typological closeness of the two languages involved. In the scope of transfer, what might be easy to transfer for a pair of language, may not be so for another pair. As McLaughlin (1987, p.90) suggests, the fact that some L1 structures are transferred and others are not relates to the degree of markedness of the structures in the various languages. It seems that previously learnt structures in languages may have positive or negative transfer effect on those in others to be learnt by making the target structures either easy to learn or hard to do so. According to Odlin (2003), this cross-linguistic influence results from similarities and differences between the target language and any other languages previously acquired (possibly imperfectly) (p.27). Such knowledge constructed in connection with the knowledge system of the native language may lead to positive transfer as well as interference, avoidance and overproduction.

Though markedness is one of the many second language acquisition theories that have been used particularly in the domain of speech science it has also provided

implications for language teaching and learning. However, there is limited application within other linguistic domains. One of the studies in the area of L2 vocabulary has been carried out by Özek and Yıldız (2012) who examined the significant roles of markedness constraints in vocabulary learning by developing a Markedness, Strategy and Input (as they termed as MSI model).

The application of markedness for a teacher training is a first attempt to promote grammar teaching skills of novice teachers. Promoting trainees' knowledge about language through the acquisition of theoretical knowledge of markedness could raise their awareness in teaching marked structures since markedness theory justifies why some grammatical forms are more difficult to learn than others, thus helping to understand what makes them difficult. This research adapts the discussion of markedness theory in relation to learners into the teachers' context by highlighting the teaching difficulties of particular marked structures. Through the training, it is expected that the trainees will promote knowledge about difficulty levels of forms or more specifically markedness degree of the grammatical structures, and implement an instruction that includes this consideration. Other than that, developing ways of how to teach marked constructions during the training may also help them understand how to teach less marked structures.

3.2 Marked Word Order

The topic of the in-service teacher training is focus constructions, which are transformed versions of canonical word order in English. These non-canonical word orders are also called marked word orders. Syntactic patterns with non- canonical word orders such as those deviating from the underlying word order (Subject-Verb-

Object) in English represent marked syntactic devices. The marked word orders are utilized to create special meanings intended by the discourse. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) suggest that marked word order can be defined as the movement of a constituent where we would not ordinarily expect to find it. Pienemann (1998) defined canonical word order as the consistent use of SVO. On the other hand, the use of word orders that do not conform to the basic SVO can be referred to as non-canonical word order. More specifically, the structure created or used would not be generated by the phrase structure rules in that position as in SVO. For example,

1. a) …..the war brings out in people *extraordinary mobility*(non-canonical word order)

   b) …...the war brings out *extraordinary mobility* in people (canonical word order)

In 1a, the NP in the object position is postponed for pragmatic purposes, while in 1b, the object NP is in the obligatory position. Postposed NP in 1a serves as the new information. More specifically, [1a] cannot be generated by phrase structure rules, which makes it marked.

There are three reasons, according to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, for achieving focus through non-canonical word-orders. One is discourse constraints or to manage given and new information, while the other is to express counter-expectancy, contrast, or emphasis. The current research will be focusing on implementing markedness within syntactic as well as pragmatic framework because

it is the pragmatic aspect of the issue that makes the focus constructions more marked.

To identify which syntactic focus constructions are marked over the other types, the following discussions are made based on Haspelmath's (2003) fundamental explanatory factors in grammatical research. These are as follows:

(I) processing preferences (minimization of coding effort: economy and minimization of decoding effort: distinctiveness, parsability). The constructions for syntactic focusing - deviant from canonical word order - are coded later than the basic word order sentences by L2 learners. This is more common if the first language of the learner is typologically distant from the language learnt. In the same way, if the coded message is conveyed with a complex, unexpected structure, the listener will spend more time comprehending it, causing difficulty. Therefore, these constructions can be counted as marked in terms of processing.

(II) speakers' conceptual-pragmatic preferences for certain referents in language use (e.g. talking more about present situations than about future situations). L2 learners may choose to convey information not through complex and rare sentence structures but by those that are easier to produce. To use syntactic focus constructions requires pragmatically rich linguistic settings where they need to convey information with detailed emphasis on some part of the utterance rather than on others, so they need to be dealing with dialogues with the native speakers where turn-taking is frequent and there is constant contradiction of what is being said, which is hard to find in the FL context. Therefore, the lack of situations makes it less preferred by the learner and it

becomes marked for such learners. Another reference can be made in Givón (1995, p.58) to account for the markedness of syntactic focus constructions based on his meta-iconic markedness principle which states that categories that are *cognitively* marked tend also to be *structurally* marked. More specifically, cognitive complexity leads to structural markedness. It is clear that Givon considers cognitive complexity as an indication of structural markedness. He claims that the diagnosis of cognitive complexity can be determined by the attention, mental effort or processing time that is spent on the pattern. Therefore, it can be thought that the structurally complex sentences in which information is highlighted through syntactic means (resorting to non-canonical word orders) could lead to overload for the cognition to process.

On the other hand, Haspelmath (1993, p.87) suggests that the formally derived (or marked) words are generally also semantically derived in that they have some additional meaning element that is lacking in the formally basic (or unmarked) word. This correlation has been identified as an instance of diagrammatic iconicity. The difficulty of the formally derived words is associated with the difficulty of the semantically derived words, which creates an additional meaning not found in the unmarked form. This shows that syntactic focus constructions also carry additional meaning not possible to be inferred from those with the canonical word orders having the same propositional meanings. This extra information carried in these kinds of sentences may lead to complexity both for the speaker and for the listener, not to mention the L2 learner. Having mentioned the markedness theory from different approaches, it is now necessary to elaborate on the syntactic focus constructions by which information highlighting is performed in English.

3.3 Means of Information Highlighting in English

In English there are three types of means used to highlight information in a sentence. More specifically, focus and emphasis can be expressed in three ways. One is phonologically by employing special stress and intonation. The second is by using lexico-grammatical means such as auxiliary verb *do*, some focus particles such as those with restrictive meaning; *alone, only, just merely*, and with additive meaning; *also, too, even* as well as pragmatic markers such as *you know, well, like or actually*. The third is by using syntactic focus constructions involving marked word order and focus constructions. The thesis investigates the interface between morpho-syntactic issues could promote the trainees' understanding of multidimensional aspects such as syntax, pragmatics and discourse. The phonological (prosody) and lexico-grammatical means of information highlighting such as emphatic *do*, reflexives, focus particles, and lexical intensifiers will not be examined but can be an area for further research.

Therefore, this study will particularly focus on the latter to help the trainees to develop deeper theoretical knowledge about grammatical forms, function and use of focus constructions to teach them in their classroom practices in more effective ways. The subject matter knowledge or context knowledge of the training is based on a syntactical structure because the thesis is primarily based on developing the trainees' theoretical knowledge about cleft constructions and raising their awareness in functions and meaning of these constructions to impact upon their grammar teaching beliefs and actual practices.

3.4 Approaches to Focus

Focus is defined by Jakendoff (1972) as the non-presupposed information – new information- part of the sentence. More specifically, focus is the information not shared by the speaker and hearer before it is uttered in the sentence (Horwath, 2005). Focus is also referred to as "information focus" (Kiss 1998) or "presentational focus" (Rochemont, 1986), contrastive focus (Rochemont, 1986), identificational focus (E. Kiss 1998), and emphatic focus (Zubizaretta, 1998). The variety of the subtypes of focus can be accounted for by the variety of the discourse contexts where distinct semantic properties and syntactic realizations can be observed (Horwath, 2005). Another classification is attributed to Selkirk (1984) who mentions two broad groups of focus constructions. One is the wide/projecting focus which highlights new information, while the other is narrow focus which serves as contrastive function. Similarly, Drubig and Schaffar (2001, p.1079) distinguish between presentational and contrastive focus constructions also termed as contrastive focus constructions and marked topic constructions by Givon (2001). Contrastive focus constructions isolate narrowly focused arguments or adjuncts in specific syntactic positions which are interpreted as contrastive information (Drubig and Schaffar (2001, p. 1085). On the other hand, inversions, extraposition, and there-constructions are among presentational focus constructions that convey wide focus and have event-introducing and presentational function (Callies 2009, p.32). Syntactic focus constructions have presentational function that carries either new information or is used to front the given information and open room for the new information that is to be moved to the right to adjust information principle in English. These constructions can also have a contrastive function when they do not highlight new information but rather contradict the information that has just been said. 2 shows that speaker A starts

his utterance "What I'd like to know" to indicate that he is going to say something new to speaker B. In 2, wh- clefts function as presentational rather than contrastive.

2.

A: I am really very sorry to disturb you. It is just that we're making a few inquiries about Margery Phipps.

B: What's this all about?

A: *What I'd like to know* is exactly what you did after shooting finished on the day that Margery Phipps died.   (Carlson   1985, p.227)

However, in 3, it-cleft construction is used to highlight contrastive information that has a narrow focus. The phrase "*a factory*" is not new information in the dialogue but contrasts with the house previously mentioned. Therefore, *it-cleft* construction is used for contrastive focus.

3.

A: I have heard that you have had *a house* in Berlin.

B: You have heard wrong. It is *a factory* that I have bought in Berlin, not a house.

What follows is a brief account of the focus constructions such as inversions, extraposition, preposing and it-clefts. After the overview of these constructions, a justification will be made to elaborate on the type of the focus constructions to be employed during the in-service teacher training.

3.4.1. Inversion

Birner (1996) suggests that inversions serve an information-packaging function and identify two discourse-pragmatic constraints on its felicitous occurrence, both relating to the information status of sentence constituents: the fronted constituents and the verb (other than be) that can appear in full inversion have to represent information that is relative to the postposed constituents. Birner (1996, p.12) defines inversion as a sentence type in which logical subject appears in post-verbal position while some other, canonically post verbal, constituents appears in clause-initial position. Such a structure involves the fronting of a constituent as well as subject-verb inversion. The constituents that can be fronted include a prepositional phrase (PP), a verb phrase (VP) headed by a present or past participle, an adjective phrase (AdjP), or an NP. The following examples are categorized with references to the syntactic features of the subject complements and include those that are not allowed owing to the semantic restrictions (Biber et al. 1999).

1. Subject–Complement inversion with be

Joe is the best rider on the team.   The best rider on the team is Joe.

Honesty is great.   Great is honesty.

Mrs. Kaya is in the kitchen   In the kitchen is Mrs. Kaya.

In this group complements of "be" such as NP, AdjP and PP, which are canonically post-verbal constituents, can be moved to clause-initial position.

2. Subject–Complement inversion with verbs of motion and position

Mr. Pitt sits in the garden.   In the garden sits Mr. Pitt.

The robber crouched behind the counter.   Behind the counter crouched the robber.

The cat jumped up.   Up jumped the cat.

The cat scurried under the bed.   Under the bed scurried the cat.

In this group, where inversions are allowed with the verbs of existence and appearance related to the presentational functions of inversions (Biber et al. 1999, p.911). The verbs inverted seem to have locative meanings.

3.4.2. Preposing

Preposing is a "sentence type(s) in which a canonically post-verbal phrasal constituent appears in preverbal position" (Birner and Ward 1998, p.31). The constituents that can be preposed can be any phrasal category. However, of all the would-be fronting structures, VP preposing is the most constrained one. Birner and Ward suggest that preposing serves as an information-packaging function and it is linked to the preceding discourse, which means the preposed constituent must represent the previously evoked information (1998, p.45). Birner and Ward classify preposing as two types. One is focus preposing where the proposed constituent contains the focus of the utterance. This type of focus also includes echoing, which is used to convey a speaker's uncertainty in order to question or challenge the linked part. The other is topicalization where the pre-posed constituent is the sentence topic or theme for contrastive emphasis (Birner and Ward, 1998, p.88).

4.

[I graduated from high school as] an average student. My initiative didn't

carry me any further than average. *History* I found to be dry. *Math courses* I was never good at. *Sciences* I enjoyed. ... Football was my bag (Prince 1981, p. 253, from Terkel, p. 590)

5.

At the chilly boarding-school to which her parents sent her in the mistaken belief that she would be less lonely among girls of her own age, the prizes for mathematics – a subject which she didn't particularly care for but which came easily to her – were framed reproductions of the works of Italian painters. Duccios and Signorellis and Martinis hung by her bedside at a time when other girls pinned up Elvis and Cliff or even Paul Anka. _Such pictures_ she always found calming to her nerves [. . .] (BNC FB9, 74–76)

6.

It's difficult to do so, but we must get behind our team and manager unfortunately this is the team we all chose to support, and _support them_ we must. (Internet mailing list BLACKCATS, November 5, 2001)

7.

Well, this term [Old Europe, MC] is now here to stay, and is well-used throughout policy discussions by parties other than America or Old or New Europe. You might not like its use, but _used_ it is – by non-Americans and non-Old Euros alike. (Internet discussion forum http://www.talkaboutusa.com)

In these extracts from corpus, the NPs "history, math courses and sciences and such pictures, VP (support them and used)" are pre-posed to create a context where some information is contrasted to achieve focus on these constituents.

3.4.3. Clefts

Cleft sentences can be characterized by the splitting of a sentence into two parts to focus a certain piece of information packaged in a sentence constituent. These sentences are known to be two types; *it*-clefts and *wh*- or pseudo clefts. One of the differences between the two types is that each puts the focus on different constituents of the sentence and allows different constituents to be highlighted. For example, in it-clefs while subject and object NPs and PPs can be highlighted, the VP focusing cannot. In addition, in it-clefts full clauses can be highlighted though it is not so much preferred (Ward, Birner and Huddleston 2002: 1418). On the other hand, in wh-clefts, NPs, full VPs and finite content clauses can be highlighted. The following examples are borrowed from Callies (2009, p.40-41).

8.

The Capitol Square was filled with a wide variety of ethnic foods, but it was *the diversity of people* that brought many to the 19th annual Taste of Madison on Sunday. (Capital Times web edition, September 2, 2003)

9.

Liverpool's success is based on successful partnerships all over the pitch, but last night, when they were frustrated both in midfield and attack, it was *the defenders* who stood firm and proved the difference. (The Times web edition)

10.

By Friday night, according to the prominent Paris-based Romanian human rights activist, Mr Mihnea Berindei, the chain around the pastor's house was 200 strong. It was *at this point* that police initially peacefully and totally unsuccessfully, sought to persuade the protesters to disperse. (BNC, AA4 91– 92)

11.

Most of all worth remembering is the trenchant declaration: " ... no art, major or minor, can be governed by the rules of social amenity". It was *because Pound behaved always in the spirit of this remark* that he could not fail to offend Englishmen of the type of Beerbohm and Bowra, and that he continues to offend their likes and their successors (in all social classes) at the present day, as, for instance, his confrere T.S. (BNC, A1B 1059)

The sample sentences extracted from corpus include different constituents of the sentence focused through it-cleft constructions. The focused constituents have different syntactic (NPs, PPs, subordinate clause) characteristics.

It-clefts have three different functions in a discourse. One is the corrective function in order to reformulate the old topics in the form of new information followed by old information. Another is the transitional function to (re)introduce new and deactivated topic by ordering new information following new information. The

last one is topical function to continue with a previous discourse topic identified as given information followed by new information (Gomez-Gonzales 2007).

Wh-clefts are also means of highlighting NPs, PPs and subordinate clauses that are positioned in focus position.

12.

Hotspur had felt some curiosity about this father of hers, for she was not a woman whose antecedents could easily be guessed at. What he saw was *a man of about sixty years, older than he had expected, but still hale, and of a powerful frame*. (BNC, HGG, 624–625)

13.

And not only was it expensive to wash and refill the brown glass bottles, Reynolds said, but fewer and fewer of the cases were being returned for the deposit. [...] "What's happened is *that college kids were keeping the cases and using them for furniture," said Reynolds*. (*Capital Times* web edition, November 21, 2003)

3.4.4. Extraposition

Extraposition is a means of postponing heavy sentence constituent, usually a clausal subject, to alter position in the sentence by moving it to the right periphery (Callies 2009, p. 48) as the extraposing of *that-, wh-, or infinitival* clause. When these clauses are moved to the right periphery, their position is filled by anticipatory *it* (Kaltenbörg, 2003). On the other hand, the sentences with clausal subjects have canonical word order, but the extraposed versions are more frequent than the non-extraposed counterparts (Ward, Birner and Huddleston 2002, p.1404). Miller (2001)

discusses the information status of the subject clauses – non-extraposed version- and suggests that non-extraposition requires the content of the subject clauses to be old information, while extraposition requires new information to be in the relocated constituent. These can be exemplified in the following sentences.

14. It amazed me *to see that the economy of the EU countries is shrinking*.

15. It is known *that the world is undergoing a dramatic change in all walks of life.*

16. It is not certain *whether these issues will be solved soon.*

The underlined extraposed subject position into sentence-final position is co-referential with the dummy subject *it*. The extraposed constituents can also be moved from the object position to the clause final position for the same purpose.

17. I find it hard *to work with Macintosh* because I have been using Windows programs for a long time.

Here, *to work with Macintosh* is extraposed by moving to the sentence final position and is co-referential with the dummy it in the object position. Hence, extraposition requires moving a heavy subject or object to the sentence-final position to be able to highlight new information in the discourse. This also conforms to the information principle of end-focus.

Among all these constructions, I focused on clefts as focus constructions. One reason for this is that clefts are the most productive marked constructions that are

found in the spoken and written corpus. These constructions have specific functions that make them necessary to be used in certain contexts. Being marked structures, clefts require systematic and careful procedures to be taught in an EFL setting. Most of the learning difficulties arise from differences in constructions between the L1 and the L2. It-cleft constructions differ in both Turkish and English particularly in form rather than function. The functions carried by it-clefts are performed by different syntactic mechanisms, while wh-clefts are found formally similar in both languages. The difficulties in learning these marked structures likely to present difficulties for learners may be closely related to the foreign language teachers' knowledge of marked constructions. It is hypothesized in this thesis that marked constructions may also pose difficulty to teachers in teaching them. Therefore, the difficulties that foreign language teachers experience in teaching marked structures, namely it-clefts and wh-clefts will be identified. Then, they will be provided with linguistic input and language awareness activities during the in-service teacher training.

3.5 The Difficulty Hierarchy of Focus Constructions

In creating a difficulty hierarchy among focus constructions, two types of markedness should be considered since these structures are not only non-canonical word order sentences in terms of syntax, but also discourse-motivated variations in terms of pragmatics. One type of markedness may pose pragmatic difficulty, while another might pose structural difficulty. Structural markedness refers to the reordering of sentence constituents as opposed to unmarked word order, while pragmatic markedness is concerned with the presentation and ordering of information based on information principle that given information is placed before

new information which is deemed to be end-focus and end-weight (Callies 2009, p.54).

3.5.1 Structural Markedness

The degrees of structural markedness vary among English focus constructions as does the pragmatic markedness depending on the information structure constraints of a particular language. Therefore, different focus constructions should be discussed separately as each requires different levels of markedness from different perspectives. The degree of markedness in the structural variations of preposing, for example, changes according to whether SV combination is preserved or not though the constituents are moved to other positions. The orders such as CSV/OSV are highly marked in a cross-linguistic perspective in that it is the rarest of the basic word orders that have been attested (Odlin, 1989, p.44, and Waugh and Lafford, 1994, p.2380). However, from the perspective of structural order OSV is also relatively unmarked in that SV is preserved even when the syntactic changes occur in the surface structure of the sentences. In the following examples, the pre-posed elements are underlined and SV preservation is underlined. In each sentence, objects or other complements are pre-posed to highlight the information in these constituents.

18.

(a) *David* <u>he showed</u> with a sling on his shoulder. (12 teachers ranked it in the last two)

(b) *This example* <u>I invented</u>.

(c) *At around 5000B.C.* <u>man learned</u> to smelt and shape copper.

(d) *A socialist* <u>I am</u> and *a socialist* <u>I shall always be</u>.

(e) *Him* <u>I really can't bear</u>.

(f) *Painfully*, <u>she dragged</u> herself to her feet.

From structural perspective, inversion (OVS/CVS) is clearly the most marked pattern among focus constructions because SV is not retained. In inverted constructions, the heavy subject, containing new information is moved into the sentence final position as information principle in English requires. Therefore, it seems that such constructions are pragmatically unmarked but structurally marked.

19.

(a) *Strange* indeed <u>was the sound</u> that came from within.

(b) *Never* <u>have I</u> seen such a mess.

(c) *Under no circumstances* <u>can you</u> leave the building.

(d) *So great* <u>was the museum</u> that we wanted to visit it again on the following day.

In *it-* and *wh*-clefts, where there is a sentence complexity, a basic declarative sentence is split into two clauses with SVC/SVO or SVC/OSV structure, respectively. However, SV is still retained, which makes them relatively unmarked. In addition, as far as complexity is concerned, while *wh*-clefts are used to focus heavy NPs (Erdmann 1988, p.333), full VPs and content clauses, it-clefts generally highlight shorter subject/object NPs and PPs (Callies 2006, p.42). It seems that *wh*-clefts are in line with information principle, whereas *it*-clefts may have different roles in terms of information principle. It may either prepose and highlight given information as the topic in the cleft form or introduce new information followed by

given information in the sentence final position. In sum, *wh*-clefts are structurally unmarked as SV is retained and also pragmatically unmarked as it is in line with information principle. On the other hand, it-clefts can be seen as marked if they prepose new information which is not in line with information principle. This complexity is exemplified as follows:

20.

(a)   The driver was not found faulty. It was *the road* that <u>caused the accident</u>.

(b)   It was *in this introductory sociology course* that <u>my political and sociological imagination was born</u>.

21.

(a)   What they do <u>is </u>*that they get a current and they divide it.* (the content clause is postposed)

(b)   What I want to talk about today <u>is </u>*the organization of clauses as messages.* (the NP is postposed)

(c)   *The organization of clauses as messages is* what I want to talk about today.

(d)   What you need to do <u>is </u>*to meet Joe tomorrow*. (The infinitive phrase is postposed)

        In 20 (a), new information (the road) is followed by the given information (cause the accident) while 20 (b) given information is followed by the new information. These aspects of information structuring through cleft sentences should be paid attention to. Similarly, the interplay between the given and new information is displayed in 21 (a-d). In 21 (a b d) the new information (the content clause, the NP and the infinitive phrase) is postposed, while in (c) the new information is preposed. As shown, syntactic forms convey different pragmatic values and different

information focus. It is actually this interplay between pragmatics and syntax that lead to complexity. These differences in the structuring of information can provide implications for teaching such as using context to introduce the functions of these marked constructions and the way syntax and pragmatics are related to each other in the construction of discourse meaning. The next section will elaborate on pragmatic markedness to clarify the issue.

3.5.2 Pragmatic Markedness

It is argued by Dryer that to identify the pragmatic markedness of a construction may be difficult as what is pragmatically marked in a language may not be in another or may be unmarked. Therefore, he concludes that "any attempt to define pragmatic markedness in universal pragmatic terms cannot succeed" (1995, p.127). As a solution Dryer comes up with the following two criteria:

1. A pragmatically marked construction is characterized by a break from the communicative norm in that it involves some sort of surprise or unexpectedness, either by a change in the direction of the flow of information or the introduction of (a) information that is counter to expectation or (b) a brand new discourse entity.

2. In contrast to a pragmatically unmarked construction, the pragmatically marked variant has additional pragmatic meaning, for example expressing contrast, and the range of contexts in which it is appropriate is a proper subset of the set of contexts in which the unmarked construction is used. Hence, the

unmarked construction has greater distributional freedom and overall frequency of occurrence. (Dryer 1995:112)

3.6. Focus structures based on Information Principle in English

The structures are considered unmarked if they are in line with the information principle that given information is followed by new information in end-focus position. Lambert (1995) describes pragmatically unmarked word order with its three characteristics: one is that it has a SV (O) constituent order. Another is that it has a clause final focus-accent position. The last is that its information structure sequence is topic-focus (1995: 15). On the other hand, pragmatically marked structures or markedness in discourse as termed by Givon (1979) are those that involve a surprise and a break from the communicative norm. Similarly, Dryer (1995) characterizes pragmatic markedness as those involving some sort of unexpectedness, some information that involves a change in the direction of the flow of information, either because some information is counter to expectations or because a new participant is introduced to the discourse. It is, then, the discourse itself that determines whether there will be a change in the way the information is organized through non canonical word orders to create a link with the preceding given or new information.

From this perspective, focus constructions should be classified as marked and unmarked based on the broader two categories: structural and pragmatic markedness. First, inversions involve the subject-verb inversion, which makes them highly marked constructions in structural terms. However, in pragmatic terms the information structure is in line with the information principle where familiar or given

information in the preceding discourse is fronted, while the heavy subject containing new and focal information is placed in the sentence final position. This shows that inverted constructions are structurally marked and pragmatically unmarked in terms of information principle, but it could be marked in terms of the frequency with which they are used. Second, the contextual use of preposing constructions is more restricted than that of canonical word order SVO word order patterns. Accordingly, preposing can be considered structurally marked, pragmatically marked in that new information is followed by given information unlike suggested by IS in English, whereas it is unmarked in terms of frequency of use. Third, clefts are informationally unmarked since they clearly and unambiguously indicate which element is to receive special emphasis. In *it* clefts, the focused constituent appears early, contains the new information and is highlighted, which is in opposition to the information principle this makes them pragmatically marked in terms of IS in English, but it-clefts are also pragmatically unmarked since they are frequently used in communicative setting. Whereas in *wh-* clefts, the focused constituent comes at the end of the sentence, which is in line with the information principle, which makes it pragmatically unmarked in terms of IS in English, but unmarked in terms of frequency of use. Fourth, the sentences with extraposed word order are frequent and should thus be considered as unmarked in terms of frequency, but marked in terms of IS, while they are considered to be syntactically marked since they require postponement of clausal, infinitive and gerund phrases in the subject position to the end of the sentence.

Table 3

Relation between markedness and syntactic focus constructions

Focus Constructions		Structurally	Pragmatically	
			Information principle	Frequency
	Inversions (*Only by studying hard can one learn clefts in English*)	Marked	Marked	Marked
Clefts	It-clefts (*It is only by studying hard that one can learn clefts in English*)	Marked	Marked	Unmarked
	Wh-clefts (*What one needs to do to learn clefts in English is only studying hard*)	Marked	Unmarked	Unmarked

From what has been discussed in the previous sections, Table 3 has been compiled to clarify the degree of markedness of focus constructions with reference to pragmatics and syntax. The degree of markedness of focus constructions change according to the perspective the hierarchy is created through. These perspectives include retaining SV, which is the case for pre-posing and inversions in English. On the other hand, non-extraposed variant of a sentence that has a clause as the subject is regarded as the canonical word order, but in the corpus the extraposed variants are more common than the non-extraposed ones, thus making these constructions unmarked. Relation between focus constructions and markedness as shown in Table 3 will be used to show the information structure in English from a theoretical perspective. This table also intends to enable teachers to incorporate their understanding of focus constructions and markedness into their theoretical knowledge and practice in the classroom. Markedness is also a useful tool to explain how difficulties in teaching marked structures can be solved. Therefore, teachers in the training program will be instructed about how they can use this tool in their teaching practices particularly while teaching it-clefts and wh-clefts.

3.7. Information Structure in Turkish

In Turkish, a free or non-rigid word order language, the word order serves to structure the information and indicate the topic and the focus in the sentence. These discourse-based movements in the sentence shape the information structure of the sentence. More specifically, information structure in Turkish is closely related to the word order variations. The canonical word order in a Turkish transitive sentence is SOV (subject-object-verb), but the other variations can also be used in appropriate discourse situation because subjects and objects are marked for grammatical cases. Hoffman (1997) and Turan (1995) distinguish information structure from centering theory (the backward looking center as termed by Hoffman 1997) as they have different roles in discourse processing. Whereas the former shows the hearer how to organize the information in a sentence, the latter functions to connect the sentence to the previous context. In all languages, the discourse entities assumed to be in the consciousness of the hearer are repeated in the form of pronouns to highlight the center of attention. However, in Turkish, a pro-drop language, these pronouns or NPs that refer to the most salient entities are often dropped, but if the discourse entity is not salient, the speaker will repeat the center of attention or the topic using a full NP rather than a pronoun. These salient entities, namely topics, are placed in sentence initial position (Erkü, 1983; Erguvanlı, 1984; Kılıçaslan, 1994; Hoffman, 1995; İşsever, 2000), showing that in Turkish linguistic elements must be sentence initial to be interpreted as a topic. As a pro-drop language requires, topics are often dropped and zero pronouns are used to refer to them in the following discourse. The following discourses that exemplify are taken from Hoffman (1997):

22.

Çocuk ve köpek uyan-dık-lar-ın-da,

Child and dog   wakeup-Past-P1 3Poss Loc

"When the child and the dog wake up"

23.

Ø Frog'un   yer-in-de   ol-ma-dığı-nı   gör-üyor-lar

Ø Frog-Gen place-3P-Loc be Neg-Gen-Acc-see-Prog-PI

(They) see that the frog is not in his place

24.

Ø her taraf-ı   ar-ıyor-lar.

Ø every side-Acc-seek-Prog-PI

"(they) look everywhere"

In 23 and 24, the speaker continues to talk about the topic "çocuk and köpek" but do not overtly use the pronoun that refers to them in the rest of the discourse as s/he assumes that the hearer will link the topic and the dropped pronounces in 23 and 24. However, it is not possible to drop the pronouns referring to the topic of the previous discourse when the identification of the discourse entity is not easy. Therefore, the full NPs are to be used in such discourses.

Information structure also relates to the word order variation. A free word order language, Turkish, forms different meanings through different word orders. To show that the word order variations in Turkish convey different meaning, one can look at the translation of these sentences.

25.

    a. Derin süt-ü   iç-iyor.

       Derin milk-Acc. drink-PresProg.

       "Derin is drinking the MILK."

    b. Süt-ü   Derin iç-iyor.

       Milk-Acc. Derin drink-PresProg.

       "As for the milk, it is Derin who is drinking it."

    c. Derin iç-iyor   süt-ü.

       Derin drink-PresProg milk-Acc.

       "Derin is drinking it, the milk."

Each position in Turkish sentence in *25 a, b,* and *c* is strongly associated with a specific pragmatic function where the sentence initial position is the topic, and the immediate preverbal position is the focus and the post-verbal positions are backgrounded information (Erguvanlı 1983). On the other hand, according to the Topic-Comment information structure by Erkü (1983), the topic of the sentence can occur either at sentence initially or post-verbally and the focus entity is found in the comment component.

3.8. Focus Position in Turkish

Erguvanlı (1984, p.33-34) argues that word order variations are closely related to the NPs' being definite or indefinite. When all NPs in a sentence are definite, there are no word order restrictions. This can be exemplified with the following marked and unmarked orders in preverbal positions.

26.

a. Murat para   -yı bu adam-a   ver-di (S-DO-IO-V)

    Murat money-acc this man dat give-pst

    'Murat gave the money to this man'

b. Murat bu   adam-a   para -yı   ver-di.

c. Para-yı   Murat bu   adam-a   ver-di.

d. Para -yı bu   adam-a   Murat ver-di.

e. Bu   adam-a   Murat para -yı   ver-di.

f. Bu   adam-a   para -yı   Murat ver-di.

26 *a* sentence has unmarked word order and is pragmatically neutral. However, 26 b-f sentences have marked orders in that they deviate from the basic word order and   pragmatically   marked.   These   marked   sentences   b-f   cannot   be   used interchangeably because each word order is discourse dependent and is governed by the pragmatic factors. In 26 *b, c, d, e, and f,* para-yı, bu   adam-a, Murat, para -yı , Murat are focused respectively. Examples, 26 *a-f*, demonstrate that the immediate pre-verbal position in any marked order is the focus position in Turkish. The NPs preceding the verb is the focused element. The role that the pragmatic factors play in the meaning of the marked word order sentences can be observed in the following yes-no questions dialogues.

27.

Hoca-ya   ödev-i   *mavi dosya-ile*   verdin mi?

Teacher-dat assignment-acc blue file   in/with give-pst-2sg

    a. Hayır, *sarı dosya- ile*   ver-di-m.

        No,   yellow file in/with   give-pst-2sg

No, it was *with a yellow* file that I gave the assignment to the teacher

b. ?*Hayır, *arkadaş-ım-a*   ver-di-m.

   No,   friend poss1–dat   give-pst-2sg

In this dialogue, it is clear that, in a conversation, the pre-verbal position cannot be randomly filled with any sentence elements as in 27 b. Rather the word order is formed to meet the pragmatic requirements, which is to show contrast. The contrast function of it clefts in English is performed by putting the contrast information to the pre-verbal position in Turkish. This also indicates that there is not actual Turkish it-clefts as in English as Turkish is a language without dummy subjects, *it.*

3.9. Clefts in Turkish

3.9.1. It-clefts

Kornfilt (1997, pp. 192-3) suggests that Turkish as a null subject language has no genuine cleft constructions as the language does not have pleonastic pronouns or dummy pronouns such as *it* and *there*. Other mechanisms such as word order carry the functions of contrast and emphasis which are performed by English it-clefts. Turkish moves the emphasized or contrastive information to the pre-verbal position. In 28, the subject is not sentence-initial but in the pre-verbal position.

28.

kitab-I   Ali-ye   Hasan ver -di

book-Ace. Ali-Dat. Hasan give -Past

"HASAN gave the book to Ali" (Kornfilt, 1997, p. 190)

3.9.2. Pseudo-clefts

Unlike the case of it-clefts, Turkish have pseudo-cleft constructions used to create emphasis. This construction is formed by making the emphasized constituent into a predicate nominal of a copular sentence. The subject of that copular sentence consists of a free (headless) relative clause:

29.

[sinema-ya gid-en] Hasan-dl

cinema-Dat. go -SbjP Hasan-Past

"Hasan was the one who went to the movies"

30.

[sinema-da gör-dük -ler -im]   ögrenci-ler-im -di

cinema-Loco see-ObjP-pl. -l.sg. student-pl.-1.sg. -Past

"My students were the ones whom I saw at the movies" (Kornfilt 1997 p. 193-4)

Turan (2002) examines cleft sentences in her English and Turkish contrastive study. She compares canonical and non-canonical word orders for purpose of exemplifying wh-clefts and shows that both languages allow complex wh-clefts.

31.

a. Can'ın yaptığı bütün gün çalışmak

b. What John does is to work all day.

32.

a. Can bütün gün çalışıyor.

b. John works all day.

3.10. Acquisition of Cleft constructions in English and Turkish

Acquisition of cleft constructions is relatively less investigated in the SLA field since it is closely related to the information structuring where there is complex interplay between syntax, pragmatics, and discourse. This also poses difficulty for learners to acquire such complex structures due to the cognitive load created by the complex linguistic interrelation. What also increases the difficulty of acquisition of such construction is the typologies of language pairs in interaction. Clefts in Turkish are constructed through the addition of morphemes to the verb as in [yardım ed-en Ali idi.] (help give-AOR Ali was), while clefts in English through the syntactical movements of the constituents forward or backward in the sentence. Such cross-linguistic features are also likely to make it difficult for Turkish learners of English to acquire cleft constructions. Several studies consider this as part of negative transfer from L1, which might have typologically different linguistic features as in the case of Turkish and English. Rutherford (1983) and Schachter & Rutherford (1979) claim that the discourse structure of L1 and its pragmatic principles of information organization might lead L2 learners to transferring these diverse L1 linguistic features and overproducing them, while Callies (2006) and Plag (1994) claim that the cross linguistic difference might lead them to avoid using them. Callies (2009) indicates that L2 learners' competence to manage information structure is one of the key components of L2 knowledge, but that L2 learners experience difficulty in placing the old and new information in a way to express focus. Similarly, Carroll et al. (2000) stress that non-native speakers resort to basic principles of their L1 information structure, though their inter-languages can have most of the linguistic features of the L2 at advanced stages of the acquisition.

For example, Callies (2006) shows that advanced learners are inclined to overuse subject-prominent structures, such as it-clefts in their written production and often lack competence to contextualize the cleft constructions and be aware of pragmatic aspects of syntactic focus constructions. Hinkel (2002) indicates that advanced learners lack awareness in how to appropriately use lexical and syntactic focus constructions formally and informally in the spoken and written communication.

On the other hand, to my best knowledge, there is no relevant literature investigating the acquisition of cleft constructions by Turkish learners of English. However, anecdotal evidence has shown that syntactic focus constructions are rarely used in spoken and written mode by Turkish learners of English unless they are explicitly taught and asked to produce as part of the exercises provided. This could be due to the limited opportunities for them to communicate in real situations which provide a basis for the authentic use of focus constructions appropriately. It seems that there is tremendous need for the investigation of how clefts are acquired and used by Turkish EFL learners of English.

The next part will discuss the in-service teacher training and the design of the training of the current study highlighting the content and stages of the training.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a comprehensive description of the research design and outlines the rationale for the research methodology followed in the study. The methodology followed is primarily qualitative, including four in-depth case studies using classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and analysis of teaching artifacts such as worksheets and hand-outs used in the classroom.

4.1. Research questions

In the previous chapters, it has been highlighted that there is little empirical research that explores the impact of an in-service teacher training on trainees' belief and practice change in six months. More specifically, few studies have focused on the transfer or implementation of training content to the classroom as a teaching approach. More importantly, in the Turkish context there is little or no research into exploring the impact of in-service teacher training in on English language teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. Therefore, this thesis not only underlines the importance of measuring the impact of ISTTs on trainees who partook, but also provides critical insights into the dimensions of the impact of ISTT on teachers' beliefs and practices.

The central research question is to measure the possible effects of ISTT on trainees' beliefs and practices, which are answered with three sub-questions.

1) Will the training result in concurrent change in trainees' beliefs about teaching practices in grammar teaching?

RQ1 addresses the issue of change by demonstrating teachers' grammar teaching practices before training and attempts to reveal a pattern of the degree of consistency between the beliefs and practices before and after training. Changes in beliefs are a precondition for conceptual changes in practices of teaching. Therefore, the answer to this RQ will give insight into the strength of change or conceptual changes in teachers that will be reported after the training.

2) Will the training enable trainees to transfer their knowledge into actual classroom practices immediately after the ISTT?

RQ2 explores the potential impact of the training on trainees by demonstrating whether new knowledge has been transferred to the classroom. The notes taken during the post training observation and the analysis of the teaching artifacts will give a clear picture of the degree of transfer.

3) Will the training lead to long-term change in teachers' actual classroom practices six months after the completion of the ISTT?

RQ3 explores the impact of training on teachers' practices in 6 months after the training. Observations made six months after training and materials teachers prepared for the observed lesson will be used to elaborate on the impact.

4.2. Case Study

Case study research is only one type of qualitative research among many others. It is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit (Merriam, 1988, p. xiv). More specifically, case studies require in-depth analysis of single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. These studies are also considered to be particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic as they are commonly constructed through inductive reasoning in investigating multiple data sources (Merriam, 1988, p. 16). Gall et al. (2003) describe case study research as "the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon" (p. 436). There are also other definitions that share similar aspects of case studies. For example, according to Creswell (1998, p. 61), a case study is an exploration of a "bounded system" or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. The definitions in the literature regarding case study as a qualitative research method lay emphasis on the "bounded" singular nature of the case, the significance of context, the use of multiple sources of information or critical perspectives on observations, and the comprehensive analysis of the data (Duff, 2008, p. 22). Similarly, boundedness or singularity, in-depth study, multiple perspectives or triangulation, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation are also indicated to be the key principles that should be found in a case study according to Merriam (1998). The learning and teaching process depends considerably on the pre-existing knowledge of the teachers and learners, which leads to unique cases to be explored. In this sense, it is particularly appropriate for depicting teachers' understanding of their work and their dealing with the pedagogical problems that

arise as they teach (Nunan, 1992). Yin (2012, p. 5) identifies three situations where the case study should be chosen as a qualitative approach:

1. when the research objective focuses on what is happening or what has already happened, more specifically when it is a descriptive project – or to find out how or why something happened as in the case of an exploratory project;

2. when the context in which the phenomenon at issue is significant, when data collected about the real-life dynamics and behaviors is also important – such as the reasons why a training project are especially successful;

3. when the goal is to evaluate a case from different viewpoints, to better estimate its various merits and demerits.

The case-study method serves well to the purpose of the current thesis because the primary goal is to write an in-depth descriptive, exploratory, and interpretive study as to the impact of training on four participants who share a similar professional background.

4.2.1. Characteristics of Case Study

According to Merriam (1988, p.31) a case study is characterized by four aspects: particularistic, descriptive, holistic, and inductive. However, Phipps (2009, p.38) suggests five characteristics which include particularity, complexity, contextualization, multiple perspectives, and flexible design. What follows explains these characteristics and connects them to the current research.

Particularity

A case study requires a single case particularly investigated where the focus is on a particular unit or set of units (Richards, 2003) or on specific instances (Gall et al. 1996). From this perspective the current research investigates one phenomenon involving four trainees, each being a case on its own.

Complexity

A case study aims to elaborate insightfully on the complexity of a single case. As Gall et al, (1994) argue, using this research method, a researcher can investigate an individual subject through detailed and rigorous exploration to be able to gain insight into interpretive and distinctive dimensions of a case. Accordingly, the present research thoroughly explores the impact of training on four trainees, each having complexity as an individual case.

Contextualization

A case study is carried out in the natural context (Yin, 2003) where the research problem is identified. Similarly, Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p.319) also suggest that case studies are characterized by an individual in a particular context, at a point in time, which is context-bound and rich in terms of the data they provide (Yin, 2003). It seems that context is an integral part of a case study. In this research, the research problem is contextualized around a group of novice university teachers who lacked innovative grammar teaching skills and required training on the subject.

Multiple perspectives

The data set collected for a case study characteristically includes multiple sources of information (Richards, 2003, p.20) that could allow the researcher to describe the phenomenon adequately and comprehensively. However, since qualitative research gives researchers ample freedom for selecting, analyzing, and reporting in their narratives, this method is thought to oversimplify the complexities inherent in the case, which might lead to unjustified statements based on subjective interpretations of the data. To minimize the threats and enhance the integrity of the study, there is a need for researcher triangulation (multi-authored cases), methods triangulation (use of multiple methods such as observations, interviews, and questionnaires for the corroboration of information) and data triangulation (including the alternative perspective for valid interpretation such as teachers, students, and administrators) (Stoynoff, 2004). Patton (1990) argues accordingly that no single perspective can offer a full perspective for validation and cross-checking of findings. The current thesis seriously considers the triangulation issue by referring to method triangulation with multiple data sources as well as multi-authored cases where more than one expert rates the codes, categories, and themes emerging from the data.

4.2.2. The Types of Case Study

There are several classifications regarding types of case study. According to Yin (2003), there are three different forms of case study: 'exploratory', 'explanatory', and 'descriptive'. The exploratory case study focuses on identification of the questions and hypotheses of a study, while an explanatory case study analyzes the collected data as cause and effect. The descriptive case study, on the other hand, refers to a comprehensive depiction of a case within its context (Yin 1993, p.5).

Another categorization is proposed by Merriam (1988, p.27-29), which includes descriptive, interpretive, and evaluative case studies. Stake (1995) suggests that the classification is based especially on how the research is carried out and the conclusion drawn in the end product. There are still other classifications made by Gall et al (1996, p.549-551) and Stake (1995, p.3), which are based on the point of view of the purpose. The former categorize case studies as description, explanation, and evaluation, while the latter as intrinsic case study and instrumental case study. The variety of the classifications from different points of view or perspectives is of importance to case study researchers in that they can account for the justification of their studies and clearly explain the methodological scope to which the study belongs.

4.2.3. Research Objectives of Case Studies

Case studies may have several functions in terms of their objectives. Exploratory case studies function as formulating new research questions. Descriptive ones pose answers to "what" questions, while relational case studies investigate the relations between the relevant variables. Explanatory case studies, on the other hand, focus on "how" and "why" questions, whereas evaluative case studies answer questions such as "which program, learner, or interlocutor is more effective"? A confirmatory case study concerns itself with questions of whether the study confirms existing findings and understandings. There are also case studies that combine objectives of different case studies (Gall et al., 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003a, cited in Duff, 2008, p.101). Concerning the above, the following sections discuss what characterizes the current case study research particularly referring to the relevant categories.

Exploratory

The current research attempts to provide a detailed description and comprehensive exploration of the effect of the ISTT on trainees' beliefs and classroom practices not by identifying predetermined ideas or hypothesis (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.431) but by allowing the categories to emerge inductively from the data. From this perspective, the study can be categorized as "exploratory" in that the central RQ is "what are the effects of the ISTT on teachers' beliefs about and practices in grammar teaching?" More specifically the study explores how much the ISTT impacts on the trainees (Yin (2003, p.5).

Multiple cases within a single case

According to (Silverman, 2005, p. 127), a multiple case study can be seen as a 'collective case study' or 'multi-site case study' (Stenhouse, 1983, cited in Nunan, 2005, p.77). The present research is a multiple case study in that it focuses on a single unit in which several participants and situations interact. There are four individual cases in the current study, each of which yields autonomous conclusions by either sharing similarities or presenting differences (Eckstein, 1975). The variety in the conclusions drawn provided an opportunity to interpret the data and findings in an insightful way by employing cross-case analysis.

Descriptive and interpretive

This study combines the characteristics of descriptive and interpretive case studies in which codes, categories, and themes/concepts are carefully induced from the data through inductive analysis.

4.2.4. The Boundaries of Case Study

One of the key principles of a case study is its boundedness (Yin, 2003; Stake, 1995; Merriam, 1988), which means that a case study focuses on a particular unit or set of units such as an institution, a program, an event and so on (Richards, 2003; Merriam, 1988). The object of study such as a classroom, a program, or a school is of complex systems which can hardly be explored through only quantitative measuring tools. It cannot be represented only with reference to the context in which it naturally occurs (Stoynoff, 2004). Therefore, a case study has a bounded system.

Although there are those who claim that it is hard to define the scope and boundaries of a case study, Yin (2003, p.13) supports the idea that a case study methodology is followed if the boundaries between the case and the context are not clear or hard to define. However, this particular study seems to have boundaries in that it investigates a four-week ISTT and four trainees' beliefs about and practices of teaching grammar. The training can also be seen to have a beginning and an end where the training course is provided for a particular purpose.

4.2.5. The Generalizability of Case Study

The fact that the results arrived at in a case study are hard to generalize for other similar contexts is a constraint usually reported in the relevant literature, though it provides researchers with an opportunity to elaborate on a specific case and to have a rich account of the case (Merriam, 1988). Generalization is one of the major concerns for those carrying out case studies, as it examines only a single or a few cases (Stake, 1995). To make generalizations, data from a wider population

should be analyzed and a more controlled environment as in quantitative studies that need to be guaranteed. Nevertheless, Yin (2003), Gomm et al. (2000, p.4), and Erickson (1986, cited in Merriam, 1988, p.175) argue that experimental generalization is not a necessity in case studies. The ultimate goal should be to understand the case in its own right. It is argued in the related literature (Duff, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007; Patton, 2002) that generalizability in qualitative research can be achieved to some extent by providing rich context-bound information by describing the context in depth (Patton (1980, p.283). In search of ways of creating validity, generalizability and reliability in the current research, this study describes comprehensively the context of the study where the case is investigated, including the mode of delivery of training, professional and education background of the trainees, the attitudes and commitment of the trainees to the training, their working condition, the trainees' role in the institution where the training was conducted and other relevant contextual information. The rich descriptions regarding the context could be useful for the target audience to interpret the findings rationally.

4.3. Research Methods

The following sections introduce the approaches to data collection and analysis followed in the current study. The main data collection tools include interviews, observations and trainees' written reports because the research examines particularly the effect of the ISTT on the trainees' beliefs about grammar teaching practices immediately after and 6 months after the training as well as the degree of transfer of new knowledge from the training to the classroom.

4.3.1. Interviews

Interviewing is an introspective data collection method that is used to investigate teachers' insider perspectives on their practices and rationale for them. Interviews are useful in that they enable researchers to address particular questions, elicit attitudes and espoused conceptions, routines, agendas and scripts (Bartels, 2005, p.5). They are seen as an important data collection tool by which comprehensive insights into the inner perspectives over various issues can be explored. By interviews, a researcher may have a clear picture of the interviewee's world (Patton, 1987, p.109). Interviews can be complementary to the data collected through observations, especially when observational information fails to account for the personal feelings and inner perspective which cannot be understood through just observing. For this research, interviews may also track the changes in beliefs and ideas as well as attitudes towards the training and rationales behind the classroom practices. As Patton (1990, p.278) indicates, "We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions", which can only be learnt about by asking the person. Therefore, interviews are one of the major data collection tools for the current study because the research questions require data as to the trainees' cognition. Potential changes in beliefs about grammar teaching may be better understood and confirmed when directly stated by the trainees. Cognitive changes or changes that occur in the minds of a person can only be discovered if they are clearly expressed because they cannot be measured or observed. On the other hand, according to Gall et al. (1996), it is possible to collect through interviews a greater depth, through tone of voice, facial expression, and hesitation, which are not revealed in written responses.

During my interviewing with the trainees, I was able to clarify the unclear points, which may have led them to giving irrelevant responses in my absence. Having the opportunity to discuss with them critical issues for the study led to comprehensive and deeper insights into the questions and helped me understand their feelings, understanding, perspectives and perceptions. Without the explanations during the interview, the rationale behind their practices and what happens in their cognition would have been insufficiently represented (Dörnyei, 2003). Before I invited the trainees for an interview, I opted for e-mailing them the main questions so that they could get familiarized with the content of the questions. I initiated such a practice because during the pilot study I observed that the trainees needed time to think about their responses, and my presence during their thinking period prevented detailed and well thought out responses. To minimize the effect of this threat, in the main study I allowed them to familiarize themselves with the questions and express them in a more clear and insightful way.

4.3.1.1. Types of interview: semi-structured and unstructured interviews

This research employed interviews for two purposes. One was to identify the beliefs of the trainees about grammar teaching before and after the ISTT. This group of interviews was a structured one which included 10 questions adapted from Andrews (1994), who provided a comprehensive list of statements regarding the measuring teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching. All participants were asked questions in the same order. To be able to elicit richer and comprehensive statements about their cognition, the trainees were given an opportunity to read the questions and think about their ideas. Another group of interviews was carried out to

identify the impact of the ISTT immediately after the training, for the immediate effects, and six months after the training to elicit data regarding the lasting impact.

For the identification of existing and changed beliefs about grammar teaching, a structured interview was employed, while for the understanding and exploration of change, semi-structured interviews were chosen. These two types of interviews were chosen for their strengths in the contexts they were used. For example, semi-structured interviews provide more flexibility to allow the interviewer an opportunity to shape the flow of information (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003, p.45). In this way the interviewer is able to ask sub-questions along with the main interview questions to clarify the interviewees' opinions which might convey vague meanings or to elicit specific information that the interviewee did not express explicitly. In addition, the interviewer could encourage the interviewee by asking indirect questions to give more detailed and critical responses that could be of great importance to the conclusions of a study. In this study, to explore the dimensions of the impact on the trainees, they were asked pre-determined questions as well as sub-questions for further clarification, more in-depth reflection, and sometimes confirmation of what had vaguely been expressed. A belief questionnaire followed a more focused format with fixed questions, while the interview for the impact measurement was less focused. Through interviews I was able to build up a better relationship as well by encouraging them to reflect insightfully on the practices in the training in a more comfortable and cooperative way. As they were the primary source of information for the identification and depiction of the impact, they enjoyed the freedom of expressing freely what they thought and felt. The idea of following different formats of interviewing was useful (Merriam, 1988, p.74) as in this way

deeper insights and emerging information may be obtained. Such a combination of interviewing also helped me explore more critical data that increased the chance of discovering more about the context, trainees, and the impact of the ISTT.

In this study, to improve the quality of data collected and to minimize the potential negative effect of trainees' speaking skills, I allowed them to speak in their native language (Turkish). They opted for speaking Turkish in interviews. Therefore, to increase the validity of the data, I applied "member-checking". I gave them the translated manuscript for their confirmation of the content to avoid any misinterpretation while translating.

4.3.2. Classroom Observation

Observation is a commonly used data collection method in a qualitative research, which is thought of as non-interventionist (Adler and Adler, 1994) because it does not aim to intentionally manipulate the context. However, according to Labov (1972, cited in Bailey, 2001) the presence of an observer leads inevitably to manipulation, which can be explained by Hawthorne effect. Similarly, Bailey (2001, p. 116) argues that observing people's behavior leads the observees to change their behaviors. Investigating the impact of a systemic functional linguistics course on teachers who are expected to implement the theoretical knowledge in classroom practices, Burns and Knox (2005) suggest that it is not only the knowledge gained but the presence of the consultants in the classroom who observe possible adaptation of new knowledge into practice. Although the presence of consultants seems to be a disadvantage, it is also what drives the teachers to transfer new knowledge into practice. Observation also functions as the driving force for change in addition to

being a data collection tool. On the other hand, Carless (2004) suggests that repetitive measures spanning over a period can minimize the risk of intentional shifts in practice rather than real conceptual and cognitive changes. There are also other contributive ways of lessening the risk such as building up a better rapport and strong personal contacts with the observed trainees. The main impact of this sustained collaboration not only decreases the manipulation risk but also raises researchers' knowledge about teachers' practices.

Though it gives the researcher valuable data that could contribute to the merit of the research, observation is also deemed as a method that needs to be carefully implemented. The primary strength of collecting data through observation is that it gives greater and more comprehensive insights of the case that is observed and the context where unique relationships and interactions occur. Another strength is the thorough data that are directly elicited from the natural source of information where the people' behaviors in the context are experienced and turned into written form. Data collected through observation may be seen as complementary data to the interview data where people report their subjective views of the phenomenon. Although observation offers the advantages discussed above, there are also negative views on it. These include being time-consuming, the difficulty in access to the people to be observed, and technical difficulties in recording data. More importantly, one cannot reach critical insights into the theoretical background for the behavior of the observed person only by watching, which requires follow-up reflection after the observation. This post observation discussion contributes to the accurate understanding of the observed actions, without which the data collected by the observer would lead to misconception and misinterpretations.

4.3.2.1 Observation in Language Teacher Education

Borg (2006) reports that, though observation is a research method that is frequently used in teacher education studies, its relation to teachers' cognitive development is not always drawn. To assess teacher development, there is a need for analyzing both teachers reported cognitions about teaching and objective descriptions of their actual classroom practices. Borg (2006, p. 231) also claims that it is possible to gain insight into teachers' cognition about teaching, but it may not yield in-depth exploration of the issue. Therefore, observation of teachers in the classroom provides a concrete descriptive basis to explore teachers' cognitive processes.

Classroom observation is also one of the recognized strategies for teacher development. Depending on the context and who does the observing, teachers find it useful and transformative process. According to Montgomery, 2002 cited in Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011) observation is deemed to be an integral part of teacher professional development because classrooms give considerable insight into how language teachers' training and quality of teaching can be promoted with reference to actual learning and teaching processes. To support this, Lasagabaster & Sierra argue that classroom observation is rated as the fourth element of different aspects of teacher training and development among 185 teachers from primary, secondary, university and private language schools. They also found that 30.20 % and 54.40 % of the participants totally agreed and agreed respectively that observation is an effective way of improving teaching.

For the purpose of this study, observations were also crucial as they gave clues about whether the impact of the training on teachers was strong enough to

create conceptual changes in teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. The observations made for this study had two functions. The first was to see the impact of the training as to whether it influenced the trainees' pre-existing beliefs and practices. The other was to provide opportunities for the trainees to implement newly learnt theoretical knowledge. More specifically, observations functioned as a motivating factor for changes in teachers. In this research, in line with the purpose of the study, the trainees were observed three times: before the training to document the pre-existing teaching practices; immediately after the training to measure the impact by reporting the changed practices; six months after the training to analyze the long-term impact or sustainability of impact after the post training observation. These observations helped me collect data concerning the typical teaching practices of trainees before and after the training. They also yielded observational data that would not have been possible to collect through interviews, such as specific teaching practices generated by the help of the new knowledge learnt from the training. During the observations, the focus was on how trainees transferred theoretical linguistic knowledge about a specific structure into their classroom teaching practice. Before the training I observed a 50-minute lesson where teachers taught either it-cleft or wh-cleft constructions, whereas after the training they taught both constructions in two sequential lessons. However, during the observations six months after the training the trainees taught other cleft constructions, namely all-clefts or th-clefts.

4.3.2.2 Types of Observation

Observation practices can be carried out in two ways: firstly by directly observing the events in the real context, which is called, direct (non-participant/non-reactive/unobtrusive) observation, and secondly by actively experiencing the

processes and behaviors under observation. The former is preferred by researchers not only to avoid obtrusion but also to be able to collect as much naturalistic data as possible. On the other hand, the latter is selected particularly to establish good relations with the observees. Denzin (1989, p. 17–18) sees the latter as a field strategy that enables the observer to concurrently participate, observe and document. According to Kemp (2001, p, 528), participant observation aims to identify the behaviors in context by careful observation and attention to several factors at the same time. Bell (1999) also argues that observation of an individual unit in the case study allows researchers to develop a perspective on the behaviors in the case at issue. This contribution of observation can be achieved by the key stages Kemp listed. These include selecting a site for observation; observing; detailed recording; formulating hypotheses about what is happening; repeating observations; and establishing saturation point where no more new data is forthcoming. In the current research, observations were repeated three times and the participants were interviewed with three times. The repetition yielded a saturation level as the researcher observed that no more data could be collected from the trainees given the amount of data they created. They were also observed to repeat similar ideas regarding the impact of the training on their beliefs, ideas and practices.

4.3.2.3 Approach to Observation

The decision as to whether the researcher engages in direct observation or participant observation largely depends on their research question, their aims and their theoretical stance. In this study I employed participant observation as I needed to be an insider, so I built up close relationships with each trainee. I had two purposes in mind. One was to expand my knowledge of the case, while the other was

to experience the training as a participant. Nevertheless, being a participant or being inside may also pose risks of losing objectivity and becoming biased. However, as I am also working as the teacher trainer in the institution where the trainees work, I am also supposed to evaluate objectively as part of my job responsibilities. During the observations I felt that I was observing them not only for the sake of the research but also as part of institutional purposes. This helped me act more professionally during the training.

4.4. Research Design

The research was carried out in four stages. The first stage was a pre-training observation process during which the grammar teaching lessons of potential participants were observed. Then, 4 out of 18 were selected and invited to participate in the training. The trainees participating in the sessions had demographic information tabulated in Table 4.

Table 4
The background information of the trainees

	Experience	Age	Gender	Department graduated	Graduation year	Teaching per week	Grammar teaching per week	Previous teaching of clefts
Müge	6 months	23	Female	ELT	2011	24	6	No
Merve	1,5 years	24	Female	ALL	2010	24	6	No
Şerif	2 years	25	Male	ELL	2009	24	6	No
Elif	2,5 years	25	Female	ELT	2009	24	6	No

ELT: English Language Teaching; ALL: American Language and Literature; ELL: English Language and Literature

The second stage was the delivery of the linguistics training of ten hours of formal meetings where trainees actively participated in the activities and completed

language awareness tasks. The trainees also wrote reports that include their immediate reaction to the training, their learning from the training and their behavior which is to plan what to do with the knowledge gained in the actual classroom practices. The third stage included semi-structured interviews and observations to explore the impact of the training on the trainees. At this stage there were two interviews, one was to collect data about pre- and post-training grammar teaching beliefs and the other was to document the impact of the training with the actual verbal descriptions of the trainees. The observations in the third stage were carried out by visiting the classrooms of the trainees teaching the cleft structures to be able to make concrete and in depth descriptions of the practices and to see, if any, the relation between the practices and the training content. More specifically, the purpose was to explore whether they were able to transfer and integrate what they had learnt into their teaching. The fourth stage was six months after the training where I interviewed the trainees and observed their classrooms to see the degree of sustainability of teaching practices.

With the observations before and after the training as well as interviews during the training period, I aimed to explore the impact of training on teachers' beliefs and teaching practices with reference to changes in beliefs and practices. Table 5 presents the overall design of my research including data collection schedule.

Table 5

Instructional timeline for in-service teacher training based on linguistic content

Dates	Instructional content	Focus
	Pilot study	
14th Oct 2011	Pre-training observation	In-class practices for data collection
21st Oct -11th Nov, 2011	Delivery of the training	Training
25th Nov, 2011	Post training observation	In-class practices for data collection
28th – 29 Nov, 2011	Post training interview	Data collection
	Main study	
23rd - 27 Jan, 2012	Pre-training observation: teaching clefts	In-class practices
30th Jan, 2012	Meeting for invitation	
17th Feb – 9th Mar, 2012	Linguistics Training	Discussion
17th Feb, 2012	*First Session* Markedness theory: marked structures	Subject matter Reflection
24th Feb, 2012	*Second Session* Information Principle in English	Subject matter Reflection
2nd March, 2012	*Third Session* Clefts constructions in English	Subject matter Reflection
9th Mar, 2012	*Fourth Session* Language Awareness Tasks	Awareness raising Reflection
16th Mar, 2012	a. Semi-structured Interview for the whole training	Impact and Transfer of learning
19th – 20th Mar, 2012	Post training interview for the impact	Impact and Transfer of learning
21st -22 Mar, 2012	Post training interview for grammar teaching beliefs	Data collection
1st – 15th Mar 2012	Post-training observation for transfer into practice	In-class practices for data collection
6 month-waiting period to check lasting impact of the training		
1st – 4th Oct 2012	Delayed post-training observation	In-class practices for data collection
9th -13 Oct 2012	Delayed post training interview (6 months delayed)	Data collection
	Delayed post observation (another six months delayed) for further research	

4.4.1. Pilot Study

The pilot study for the current research, carried out from 14th Oct to 25th Nov 2011, included pre-training interview, delivery of the training, trainees' written reports, and post training observation and interviews. The main reason for carrying out a pilot study was to explore whether the research is realistic and workable and to establish the effectiveness of the frames and techniques. I also learnt about the context and how training can best be presented. Experiencing the pilot study assisted me in gaining insights into better observation and interview skills, developing the presentation skills during the training, understanding teachers' expectations with the possible challenges they could go through. It also provided me an opportunity to estimate the impact of linguistics training on teachers' knowledge and classroom practices, which gave me the motivation and encouragement to conduct the main study.

Among the challenges I encountered during the pilot study were allowing more time for teachers to prepare for observed lessons, modifying the difficult texts I used during the training activities, enriching the interview questions in a way trainees can carry out more reflection. In line with the results obtained, I thought that when the identified challenges were understood and handled, the main study could better be implemented and yield more accountable and credible conclusions. Without conducting this pilot study, I may have had difficulties dealing with the challenges that may unpredictably arise.

4.4.2. Sampling

In this study I used purposively homogeneous sampling in order to collect the most relevant data to research questions. Therefore, I selected 4 trainees from 18 teachers whom I observed for grammar teaching. The remaining 14 teachers were not included in the study due to their different characteristics such as experience, age, and different training needs.   These four trainees shared particular characteristics and experience (Dörnyei, 2007, p.127). See Table 4. This way of forming such a group of trainees could provide me with a pattern in responses and comprehensive contextual and individual information relating to a particular group. The trainees invited to the training had similar backgrounds and experience (i.e. with 1-3 years of experience of teaching), working in the same institution, sharing similar working conditions, and teaching similar student profiles.

4.4.3. Ethical Issues

Ethical issues are more common in qualitative studies particularly regarding data collection and analysis (Heigham and Croker, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007). In this study participant observation and interviews were carried out, each including in itself ethical dilemmas especially when the trainees were asked to talk about their feelings and personal opinions (Merriam 1988, p.180). Therefore I considered the ethical issues to make sure that the study has ethical trustfulness.

4.4.3.1 Avoiding deception and informed consent

According to Heigham and Croker (2009), it is important to gain consent before any interviews and observation from the participants. They should also be

openly and fully informed about responsibilities expected of them, the purpose of the data collection to avoid any misunderstanding about their roles and the purpose of the study. For this research study, the trainees were asked for verbal permission at all stages. They consented to participate in this study particularly because they would be able to develop their grammar teaching beliefs and practices. I invited the trainees to the interviews at convenient times and I observed them on days and at hours when they were free. I also submitted them the draft of interview questions so that they could feel ready for the contents of the questions and would not be disturbed by the unexpected questions. During the observations I also informed them about the purpose and focus of the observation and added that the observation would be non-judgmental to make sure that they were comfortable enough. For all these ethical issues, I received written consent forms from the trainees and the institution.

4.4.3.2 Privacy and Confidentiality

In qualitative studies, it is suggested that private information such as identities, names, and specific roles in their workplace be kept confidential. However, sometimes even though anonymous names are written, it is possible to identify who the participants are by comparing their performances in the collected data (Dörnyei, 2007 p.65). Therefore, particular personal information that could disclose the identities of the trainees was replaced by pseudonyms. However, the trainees did not want to use pseudonyms but wanted their actual names in print.

4.4.3.3 Relationships

Qualitative studies provide opportunities for researchers to establish close relationships with participants in order to understand their ideas and feelings. However, this may lead to two ethical issues. One is that getting closer to the participants may reduce objectivity and neutrality. The other is that there is an ethical dilemma in the relationship between the researcher and participants, which may be metaphorically described as' seduction' and 'abandonment' (Siskin, 1994). Participants may feel abandoned and abused after the research has ended. Therefore, Dörnyei (2007, p.65) draws attention to how research should be ended to avoid making the participants feel let down. One of the ways could be by maintaining contact with them for some more time. In this study, the relationship was based on mutual understanding and collaboration in that it gave the trainees pedagogical opportunities to benefit from the training, which was designed to improve their weakness identified during classroom observations. Thus, the trainees were not only sources of information, but also beneficiaries of the training process.

4.5. Data analysis

4.5.1. Analysis of the interviews

The qualitative data collected through audio-recorded interviews were analyzed through a data-driven inductive approach as well as a concept-driven approach. The former refers to the identification of the codes, categories and themes from the trainees' data, whereas the latter refers to applying categories borrowing from the relevant literature. In the inductive data analysis, pre-coding categories that emerged were checked, confirmed and modified in line with the literature through a

deductive approach. The analysis process was iterative and cyclical because each time the data were revisited, categories emerged, which required searching for regularities in the rest of the data, as suggested by Merriam (1988, p.133).

4.5.1.1. Pre-coding

Having collected the relevant data from the trainees, I first transcribed the data into English by translating some of them into English as they opted to speak in Turkish in some interviews. After the transcription, the trainees were asked to read the content and check for any misunderstanding that may not mean what they said. None found any mismatch. Translating and transcribing the data helped me gain a deeper insight into the trainees' beliefs and ideas from which codes and categories were analytically identified, which was contributive to constructing a draft for classifications (Merriam, 1988, p.131). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), this initial coding stage could help identify the common words and phrases during the reading and pre-reading of the data. This process allowed for various perspectives and ability to connect the data collected from the four trainees.

4.5.1.2. Open Coding

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.6), open coding refers to 'the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing the data'. As I read the data at the initial stage, I identified and highlighted the recurring words and phrases in order to form relevant recurring themes and patterns. I did all the coding on the computer to make them clear as suggested by Dörnyei

(2007). I created a table where columns are divided consecutively into statements, coding, categories, and themes.

4.5.1.3. Coding

In this study I used data-driven coding which refers to identifying concepts and themes that frequently recur in the interview data from the trainees. Having identified and numbered the codes, I then placed the related codes under broad labels. For example, when codes were "Appreciation," and "Confidence," they were labeled as "Positive impact". In order not to miss any valuable data, the codes were double-checked and the irrelevant data were excluded to minimize the bulk of data, which is seen as the main function of coding in a qualitative study (Dörnyei, 2007, p.250). I also used concept-driven coding to make the codes and categories relevant to the theoretical discussions in the literature. To increase the credibility and accountability, as an 'external code check' (Lynch (2003), a colleague who did a similar qualitative research for PhD thesis in a different domain of ELT was asked to rate the code lists. He spent nearly three hours to analyze the coding and he confirmed the themes emerging from categories by 95 %. The slight differences in the selection of themes and sub themes were negotiated and agreed.

4.5.2. Analysis of Observation

The data were obtained through unstructured observations from the four trainees. Comprehensive descriptive field notes were taken and trainees' instructional materials were collected. The observational data were analyzed on the basis of the extracts from each lesson I observed. These extracts reflect the trainees' approach to

grammar teaching which are then integrated and interpreted with the data coming from the belief interview to reveal the extent to which the trainees' beliefs and practices are consistent.

4.5.3. Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness criteria based on Lincoln and Guba (2005) was employed to demonstrate the extent to which the study is trustworthy in terms of qualitative research paradigm. Therefore, four criteria suggested by Lincoln and Guba are discussed in relation to the present study.

4.5.3.1. Credibility

Credibility is one of the determining factors that ensure trustworthiness. More specifically, it refers to whether or not the research has been conducted along sound and defensible methodological principles as well as drafts of the final text having been checked with respondents to ensure that the researcher's analysis is as close as possible to the participants' conceptions (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p.396). To establish credibility of the data in this study, there were four techniques to be considered.

First, the data collection process took almost one year, which satisfied the principle of "prolonged engagement" (Lincoln and Guba, 1989). Rapport and trust were developed with the trainees throughout the training and the data collection process.

Second, as proposed by Patton (2002), triangulation was ensured by gathering data from different sources through different data collection techniques. Triangulation through multiple sources can be established in different ways according to Lynch (1996). Data source can be different participants, including teachers, students, and administrators. However, this study was only based on trainees as the sole source of data, which could be considered to be a limitation. Data can also be collected in different settings. During this study, the data set were collected not only in the classroom through observation, but also outside the classroom in the form of interviews. For the sake of triangulation, the researcher also collected data at different times. For example, the trainees were observed before, after, and six months after the training. In addition, to ensure triangulation for the methodology, observational notes, interview transcripts, and course materials during the interview were collected to gain insight into the depth of the data.

Another way to certify the credibility was peer debriefing (Lincoln and Guba, 1989), which refers to the views of colleagues not actively involved in the study. For example, the members of the thesis committee as well as other experts in the field were asked for opinions during each stage of the research. The data analysis process and the key themes that were induced from the data by the researcher were also confirmed by an English academician who did a similar data analysis in his thesis mentioned in 4.5.1.3. This process helped me see weakness and appropriate wording of the themes and categories. His being a native speaker of English also provided me with a chance to express the meanings more effectively. Peer scrutiny is another way of attributing credibility to the study by presenting it at a graduate conference during the last phases of data collection process. In the post-presentation discussions, a

number of insightful recommendations and comments from not only experts but also other PhD students and candidates were received.

Credibility can also be ensured by "progressive subjectivity" through keeping field notes and reflective commentaries (Lincoln and Guba, 1989) that would help me shape the findings of the study during the data analysis and interpretation. These data sources revealed the developing constructions obtained at different stages of the study and contributed to the neat description and adequate representation of the whole data.

On the other hand, as Patton (2002) suggested, background, qualifications, and experience of the researcher of the study play a key role in a qualitative research as it is the researcher who shape and create meanings out of the data. To do thorough content analysis and construct in-depth meanings and precise expressions that represent what happened and how it happened during the study, the researcher needs to integrate his academic skills into the study.

The last criterion is member checking which refers to the verification process to see how accurate the data are (Lincoln and Guba, 1989). This was achieved by asking the trainees to check the final version of the data for confirmation. After the data were translated and transcribed, the trainees were asked for opinions to check whether any meaning was lost during the translation process.

4.5.3.2. Transferability

Another criterion of trustworthiness is transferability. Lincoln and Guba (1989) describe this feature as the depth and detail of the study as well as the extent to which the researcher provided detailed enough information to describe the setting of the research to check whether the same finding can be applied to other studies in other contexts. In accordance with this criterion, the study provided comprehensive information about unique features of the research setting and the key characteristics of the participants.

4.5.3.3. Dependability

According to Lincoln and Guba (1989), dependability refers to the neat description of the processes followed in a qualitative study. To achieve dependability, the study provided comprehensive information about how data were collected, how the procedures were implemented, as well as how the analysis was carried out.

4.5.3.4. Conformability

Lincoln and Guba (1989) describe conformability to be the direct and close relevance of the data, understandings and results of the research with the context in an objective way. It also requires the interpretations made not to be a product of imagination of the researcher's subjective evaluations. To establish the principle of conformability criterion, neat and detailed description of the methodology was followed and expert opinions were adequately achieved.

As a summary, the following table provides a brief outline of how each research question will be evaluated and examined by different instruments and analyzed in the end.

Table 6
Summary of research design

Research Questions	Instruments	Analysis
1. Will the training result in concurrent change in trainees' beliefs about and practices in grammar teaching?	1. A structured interview for beliefs 2. Pre- and post-observations	Content analyses
2. Will the training enable the trainees to transfer their knowledge into actual classroom practices?	1. Post-observations 2. Semi-structured interview for impact 3. A structured interview for beliefs	Content analyses
3. Will the training lead to long-term change in teachers' actual classroom practices six months after the completion of the ISTT?	1. Delayed observation 2. Semi-structured interview measuring impact	Content analyses

CHAPTER 5

LINGUISTIC TRAINING

5.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces a critical analysis of the ISTT in order to identify the scope of the training in terms of content and delivery. The findings in the next chapter will be more clearly comprehended and interpreted in the light of the knowledge about the training aimed at developing a linguistic perspective in the trainees to yield impact on their beliefs and classroom practices immediately after and 6 months after the training.

The training was aimed at leading to changes not only in teachers' beliefs but also in their classroom practices. However, the training itself may not be sufficient to create impact and change in teachers because there are also other procedures to be completed such as longer and more supportive relationship, opportunities for teachers to think about, reflect upon, and practice the new knowledge gained under the presence of supervisors or mentors in the classroom. There are a number of factors that may induce long term change, including teachers themselves, perceptions of change, and the changes to be adopted (Hayes, 2000), previous language learning experiences (Britten, 1985; Hayes, 1995), teaching context and situation they are in (Wolter, 2000). However, there is another critical factor that needs to be considered and carefully addressed for promoting long-term conceptual change among trainees. This factor is beliefs that teachers have (Lamb, 1995) regarding language teaching, which is grammar teaching for the current study. A long term impact on teachers may be achieved if teachers' existing beliefs may be exposed and influenced by the

training provided. Kennedy (1993), Ur (1992), and Schön (1983) contend that teachers' existing beliefs may be affected if teachers reflect, promote critical awareness, participate actively in the learning process, and undertake ownership of their own learning. Professional development as such is best accomplished if learner-centered approaches and inductive training methodology are followed during the training. However, the trainings based on knowledge transmission given in lecture mode assign passive roles to trainees in acquiring knowledge (Sandholtz, 2002). Therefore, designing the training for trainees to induce or discover knowledge autonomously is the appropriate methodology that could lead to conceptual changes in teachers' knowledge and in turn in their practices. Such a training methodology could also ensure changes in beliefs about language teaching. Without beliefs being influenced, the changes in the teaching practices will be superficial and will not be maintained for a long period. Lamb (1995) exemplified this failure in training programs inducing long term change. He found that trainees did not change their practices as a result of their own beliefs about learning and teaching. Therefore, he claims that long term changes in teachers can be achieved if teachers' beliefs are considered and deliberately dealt with. He suggests that trainees should be given awareness-raising activities and enabled to actively participate in the training through assigning tasks and activities that could facilitate their acquiring new knowledge.

To this end, the current training was implemented in a way in which the trainees were guided to discover the knowledge through active participation in contextualized grammar activities supported by the linguistic knowledge about language acquisition theories. They were also provided with language awareness activities adapted from Wright and Bolitho (1993) for the purpose of the current

grammar point. Specific and detailed information about the content and delivery method of each session will be presented in this chapter.

5.2 Content of the ISTT

The training given to the trainees consisted of three stages: pre-training observations, four-week training and post training interviews and observations. The training provided in-depth linguistic input about cleft constructions with hands-on tasks where the trainees actively participated and constructed new knowledge by engaging in relevant activities. The ISTT was designed according to the needs of the selected trainees identified in the pre-training observations. It was found that teachers taught grammar in a traditional way in which they focused on structural aspects at sentence level rather than functional and contextual issues. It was also observed that they resorted to using mechanical drills based on structural transformations disregarding the functions and context in which these functions are realized. Having identified their needs, I decided on choosing a grammar point which they had not taught before in order to lead them to learning and generating materials rather than collecting the widely used exercises and activities available in the grammar books.

The typical teacher training session carried out in the institution by a teacher trainer includes those on developing teacher research competence which encourages teachers to research their classroom practices and promote exploratory and explanatory skills. Before the training started, Elif did such a research study and investigated isolated and integrated vocabulary teaching since she felt she needed to improve vocabulary instruction of hers. As Merve, Müge and Şerif just started to work, they had not been involved in such a training process.

The rationale for training based on promoting linguistic knowledge or subject matter and linguistic awareness without a methodological component was encouraging them to be actively involved in discovering creative ways of transferring new knowledge into their classroom practices and material generation. More specifically, I followed a trainee-centered active learning approach. Detailed content of the training is presented in Table 6 below in order to clarify linguistic issues covered as well as specific activities included.

Table 7
Linguistic topics in the content of ISTT

Detailed Content of the Training	
Session 1	*Mode*
Introduction: The general overview of ISTT: Objectives	Trainer input
What does the "Theory of Markedness" deal with?	Trainer input
Markedness Degree: sample sentences	Trainee Practice
What does "Theory of Markedness" focus on in SLA / EFL context?	Trainer Input
Questions that Markedness Theory seeks to answer	Discussion
Linguistic features and learning difficulty	Discussion
Clefting in Turkish and English	Trainer Input
Pseudoclefting in Turkish and English	Trainer Input
Marked and Unmarked Word order	Trainer Input
Task 1: From unmarked to mark	Trainee Practice
Task 2: Working on two versions of the same text	Trainee Practice
Task 3: Ranking from "basic word order" to "most unusual, least basic word order	Trainee Practice
Session 2	
Revision of the previous session	Discussion
Information Principle: definition	Trainer Input
discourse functions of clefts: foregrounding (*it-clefts) and* backgrounding *(wh-clefts)*	Trainer Input
discourse functions of it-clefts: contrastive & intensifying	Trainee Practice
discourse functions of wh-celfts, all-clefts, the clefts-, r(eversed) wh-clefts:	Trainee Practice

- contrastive & intensifying & discourse management	
Task 4: Analyzing information structure in dialogues	Trainee Practice
Task 5: Identify old and new information in given texts	Trainee Practice
Session 3	
Revision of the previous session	Discussion
Theme and Rheme	Trainer Input
Task 6: Analyzing different textual organizations of the same clause	Trainee Practice
Selection of marked themes: Objects, attribute complements, circumstantial adjuncts	Trainer Input
Marked themes in clefts	Trainer Input
Functions of marked themes: Emphasis and contrast	Trainer Input
Session 4	
Revision of the previous session	Discussion
Introduction to language awareness activities	Trainee Practice
Analyzing a text Activity 1:	Trainee Practice
Analyzing a text and identifying focus construction for discourse function	
Providing explanations Activity 2:	Trainee Practice
Suggesting reasons for why the author used syntactic focus constructions	
Consulting a grammar Activity 3:	Trainee Practice
Searching for focus constructions and comparing training content with it	
Evaluating exercises Activity 4:	Trainee Practice
Commenting on the language learning exercises to check the aims, the types of linguistic knowledge required of learners, and the modes of classroom interaction	
Writing a language learning exercise	Trainee Practice
Writing exercises based on insight into focus constructions in ISTT	

5.2.1. Session 1

In the first session, trainees were given in-depth information about the purpose of the training and how it would be run. The first session placed emphasis on markedness theory, a second language learning theory primarily dealing with the learning difficulties in particularly marked structures. This theory was introduced

because for the purpose of the training they would be learning and teaching a marked structure, namely clefts constructions. Odlin (2003) provides evidence that second language acquisition (SLA) is prone to be partially influenced by the linguistic features of first language (L1). This impact is also likely to affect other linguistic subsystems such as discourse and information structure (Callies, 2009, p.108). Through this training, the trainees were made aware of the transferability of L1 features as the focus constructions are accepted as marked structures that are likely to be influenced by the L1 linguistic system. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that raising their awareness in marked structures and how they are interpreted in SLA theories would help them better understand the target grammar structure. In addition to equipping them with theoretical knowledge, the trainees were provided with opportunities for practicing and discussing the newly acquired knowledge. They were induced to connect the Markedness theory and clefts in second language (L2) and L1.

5.2.2. Session 2

This session focused on information structure and principles in English. As clefts constructions are of marked word order, the information structure they carry in a text can be understood and interpreted only within a text. The syntactic movements in an unmarked sentence are closely related to the functions of these forms. It was also during this session that the trainees were provided with explicit knowledge about the subject matter. They were introduced to the specific types of clefts with their forms, meanings, and use in various contexts. The main reason for such a session was to help the trainees understand the role of information structuring system of English and encourage them to relate this knowledge to their instruction of marked

structures. Through the understanding of such theoretical knowledge about information structure, they were expected to learn how to handle the functions of different word orders and its influence on the structure of a text. Another aim was to promote their knowledge of form, meaning and use through functional and contextual information structure. To this end, the trainees were asked to analyze information structure in a dialogue and identify old and new information in several texts, which was implicitly rather than explicitly helping them discover the role of context in the understanding or comprehension of the meanings of these structures.

5.2.3. Session 3

This session started with a revision of the information structure and clefts constructions. The fronting of the different sentential elements was exemplified. The trainees were provided with sentences in a text and asked to analyze different textual organization of the same sentence, marked and unmarked. Marked themes were introduced, with an expectation that the trainees would discover that syntactic changes in an unmarked, canonical sentence could carry specific function, not randomly and aimlessly. They were shown that syntactic movements serve a purpose. At the end of the sessions, the particular functions of marked themes were given in several texts so that they could induce them. They successfully discussed the functions from contextually presented examples.

5.2.4. Session 4

The last instructional session provided links with the previous session, which was followed by implementation and use of the knowledge induced and constructed

by the trainees. I felt that the linguistic knowledge presented in these sessions could best be developed for teaching purposes through the activities based on language awareness as designed by Wright and Bolitho, (1993), who claimed that more awareness of language system can make teachers better. More specifically, they argued that teachers whose linguistic awareness is high, may be more successful in carrying out the following tasks: preparing lessons; evaluating, adapting, and writing materials; understanding, interpreting, and ultimately designing a syllabus or curriculum; testing and assessing learners' performance; and contributing to English language work across the curriculum. Therefore, Wright and Bolitho's (1993) language awareness activities were adopted for cleft constructions. The trainees were asked to analyze a text and identify the functions of focus constructions in it. Then they were expected to suggest reasons why these constructions were used rather than their unmarked canonical versions. This activity helped them to link the theoretical knowledge and linguistic practice. They discussed concepts such as contrastive and intensifying functions of clefts when they analyzed the text. To raise more awareness, I asked them to consult grammar books or online language learning resources and find focus construction for a comparison with what they learnt. This resulted in disappointment for the trainees as they reported few examples of contextualized functional exercises of cleft constructions. This was followed by an activity where the trainees were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the existing materials regarding clefts constructions. They realized that the related published materials highlighted limited depth and breadth of cleft constructions as they primarily focused on promoting rules of clefts at sentential level without any reference to and emphasis on their functions in context. Having raised awareness in this limited scope of the exercises, the trainees were then asked to write exercises and

activities, with the new understanding they constructed. However, they were not explicitly told to write functional materials. Such an experience helped them understand and practice new knowledge in the actual examples of clefts in the published resources with their own knowledge they had just acquired. In their language learning materials, clefts were presented with a more functional and contextual understanding and with a less structural focus. More specifically they generated materials aiming for communicative language learning method. This was the initial impact of the sessions. It seemed to me that the linguistic knowledge that the trainees were exposed to, which they had never learnt before impacted them deeply. In addition, when this knowledge was supported by the language awareness activities, the acquisition and application process was observed to be successful. According to Wright and Bolitho (1993), teachers need a high level of language awareness if they are to learn and practice communicative method of language teaching. They also highlight the crucial role of linguistic knowledge in helping learners overcome learning difficulties. In brief, this training attempts to equip the trainees with expertise in linguistic knowledge and language awareness in order to help them develop their grammar teaching instruction in their classroom practices.

5.3. Summary

In this chapter I have described the content of the in-depth training indepthly in order to give the readers insights into the process of the training and contextual basis on which they can base their interpretations from the results. I also reflected on my critical observations during the delivery of the training.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS

6.1. Introduction

The chapter consists of three sub-sections, each of which presents the findings for each research question. The first sub-chapter compares and contrasts the pre-training beliefs and classroom practices of the trainees with those after the participation in the in-service teacher training. The second sub-section provides evidence of transfer of the newly learnt knowledge from the training with reference to the practices directly related to the content of the training. It also introduces the results of the post-training interview obtained through the qualitative analysis. The final sub-chapter compares and contrasts the pre- and post-training practices with those implemented six months after the completion of the training to show whether the training left an ongoing impact on the trainees' newly-constructed grammar teaching practices.

This chapter in general analyzes and discusses the impact of the ISTT on changes and development the trainees experienced. The ISTT was prepared and tailored to the needs of the trainees that were identified in pre-training observations. The pre-training observations I carried out can be characterized as the presentation of declarative knowledge through the adaptation of a deductive approach. During these observations, I realized that teachers were giving declarative knowledge to provide students with a knowledge base, which was then little or no proceduralized in students' output with appropriate language learning activities. The lessons were dominated by explicit grammar teaching which aims to improve students' declarative

knowledge of the target structure. An ISTT program was accordingly designed to address and improve the weak aspects of the teachers identified in the pre-training stage, which are also discussed in the section where belief-practice consistency is analyzed. The training were based on providing opportunities for the trainees to discover, induce, and interpret theoretical content knowledge, which was the cleft constructions and generalize their knowledge they learnt and the skills they acquired at the end of the training. The rationale behind such a training model was twofold. Such an inductive training or discovery-based instruction followed in the training could first lead the trainees to effective learning of the content and secondly implicitly inspire them to follow a similar inductive approach in their own classroom teaching. This chapter will elaborate on the effect of the training by insightfully analyzing the data collected through different tools. First, teachers' pre-training beliefs about grammar teaching and classroom practices were compared and contrasted to understand the degree of consistency between them. Identifying the consistency degree is critical for the purpose of this research because the training is also aimed at influencing their beliefs towards a more effective grammar teaching. A concurrent change in their beliefs and practices is assumed to be an indication of conceptual change in teachers' language teaching approaches. Following this analysis, the same procedure will be applied to the data collected after the training to identify the change in their beliefs and practices concurrently. Finally, to evaluate the lasting impact of the training, the teachers' observed lesson six months after the training ended will be analyzed and their stated views as to the impact of the training will be analyzed.

6.2. Pre- and post- training beliefs and practices of trainees

This section depicts the pre- and post- training beliefs and practices of the four participants of the study. Each trainee's beliefs and practices are integrated and matched if possible to reveal whether there is consistency between their beliefs and practice. The same analysis is carried out after the training. Their reported beliefs and observed classroom practices are matched to demonstrate the simultaneous change in beliefs and practices at the same time.

6.2.1. Case 1: Müge

6.2.1.1. Müge's Pre-training Beliefs and Practices

Before the ISTT, Müge was asked to teach it-clefts to identify her existing grammar teaching practice of it-clefts. She did two hours of teaching in a pre-intermediate class with 16 students at Gediz University, İzmir in December, 2011. Below is a table designed with reference to Müge's selected materials for teaching it-clefts, which also reflects her approach to teaching grammar.

Table 8
Instructional stages of Müge's observed lesson before the training

Warm-up activity	
Contrastive Analysis Turkish-English	Instruction
Definition of it-clefts	Instruction
Emphasis in English	Instruction
It-cleft sentence structure in formulae	Instruction
A sentence with each element emphasized in it-cleft form	Instruction
Transformative it-cleft exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Card game: forming sentence from scrambled constituents	Decontextualized task
Situations to respond with it-cleft sentence	Contextualized task

Song listening activity (It was you): completion of the missing words	Contextualized activity
Quiz: Rewriting in partly given sentence	Decontextualized exercise
Card game: forming sentence from scrambled constituents	Decontextualized task
Quiz:	
Rewriting in partly given sentences	Decontextualized exercise
Reading and completing a structured dialogue with incorrect information	Contextualized Task

Documents from teaching context such as materials used, tasks, activities, and exercise applied provide a comprehensive picture of teachers' knowledge in use when concurrently integrated, synthesized and analyzed with data set obtained through data collection methods such as observation and interviews.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Before the training, Müge reported that she herself explained grammar rules to students rather than giving them opportunities to discover the rules of grammar. The following is her actual statement that includes this belief.

> I had a problem of never trusting in my students in learning from context. As their levels of proficiency are low, I always had fears that they would not understand the topic when they are asked to induce the rules from the sample sentences. I thought that if I myself teach the grammar topic, the students could better learn (Müge).

Her belief that teachers should explain grammar rules can be justified with her demonstration of the formulae in the initial stages of the lesson, which was

followed by a sample sentence to match the formulae and sentential element of a cleft sentence.

Extracts from Müge's pre-training observation lesson

It-cleft sentence structure in formulae

She demonstrated the formulae below and connected it to the sample sentence below.

IT + BE + (NOT AND/OR ADVERB) + EMPHASISED WORD / PHRASE + THAT (WHO (*for a person*)) CLAUSE

A sentence with each element emphasized in it-cleft form

She gave the following sentence with a normal word order and asked the students to give emphasis on each constituent in the sentence.

Mike took Sally to the party on Saturday

Then she showed a table where there are sentence combinations in which different parts are emphasized.

Figure 2. Extract for teaching cleft sentence structure

Sentence	Mike took Sally to the party on Saturday
Emphasis on the subject	It was Mike who took Sally to the party on Saturday.
Emphasis on the object	It was Sally that Mike took to the party on Saturday.
Emphasis on the adverbial	It was on Saturday that Mike took Sally to the party.
Emphasis on the prep. Phrase	It was to the party that Mike took Sally on Saturday.

Source: Müge's teaching materials in pre-training observation

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Müge reported in the interview that she does not use sample sentences from which students can induce grammar rules of the target grammar forms, which is also evident in her classroom practice where she provided the formulae for it-cleft sentences in line with Belief 1. Consistent with Belief 1 she described, her practice does not prioritize using sample it-clefts sentences but presenting the grammar rules which could function as a springboard for students to understand the cleft constructions.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Müge indicated that she rarely used situations in grammar teaching in the belief interview and justified her belief in the following way:

> In previous grammar lesson I thought that I could not produce or create situations by which to teach. I thought that using situations cannot be appropriate for every grammar topic. Only in certain topics I used to use situations such as simple past tense. This could not be applicable to all grammar subjects (Müge).

As can be understood, she was aware that situations could be used for instructing grammar, but she felt incompetent in creating situations for every grammar point. However, in the pre-training teaching practice, she tried using situations to help students to produce it-cleft sentences. The following extract from her lesson demonstrates her approach to using situations. It seems, however, that she provides a very narrow discourse to form context in some. She does not make it clear who is talking to whom. The only information in the description of the context is that the student is speaking with someone with whom they have no actual relations in real

life. It seems that she had the idea of presenting rules in situations, which were not

resorted to very often partly due to incomplete knowledge.

Situations to respond with it-cleft sentence

She started a task where she described the following situations and asked them what

they would say in such a situation.

1. You are arguing with your brother. He wants you to tidy up but he made the mess. You say:
   It was you who made the mess.
2. You are gossiping with your friend. She says that Tom asked Janet out for dinner, but you know that it was true. You say:
   It was Janet who asked Tom for dinner.
3. She is always telling lies not John. You say:
   It was her who is always telling lies.
4. You can eat in this restaurant after 8:00 p.m. You say:
   It is only after 8 o'clock that you can eat in this restaurant.
5. Monica studied English at La Leguna University. You say:
   It was at la Leguna that Monica studied English
6. I had a party last Friday, not Saturday. You say:
   It was Last Friday that I had a party.

On the other hand, 3-4-5 questions were far from well-described contexts /

situations. It seems that there is a problem with the understanding of

contextualization. The teacher did not mention the context so much but just said what

needs to be focused. The *why* questions were left unanswered. Situations 1, 2 and a

little bit 6 have contextual clues that might force the students to use cleft sentences

and understand how these structures can be functionally used. The teacher seems to

contextualize it-cleft constructions, but she never mentioned the functions of the

target sentence. She could have asked the students to name the speech act function

here such as accusing/denying the blame. She did not check this in this activity. It is

clear that there is limited and inefficient use of context for students to use in their responses.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is related to whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning, when instructing grammar. When she retrospectively evaluated her beliefs before attending the training, she made this statement.

> I used to think that grammar was rules and formulas for me. I instructed that way and I implicitly gave students the idea that grammar is only rule to memorize (Müge).

This statement clearly shows that, before the training, Müge followed form- and rule- based approach, which is strongly and clearly reflected in her remarks. The following extract from Müge's pre-training observation lesson shows how Müge tried to teach more structure to students without contextual clues. The activity was a game, but it was only to make students to improve their knowledge about word order. She applied a game she designed by asking the students to mix the cards (on each of which different constituents of the sentence are written) and stick them on the board randomly. Then students brought together the cleft sentence. The cards contained the following cleft sentence elements which students then tried to make a grammatically correct sentence.

Activity content:

Card 1: *Sally*   Card 2: *who*
Card 3: *broke the vase*   Card 4: *it was*

The students formed the following sentence from the given cards. The sentence was grammatically correct and the activity gave students opportunity to acquire the structural characteristics of clefts constructions.

Students' response:

It was Sally who broke the vase.

This activity repeated 5 times with different words on each card, which involved student participation actively.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 was on whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. Müge made a retrospective remark about the issue by comparing her case before and after the training.

> I thought that rules are to be provided by the teacher. As you also remember, I taught the same lesson before the training, where I drew tables on the board and presented conjunctions as a list and tried to explain the usage of forms (Müge).

She showed Figure 2 to the students and explained that "who" can be interchangeably used with "that" without realizing that this is the case for only words with animate semantic property.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 was about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. Müge's belief was supporting the idea that drills are very important. She also answered this question by evidencing another dimension in this belief, which

was memorization. She probably attempted to help students memorize the rules through drills. Her exact statement is below:

> I used to provide activities that were based on sentence and memorization before I was involved in this training. (Müge)

Müge's following activity that may be seen as mechanical drilling of grammar structures evidences consistency between her beliefs and practices, which were aimed at promoting students' learning of clefts as a structure.

Instruction: A. Rewrite the sentences, making them more emphatic.

        Sample Exercises:
1. The awful weather drives me crazy.
   It ………… (the awful weather)
   Response: *It was the awful weather that drives me crazy.*
2. I can't stand the noise.
   It's ……… (the noise)
   Response: *It's the noise that I can't stand.*
3. I received the promotion.
   It …….. (the promotion)
   Response: *It was me who received the promotion.*

The second question, differently from the other two, included dummy subject and verb "to be" as a clue. These exercises exemplify how Müge drills new grammar structure. This activity was practiced twice. The second was in the form a short quiz, which students answered and then orally practiced under the guidance of the teacher. These types of questions do not allow students to practice forms in meaningful communicative activities, as they do not prioritize contextualization of the forms.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

This belief focuses on whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. She again remembered what she did and made a connection between her beliefs and practices.

> Before the training, I thought that using sentences was effective in teaching rules by which students can better understand the clefts. I gave the rules and gave fill-in-blanks exercise using sentences (Müge).

The materials Müge used were full of sentences by which she taught clefts constructions. She taught the rules within the sentence boundary. The previous samples show that this is the case.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 highlighted that grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Müge asserted her belief by giving an example of how he would teach.

> If I am teaching a complex grammar, I usually give rules and formal explanations in the beginning, thinking that students would mix.

It seems that she implies that her practices are shaped around her belief that rules and formal explanations should be provided by the teacher before the training. She also explains here that she provides the rules initially and particularly for students might not able to cope with by themselves. Throughout the lesson Müge made some grammar explanations regarding accuracy without waiting for the students to discover or understand.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

This belief was about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence which is similar to Belief 7. Müge implied her belief by focusing on the changed practices. She highlights that using sentence-level discourse may not be as effective as using situations and larger discourses.

> I was not that much aware how useful creating situations and using context could be. But in fact it is useful (Müge).

During the pre-training lesson, she attempted to use some situations, which were not clear and well-described. There seemed more like a re-writing exercise.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 focused on the fact that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. She explained her statement using her changed beliefs.

> I almost always used mechanical drilling as an activity to teach the rules, and such practices dominated my lessons. I used to love mechanical drills and practice them in the classroom as a teaching technique very often (Müge).

It seems that she valued mechanical drilling very much, but if these are the only types of exercises without any emphasis on functional concepts of language use, which follows function-to-form line, they may not lead to proper learning of such forms.

6.2.1.2 Müge's Post-training Beliefs and Practices

Table 9
Instructional stages of Müge's observed lesson after the training

Warm-up activity	A dialogue activity
Semantic differences between it-clefts and wh-clefts	Metalinguistic activity
Semantic differences between it-clefts and wh-clefts in a dialogue	Contextualized activity
Definition of clefts sentences	Instruction
Using wh-clefts in situations	Contextualized activity
Semantic analysis of clefts	Metalinguistic activity
Transformative wh-cleft exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Semantic and syntactic analysis of it-clefts	Metalinguistic activity
Transformative it-cleft exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Question-answer activity for it-clefts produced by students	Contextualized activity
Dialogue for "contrast" function it-clefts	Contextualized activity
Semantic analysis for "intensifying" function it-clefts	Metalinguistic activity
Dialogues for two functions of clefts	Contextualized activity

The lesson after the training can be characterized by a number of changes in comparisons to the lesson before the training. One of them is the shift from explicit teaching of grammar based on teacher instruction to implicit teaching based on students' inductive learning through several activities. Müge also included more analysis of sentences with different word orders in the form of metalinguistic talks to help students to learn how different ordering of sentence elements create new meanings and functions with clefts constructions, which could help them be more creative in using these structures in their language production. Another shift was in the amount of information provided on the subject matter, i.e. cleft constructions,

which is inevitably due to the knowledge-based training they were actively involved.

The specific changes in beliefs and practices are indepthly evidenced below:

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Belief 1 is about whether teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners. After the training, Müge stated that she modified her existing beliefs in a way to integrate them in their classroom practices. Before the training, she was aware that there is also an option of teaching grammar by exposing the students to comprehensible input, but she did not have adequate knowledge of how she could proceduralize this. The following response clearly shows the shift.

> I started to believe that we need to start with examples. I realized that I need to trust in their abilities we need to try out such context based activities. They could learn in this way as well.

It seems that the training provided her an opportunity to deepen her knowledge about the role of contextualized grammar and apply it in a classroom. She tried this approach in the post-training lesson and realized that she could follow a functional approach to grammar teaching.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Belief 2 is about whether teachers should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples. The response Müge provided shows that there is a change in her practice which is consistent with the belief she explained below.

I realized that I could teach inductively through materials that focus on the functional use of language in appropriate contexts. So I try to find context based activities to use in the classroom and apply situational activities. I saw that if the students induced the rules from the sample sentences or dialogues, the knowledge of rules are clearer and comprehensible. Thanks to the training, I realized that using inductive mode of teaching should be tried out, which I have heard but had never done before. In theory, it is said that inductive learning provides learners with advantages, and in practice, the training also helped me to test and confirm this.

When compared to her pre-training beliefs and practices, those that emerged after the training can be characterized by more awareness in the potential effectiveness of teaching grammar inductively, more confidence in trying out new things, and development in insights into the construction of grammar teaching skills.

Extracts from the observed lesson to evidence beliefs 1-2

In total, there are totally five contextualized activities that verify the shift in teachers' practices initiated by the training first in their beliefs of grammar teaching. The first two activities were a warm-up as an attempt to implicitly introduce the contrastive functions of clefts, followed by inductive questions directed to students to see whether they have induced the meaning and functions of clefts from the context. These are the dialogues between Müge and a student.

A: Did you watch the Oscar Movie Awards?
B: Yes, it was fantastic.
A: I heard that *Kate Winslet won a car.*
B: HAHA! *What Kate Winslet won was the Oscar.*
A: Oh! I'm sorry. Did you say Cat Prinslet?
B: Are you kidding? *It was Kate Winslet* who won *t*he Oscar.

Right after sufficiently practicing the dialogue with students, she made the target

forms salient in the dialogue and wrote three following sentences from the dialogue

which are different versions of one another. Then, she asked the students to think

about the differences between them.

> Kate *Winslet* won the Oscar.
> It was Kate *Winslet* who won the oscar.
> What Kate *Winslet* won was the Oscar.

Having discussed the answers, the students replied that the sentences made

salient are conveying contrastive meaning because they said there is correction of the

inappropriate information. That was fine for the teacher as she said. After this

activity and discussion, she demonstrated another dialogue on the board, which was

between Sarah and John. She made the target structures salient again and asked the

students to discuss their context.

> S: Good morning, Mr. Track. I would like
> to see the manager.
> J: Please take a seat ma'am. May I have
> your name?
> S: Sarah Walker.
> J: Sorry, did you say Sarah Polker?
> S: No. *What I said* was Sarah WALKER.
> J: Ok. When was your last meeting with the
> manager?
> S: On Tuesday.
> J: Sorry, did you say Thursday?
> S: No. *It was on Tuesday* that we had a
> meeting.

She highlighted the cleft sentences and asked them why these types of

sentences are used. She expected the students to discover the meaning and functions

of these forms from the contextualized dialogues. The students' answers were

correct: to contrast or to correct. She gave five more similar activities to help them

understand this function of clefts. She explained that another function of these constructions is to intensify or to emphasize. She said she was going to show this function as well during the course.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Belief 3 is about whether new grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations. Müge seems to go through substantial change in her stated beliefs and actualized practices. The statement after the training demonstrates this shift markedly.

> I started to create situation in texts, context, paragraphs, and I observed that the students learnt the rules better when they understand the situation. I always felt that students would feel better if instructed with form based activities. However, now I think that if students don't use and produce, this will not go beyond memorization.

In the pre-training lesson she gave a situational activity with insufficient clues about the context. But this time it can be seen that she improved the situation by providing more details about the context. Two of the situation questions are as follows. She asked the students *to give appropriate answers according to the situations.*

1. You got a package from your friend Peter who is in Chicago. Your mother wants to know what he sent. What would you say? (letter)
   Response: *What Peter sent was a letter.*

2. Your father bought you a toy car for your birthday, but you wanted to have a doll not a car. What would you say?
   Thanks dad, but what I wanted was a doll.

Consistent with her stated beliefs, she practiced grammar point in situations in the very early stages of the lesson. Without explicitly giving rules, she implicitly

enabled students to use the induced rules from the dialogues introduced in the beginning stage of the lesson.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is on whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning. There is more awareness and considerable shift on the part of the teacher in terms of the value of meaning based activities as opposed to activities derived from "focus-on forms" activities. The following original statement provides ample evidence about the shift in relevant existing beliefs and classroom activities.

> If students are instructed through meaning-based activities, they will change their views. If they induce rules and use the forms, language and grammar will be more meaningful for them. They memorized the rules all the time, but never produce language with these rules. They were not practicing the meanings of forms at all. My English teacher was always focusing on grammar forms disregarding meaning and use of grammatical forms. We used to write on the board and memorize them. This could be a safe way of learning like a guarantee. After the training, I understood that grammar should not be taught through formulas or only rules to be memorized. The forms should be practiced and used in communication in real life. I also understood that I should draw students' attention to meaning rather than only forms.

It seems that the training created an opportunity for Müge not only to compare and contrast how she was taught grammar when she was a student but also to reshape her ideas and beliefs about how to teach it herself. As in the activities given for belief 2 and 3, she applied several activities throughout the lesson that prioritizes giving students opportunities to use the target forms they are being implicitly taught. While teaching it-clefts she used dialogues that show contrastive function and short texts that exemplify intensification function of these forms.

Practices consistent with the changed beliefs

To exemplify the contrastive function of it-clefts, she introduced the following three dialogues to draw their attention to contextualized it-clefts.

1. T: Was it Emre who came late yesterday?
    S: No, *it was Merve who came late,* not Emre.

2. A: I don't like John anymore.
    B: Why do you say so?
    A: Because he is a liar. He is always telling lies.
    B: Oh, no. *It isn't John. It is Jennifer who* always tells lies.

3. *(Two friends are gossiping)*
    Jess: Hey, listen! Tom asked Ashley out for dinner!
    Frida: No, Jess. You are wrong. It was Ashley who asked Tom
          out for dinner.

The teacher then explained that it-cleft constructions have another function, which is intensifying. To teach this function, she demonstrated some dialogues and asked the students to find the cleft structure and tell her whether the underlined forms have contrasting or intensifying function.

1. *Text (Intensifying)*
Jilson left her boyfriend. They had arguments
and *it was his bad behavior that made Jilson*
sad.

2. Text (Intensifying)
Jack graduated from Oxford University. He
is a qualified person. *It was his good*
qualifications that made him get the job.

3. Text (Contrastive)
Bill and Tom were playing in the living room.
While playing, Bill broke his mother's vase. Bill
was silent and the mother was angry with Tom.
Tom said: "Mom, *it was Bill who broke your*
vase, not me".

These are some original, teacher-generated materials that Müge used in teaching functions of clefts sentences. These activities and the subject matter of these constructions were not at all part of the lesson she gave before the training. The training enabled her to use knowledge about language (KAL) into designing appropriate materials consistent with the grammar teaching beliefs modified, enlivened, enriched and changed after the training.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 is about whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. This is based on inductive learning approach, which involves students' actively dealing with the underlying rules of the structures. It was observed that Müge's stated beliefs and practices in classroom teaching shifted remarkably, which she also highlighted clearly.

> I agree. We need to create a context and help students to induce rules from this sample. However, long term learning will take place if they work out the rules and construct their own knowledge of grammar. For example, I tried this in the classroom, with conjunctions such as *because, therefore*, and *as a result*. I exemplified the topic with sentences. They induced the meaning of these conjunctions themselves. If I had given it directly, I think it would not be so effective. I did not need to explain the rule again. They easily distinguished the meanings and did successfully the exercise.

Creating contexts to present grammar rules was an important characteristic of Müge's post-training lesson. Almost every activity and exercise extended beyond sentence level input, and included texts or dialogues from which students induce rules. The classroom activities exemplified for beliefs 2-3-4 can also be representative for belief 5 as well.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 is about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. Müge did not totally give up presenting drills based on sentence transformation through mechanical mode. She included such drills after having adequately presented the target grammar structures in contexts such as dialogues and short texts. She copied the same activity from the pre-training lesson, which aims to give students more control over sentence structure and improve accuracy rather than appropriateness in a context.

> Of course we need to give drills. The steps could be like that: they first induce rules, you consolidate the learning of the rules and their meanings, later in drills where students produce language with the rule newly learnt. Now I can choose right exercises not only based on sentences and fill in the blanks as possible contribution of the training.

In this activity, she asked the students to rewrite the sentences in a way to focus on the constituents of the given sentence.

Mike took Sally to the party on Saturday.

1. It was *Mike* who took Sally to the party on Saturday.
2. It was *Sally* that Mike took to the party on Saturday.
3. It was *on Saturday* that Mike took Sally to the party.
4. It was *to the party* that Mike took Sally on Saturday.

The students successfully transformed sentences into marked versions. She used this activity to make sure that the structure presented in dialogues and texts has been understood.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

Belief 7 is about whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Müge stated in the interview that she started to use more tasks and activities

I now give tasks where they construct dialogues and role plays and understand the function of forms in text will be more useful.

Müge experienced a realization after the training that forms have functions, which can only be taught in discourse larger than sentences. Throughout the lesson, she dominantly used sentence-beyond input in which forms, meanings, and functions are triangulated to teach all aspect of the grammatical forms.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 is on whether grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Müge changed her view of grammar explanation after the training. There was long teacher talk time where she explained every grammatical rule. After the training, she reduced teacher talk through exercises, activities, and tasks based on student-centered approach. Rather than talking about the rules, she developed ways to elicit them from students. The following statement shows that this changed after the training.

> Now I believe that I should at least try to start with sentence and text from which they can learn. I also think teachers should avoid explain the rule especially in the beginning of the lesson. Students should induce the rule. However, in rare cases, when students cannot understand or get confused, the teacher should provide help for them to understand.

However, there were also times when she made grammar explanations. These were in the form of semantic analysis of two different uses of the target forms in dialogues or sentences. She reused the three versions of the same declarative sentence to help students to analyze the different forms which had basically the same meaning out of context.

Kate Winslet won the Oscar.
It was Kate Winslet who won the
Oscar.
What Kate Winslet won was the
Oscar.

The students managed to talk about the differences as they have seen these sentences in context at the beginning of the lesson. If they had not, it is highly probable that they will not be able to make the same comment.

Having done this, she proceeded with another similar activity that forced students to do metalinguistic talk about the meaning and functions of the sentence by comparing the following set of sentences.

1. We now need actions rather than words.
What we now need *are* actions rather than words.
Actions rather than words *are what* we now need.

2. I enjoyed the brilliant music most of all in the Ballet
Frankfurt performance.
What I enjoyed most in the Ballet Frankfurt
performance *was* the brilliant music.
The brilliant music *was what* I enjoyed most in the
Ballet Frankfurt performance.

Having elicited answers from the students, she explained that they have the same meaning, but there is a small difference. She added that in *a* "actions rather than words" is emphasized at the end of the sentence, while in *b* the emphasis is on the same word but in the beginning of the sentence.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

Belief 9 is about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence. In the pre-training observation Müge dominantly used sentences as the medium of teaching grammar. However, in the post-training lesson,

I observed that she almost completely changed the materials and hardly used sentences for exemplifying rules. She exposed students to dialogues and short texts to create practice opportunities. The belief she reported below also supports this observation.

> The basic elements should be context, situations in teaching. Inducing meaning from a situation is more effective compared to from a sentence.

Müge seemed to raise awareness in larger discourses than sentence after the training and expressed that such discourses could be more effective than sentence level practices. There are also sentence-based exercises, but this time she used exercises at sentence level to initiate metalinguistic analysis where students talk about the meaning and functional differences of two sentence orders which have the same declarative meaning out of context.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 is on the idea that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. After training, she minimized the use of mechanical drills, which dominated the lesson before the training. The content of the training influenced her beliefs about using mechanical drills. She widened her perspective and became aware of the value of different types of exercises as she reported below.

> I realized that it is like memorization. Fill in the blanks without form-meaning connection. I could distinguish the exercises from one another now. I became aware and conscious of these aspects of grammar teaching. I now use different types of drills in context.

There are mechanical drills in the lesson plan, but unlike the application in the pre-training lesson where Müge demonstrated the transformed versions of the given sentence, she guided the students to write different versions of the original sentence and explain which sentence element is focused.

6.2.2. Case 2 Merve

6.2.2.1 Merve's Pre-training Beliefs and Practices

Before the ISTT, Merve was asked to teach it-clefts to identify her existing grammar teaching practice of it-clefts. She did two hours of teaching in a pre-intermediate class with 16 students at Gediz University, İzmir in December, 2011. Below is a table designed with reference to Merve's selected materials for teaching it-clefts, which also reflects her teaching grammar approach.

Table 10
Instructional stages of Merve's observed lesson before the training

Instructions	Mode
Warm-up activity	Self-Introduction
Definition of it-clefts	Instruction
Contrastive Analysis Turkish-English clefts	Instruction
Rewriting exercises	Decontextualized exercise
A sentence with each element emphasized in it-cleft form	Decontextualized exercise
Written transformative it-cleft exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Song listening activity (It was you): completion of the missing words	Decontextualized activity Contextualized task
Oral transformative it-cleft exercise	
Quiz: Rewriting in partly given sentence	Decontextualized exercise
Reading and completing a structured dialogue with incorrect information	Contextualized task

Documents from teaching context such as materials used, tasks, activities, and exercises applied provide a comprehensive picture of teachers' knowledge in use when concurrently integrated, synthesized and analyzed with data set obtained through data collection methods such as observation and interviews.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Before the training, Merve reported that she started the grammar lesson by providing grammatical rules without any examples.

> I used to teach the related rules at the beginning of the lesson in a classical way by writing them on the board. Then I used to give example sentence below.

Her belief that teachers should explain grammar rules to learners cannot be justified from the lesson she taught in my presence. Rather than providing the rule, she started by doing contrastive analysis. It could be that she somehow avoided providing rules for the lesson I was observing. This time she attempted to enhance students' awareness by drawing their attention to the formal cross linguistic differences between English and their own language, Turkish.

Extract from Merve's pre-training observation lesson

She wrote the following sentence on the board.

> *"Kardeşim masadaki vazoyu kırdı."*

Then asked what the subject, object and verb in the sentence are? She showed how to emphasize the subject in Turkish by transforming the original sentence.

> *"Masadaki vazoyu kardeşim kırdı."*

After this, she exemplified how the subject "kardeşim" can be emphasized in English and wrote the following sentence.

"It was my brother who broke the vase."

She then explained that in English it-clefts can be used to emphasize.

It seems that she introduced it-clefts not through rules but through contrastive analysis and explained why these constructions are used. It also seems that there is no consistency between what she believes and what she does in the classroom.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Merve reported in the interview that she usually provided rules before she gave the examples. During the observation, I observed that she explicitly gave rules. She used cleft sentences explicitly and then asked the students to write similar sentences for them to be able to use the rule that she provided. This demonstrates a consistency between the beliefs and practices for this grammar teaching construct.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Merve indicated that she seldom used situations in grammar teaching in the belief interview and that even if she does, it always follows the introduction of the rule presentation.

> Using situation was not part of my grammar teaching instruction. Though I used them sometimes, it was for practicing rather than teaching the rules of the grammar subject.

During the lesson, she used some situations after the contrastive analysis to help learners make sentences. However, it was like a situation and rewriting activity. She demonstrated the following sentences on the screen and asked learners to rewrite it-cleft construction.

At first, I thought that John stole my wallet, but then I learned that Sarah stole it, not John.

The student response with the help of the teacher was as follows.

It was Sarah who stole my wallet.

However, the second exercise was just like transforming the sentence elements to improve the learners' knowledge of the target structure. She asked the learners to emphasize each sentence element, subject, object and time adverb.

John buys a newspaper on Mondays.

Students' responses were:

It is John who buys a newspaper on Mondays

It is a newspaper that John buys on Mondays.

It is on Mondays that John buys a newspaper.

It seems that what the teachers consider to be an activity in situations is not appropriate. Situations should provide contexts for the sentences. However, only the first exercise exemplifies such a case to a limited extent, while the second one is just a rewrite activity that does not contain any situational information. From these grammar practices, one can say that the teacher has misconceptions about the use of situation and context that are appropriate for teaching contextualized grammar.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 5 was on whether teachers should focus on structure and form rather than meaning. Merve reported that she used to highlight more structural aspect rather than meaning.

> I think that structures need to be taught effectively so that students can learn English. If they know the rules, they can produce sentences.

In line with this belief, during the observed lesson she provided a transformative activity that targeted to teach the structural characteristics of it-clefts at sentence level. She wrote the following sentence on the board and numbered each sentence elements for students to write an it-cleft sentence for each.

<u>Daddy</u> took <u>little Sam</u> <u>to the zoo</u> <u>on Sunday</u>.

    1   2   3   4

It was Daddy who took little Sam to the zoo on Sunday.
It was little Sam that Daddy took to the zoo on Sunday.
It was to the zoo that Daddy took little Sam on Sunday.
It was on Sunday that Daddy took little Sam to the zoo.

It seems that the only focus was on the structural aspect of it-clefts as indicated in the belief interview. The meanings of the forms are not discussed at all. The main focus is on the acquisition of the rules by which it-clefts sentences could be grammatically constructed.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 6 was about whether teachers should help learners to work out rules for themselves. Merve's belief was not consistent with the practices observed. She implicitly expected the students to work out the grammar rules but not explicitly teaching them at any stages of the lesson. Though she provided decontextualized

exercises, she did not teach the rules through demonstration or explanation of the formulae on the board.

> I did not use to help students infer the rules, I simply gave them directly. I actually provided help during the exercises.

Merve, though she could not explain, followed an implicit rule teaching in the lesson, which was enabled through decontextualized exercises at sentential level. In the belief interview, she talked more about general grammar teaching, but in the lesson I observed she taught in the opposite way.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 4 is related to whether teachers should begin teaching new grammar structure by explaining the rules. She reported that she almost always started teaching a new grammar structure by explaining and drilling the rules.

> I used to start with direct rule teaching in grammar lessons. I did not give an opportunity for students to understand the rule themselves.

During the observation, she taught clefts and used materials in compliance with her beliefs, which means she did not provide any opportunity for students to induce rules, but she gave drills

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

This belief focuses on whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Merve said that she used sentences as the means of presenting grammar rules.

Before the training, I used to teach grammar using example sentences often. They learn this way but can't integrate grammar in conversations.

This belief was confirmed by the types of exercises conveyed through sentences common in the worksheets and in what she wrote on the board to present grammar.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 highlighted that grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Merve asserted her belief before the training that a teacher has to explain rules and should not avoid this.

Before the training, I believed that a teacher has to explain rules and I did so.

During the lesson, although Merve did not explicitly explain the rules through demonstration on the board, she frequently drew the students' attention to the formal properties of clefts by making salient the tense, sentence elements such as subject, objects and time expressions to help them learn how to construct a cleft sentence. In addition, in the worksheet she generated for the observed lesson, she first gave the instruction (use the structure "it + be+ …. + who/that …") and then asked the students to rewrite the decontextualized sentences using it-clefts by focusing on the underlined sentence elements.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

This belief was about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence which is similar to belief 8. Merve reflected her belief that sentence was the main means of conveying grammar.

I used to teach grammar rules using sentences rather than longer text.

The exercises she gave students in worksheets were full of sentence transformations that are aimed at improving students' knowledge of clefts at sentence levels.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 focused on the fact that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. She explained her statement using her changed beliefs.

I used to believe that mechanical drills alone were very important for teaching structure. I always included such drills whatever structure I taught. It is a valuable exercise type.

Merve put a considerable emphasis on the mechanical drills and transformative activities to improve students' knowledge of a typical cleft sentence structure. Such activities dominated the lesson and the materials she provided.

6.2.2.2. Merve's Post-training Beliefs and Practices

Table 10 tabulates the sequential stages of Merve's lesson including the contextualization degree of the exercises and activities.

Table 11
Instructional stages of Merve's observed lesson after the training

Instruction	Mode
Warm-up activity	Activity
Contrast function of it clefts in short dialogues	Contextualized activity
Analysis of marked and unmarked sentences	Metalinguistic activity
Pair work: Card game-practice of it clefts	Contextualized activity
It-cleft rule induction	Metalinguistic activity
Recognition of new structures	Metalinguistic activity
Transformative wh-cleft exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Text analysis for wh-clefts	Contextualized activity
wh-cleft rule induction	Metalinguistic activity
Transformative wh-cleft and it-cleft exercise	Decontextualized activity

The lesson observed immediately after the training can be characterized by a shift in instructing grammar with more contextual activities by which students are provided with opportunities to induce grammar rules and to generate their own cleft sentences. The activities presented were designed to help students to understand functions and meanings of the forms in various contexts. Merve avoided explicit grammar teaching through a teacher-centered perspective, but allowed students to induce grammar rules from the contextual activities and exercises towards the end of the lesson. Her lesson was based on the presentation of context –function –form respectively, while in the pre-training lesson she followed on only form presentation through decontextualized activities. Another marked difference is that Merve brought

to her lesson more contextual activities compared to the previous lesson I observed. This is one of the impacts of the training as she also expressed in the interview.

To provide more evidence for the changes in Merve, a comparison of her post-training beliefs and practices will be described.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Belief 1 is about whether teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners. After the training, Merve stated that she changed her beliefs and practices in explaining the grammar rules to the students. Her direct instruction of the grammar rules was replaced by an approach to exposing students to input out of which the students could induce the rules for themselves.

> I used to introduce the rules without giving any examples, but after the training I realized that providing sample sentences for students and expecting them to infer the rules will lead to more effective learning, because the students think about the form, process the knowledge, and induct the rule.

It seems that the training provided her with an opportunity to reflect on her practices and learn the effectiveness of knowledge induced from input. Merve applied this grammar teaching approach in the post-training lesson successfully where she allowed the students to implicitly learn form and contrastive functions of it-clefts.

> A: Did Edison invent the telephone?
> B: No, it was the light bulb that he invented.
>
> A: Macellan discovered America, right?
> B: No, it was Columbus who invented America.
>
> A: Did Kepler invent Atomic Bomb?
> B: Yes, it was also Einstein who invented Atomic Bomb.

The students without any instruction of it-cleft forms were exposed to such an activity through which students practiced the form and implicitly understood the contrastive function. This activity Merve generated herself could be evidence for the conceptual change caused by a concurrent change in beliefs she reported and practices I observed her doing in the classroom.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Belief 2 is about whether teachers should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples. Merve said that she believed that she presented the rule first and then provided sample sentences. However, after the training she reported a change in her beliefs and practices.

> I used to believe that I should present rules followed by sample sentences, but now I usually provide sample sentences followed by the rule.

The changed practice of rule teaching from explicit to implicit, which also supported by her statements from the post-training interview verifies the potential impact of the training. In the lesson, Merve waited for the students to be adequately exposed to the input from which they could discover the rules of forming clefts.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Belief 3 is about whether new grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations. Merve seems to go through considerable change according to her stated beliefs and classroom practices. The statement after the training demonstrates this shift markedly.

After the training, I started to think that using authentic texts for teaching grammar could make it easier for students to use grammar in communication. Such teaching could also allow them to know why they learn and use the structure. Therefore, I now wait for them to discover the rule in the different situations and then I explain if necessary. I do this to teach them to use the structures in daily life.

Merve understood an emerging function of using situations in the classroom, which was to help students understand the functions of the forms in situations. This is a simultaneous change both in beliefs and practices. Merve presented activities that support this change in her worksheet. She practiced contrastive functions of clefts in situations as follows:

> Cameron:
> - Hey Jane! What's up?
> Jane:
> - Hi Cameron! I have just been to the hospital for some tests. To my surprise, I happened to see Mr. Clark there. He was looking awful. Is he suffering from cancer?
> Cameron:
> - No, ……. (Hepatitis C) (*It is Hepatitis C that he is suffering from.*)

In this activity the students are expected to complete the situational dialogue using it-cleft sentence. She provided 10 situational questions in the worksheet to make them acquire the contrastive function of clefts. The contrastive functions of clefts were implicitly introduced in the activities during the training. There were texts and dialogues, which might have helped them to understand the functions of the clefts in this discourse. It seems that they followed a similar way of introducing the functions of these forms.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is on whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning. There is more awareness and considerable shift on the part of the

teacher in terms of the value of meaning-based activities as opposed to activities derived from "focus-on forms" activities. The following original statement provides ample evidence about the shift in relevant existing beliefs and classroom activities.

> I used to think that structure and form are the main things that are to be taught, but I now think that a grammar lesson should also focus on the meaning. Both should be taught in a balanced way through contexts in situations and dialogues

It seems that the training helped Merve think reflect on the structurally-oriented teaching and realized the gap in her instruction. More specifically, the training showed her that forms are meaningful in context and that she needs to highlight functional principals of language use as well as form-and-rule based approach. She started to use larger discourse than sentences in instructing the grammar. This cognitive and practical shift in Müge can be evidenced by actual classroom activities. She gave students a text about Rome and Juliet which is followed by a relevant dialogue where the teacher asks a wh- question and a student replies. When an incorrect answer is posed, the teacher corrects it using it-clefts or wh-clefts. Through this dialogue, the contrastive function and meaning of clefts are implicitly taught the students.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 is about whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. This belief can be connected to students' inducing grammar rules from the input they are provided without teachers' explicit instruction. Merve's belief changed after the training in favor of teaching rules inductively as is clear from the interview response and the classroom practice observed after the training.

> I did not use to help students induce grammar rule, rather I used to teach them explicitly. However, now I provide sample sentences or texts from which I expect them to form the rule of the structure.

During the lesson I observed, Merve presented short dialogues where the students were expected to contrast the information uttered by another person. She also gave a longer dialogue in which the students were forced to use it-clefts to contradict what was previously said. After these contextual activities she asked them to explain the grammar rules for it-clefts. This rule teaching before the training was made by the teacher's explicit explanation, whereas after the training, the teacher held back and allowed the students to form the rule. This change is verified by the teacher's statements and observed practices.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 is about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. It seems that drills play an important role in grammar instruction. Like Müge, one of the other trainees, Merve also maintains her belief about the use of drills in teaching grammar.

> Language is a thing that is also automatically learnt. Students can learn how to use structures appropriately, but drills is useful especially to effectively teach the structure. I still believe that mechanical drills should be used.

Despite this statement favoring the use of drills, the activities that Merve used during the post training lesson contained almost no drills. She prepared contextual activities that highlight the functions and meanings of it-clefts.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

Belief 7 is about whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Merve said in the post training interview that she changed her belief about using sentence as the medium of teaching grammar.

I now don't believe that teaching grammar sentences is enough. I believe that using texts and dialogues to teacher grammar can be more effective. This way, students can see how structures are used.

The changed beliefs can be supported by the activities from the observed lessons. She gave clear instructions for the students to complete dialogues where contrastive function of clefts is exercised. One of the questions is as follows.

A: Did you enjoy reading "Harry Potter"? (Lord of the rings)
B: ----- (It was Lord of the rings that I enjoyed reading)

Through these exercises the students not only practiced and produced it-cleft sentences, but also implicitly learnt the function of these structures.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 is on whether grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Merve questioned her practice of teaching rules directly. Though she did not completely avoid grammar explanation, she started to wait for the student to discover the grammar rules themselves. She provided explanations for students only when they need.

After the training, I did not change my belief about grammar explanation but changed the way I did it. I now give time to the students so that they can discover the grammar themselves. I started to become more like a helper. I explain if they do not understand the rule.

In line with the statements in the post-training interview, Merve conducted activities and tasks to present grammar in context, after which she asked the students to form the rule themselves.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

Belief 9 is about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence. In the pre-training observation, Merve's grammar instruction was based on a sentence-level approach. However, she changed her belief about presenting grammar through sentences. This is clear not only in her statements but also in her classroom practices.

> I now believe that if grammar is taught in texts and context, this could lead to effective learning. I used to base my grammar instruction on sentences only.

This statement clearly shows that after the training Merve gained insight into the importance of teaching grammar through discourse other than sentences. Throughout the observed lesson, Merve taught clefts in texts and dialogues not randomly but with a consciousness developed during the training.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 is on the idea that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. After training, Merve reduced the number of mechanical drills and focused more on contextual grammar teaching.

> I used to use only mechanical drills while teaching grammar. Though mechanical drilling is necessary for teaching the structure, I realized that this alone is not enough, but it is not valueless either.

Merve did not change her positive belief about the use of mechanical drilling, but she minimized the use of such exercises as is indicated in the statement and verified by the types of the exercises she presented in the lesson.

6.2.3. Case 3 Elif

6.2.3.1 Elif's pre-training beliefs and practices

Before the ISTT, Elif was asked to teach wh-clefts for the identification of her preexisting grammar teaching practices. She taught wh-clefts in two hours. Below is a table that outlines the planning a flow of the lesson. Table 11 demonstrates the instructional details about Elif's lesson before she participated in the ISTT.

Table 12
Instructional stages of Elif's observed lesson before the training

Instruction	Mode
Warm-up activity	Activity
Song: gap completion with the target structure	Contextualized activity
Meaning construction from sample sentences	Instruction
Transformation drills	Decontextualized exercise
Question & answer dialogue with pictures	Instruction
Personalized question &answer activity	Contextualized activity
Question & answer dialogue	Controlled contextualized activity
Quiz:	
Rewriting in partly given sentences	Decontextualized exercise
Reading and completing a structured dialogue with incorrect information	Contextualized activity

Documents from teaching context such as materials used, tasks, activities, and exercise applied provide a comprehensive picture of teachers' knowledge in use when concurrently integrated, synthesized and analyzed with data set obtained through data collection methods such as observation and interviews.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

In the belief interview, Elif said that she gives the rules to students and explains grammar rules herself. However, during the pre-training observation I carried out, she did not explicitly teach rules of clefts. Rather, she expected the students to discover how clefts are formed and practice the structure through the drills she gave. There is consistency between her beliefs and practice for explaining grammar rules. However, she could be mentioning her general instructional decisions, which were not followed in the lesson observed.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Elif reported in the interview that she starts the lesson with a cross linguistic activity where she asks the students to think about how the same form is constructed in Turkish. She also said she then provides example sentences.

> I used to start the lesson, by asking students how they can say it in Turkish and then go on with examples.

Accordingly, during the lesson I observed she assigned the students to translate the cleft structures into Turkish, and she provided a number of sentences for students to process the rule of forming clefts. It seems that her beliefs are consistent with her practice for using examples to teach new grammar points. A teaching practice consistent with this belief from the actual classroom is as follows:

Input: What I want is a cup of coffee.
Elif: What does this sentence mean in Turkish?
A student: *İsteğim şey bir fincan kahve.*

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

In the interview, Elif said that she did not use situational context to teach

grammar points, which is also clear in what she said as follows:

Before the training, I did classical teaching in line with the students' habits. I did not use to do such activities. I did not see them so useful activities.

During the pre-training lesson I observed, she did not give any situations that

exemplify in what contexts wh-clefts can and should be used.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is related to whether teachers should focus on structure and form,

rather than meaning when instructing grammar. When she retrospectively evaluated

her beliefs before attending the training, she made the following statement.

Before the training, I did exercises to improve structures and forms only. Although I believe that there are other ways of teaching grammar, presenting structures is useful. When students learn the forms effectively, they can understand the meaning themselves.

It is clear that, before the training, Elif had the belief that forms and structures

are of more importance, which is also integrated in her grammar instruction. Her

classroom practices can well support this belief. In one of the practices, she wrote a

sentence on the board and assigned them to create focus for each element of the

sentence.

John sent the letter to Mary.

Teacher: Now I want to emphasize on "the letter"

> A student: What John sent to Mary was the letter.
> Teacher: Now I want to emphasize on "Mary"
> A student: Who John sent the letter to was Mary.
> Teacher: Now I want to emphasize on "John"
> A student: The one who sent the letter to was Mary.
> Teacher: Now I want to emphasize on "sent the letter to Mary"
> A student: What John did was send the letter to was Mary.

This decontextualized exercise proves the importance she attaches to the presentation of structures rather than meaning of forms.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 was on whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. In the belief interview, Elif stated that teachers should provide rules of new grammar structures.

> I was not teaching in a way that students could work out grammar rules. I believed that it was teachers' job to teach the rules.

However, during her teaching I observed, she did not explicitly teach grammar rules. There was a considerable effort to teach rules implicitly unlike what she believes. I can explain the reasons for this inconsistency with reference to the contextual factors such as the presence of me in the classroom and no pressure posed by the syllabus of the language teaching program in the school.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 was about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. Elif indicated that she believed in the importance of drills in teaching grammar. She stated in the interview:

I used to provide a lot of drills as I believed that students can learn grammar if they practice drills often.

Influenced by this belief, Elif brought to the classroom drilling activities that helped students practice the form in a very controlled way. She handed out to each student a picture in which somebody is performing an action. She then asked them to imagine that they were doing the action in the picture and responding to her accordingly using the form "what I am doing".

> Teacher: Are you brushing your teeth?
> Student: No, what I am doing is to cook.
>
> Teacher: Are you going to bed?
> Student: Yes, what I am doing is to go to bed.

She used pictures as stimuli for the students to drill a particular structure "what I am doing". She unconsciously practices the contrastive function of wh-clefts without explicitly saying so, which could be due to the lack of subject matter knowledge as will be discussed in 6.2.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

This belief focuses on whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Elif confirmed her classroom practices by saying that when teaching grammar; she believes that it is enough to instruct grammar through using sentences.

> Before the training, I believed that sentences are enough to teach grammar.

The exercises and activities Elif used were at sentence level. She did not use beyond-sentence discourse to present the structure. However, in two activities, she

used question & answer dialogues where students are supposed to use the target form in a sentence with wh-cleft. Elif showed a picture of a family eating at a restaurant and asked questions in the following way.

> *Teacher: Are they eating at home?*
> *Student: No, where they are eating is at the restaurant.*
> *Teacher: Are they having lunch?*
> *Student: No, what they are having is dinner.*

Although controlled and limited, these activities implicitly showed the students that wh-clefts can be used to emphasize the wrong information uttered by another person. Elif here carried the grammar teaching boundary beyond sentence level. She probably is not aware that such activities include sentences which constitute discourse beyond sentence level.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 highlighted that grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Elif reported that she believed in the opposite before the training by saying:

I did not think that a teacher should avoid explaining grammar rules themselves. I used to teach rules by myself.
.

It is clear that she favored explaining grammar rules herself. However, during the pre-training observation I did, I noted that she just did metalinguistic explanation rather than explicit rule teaching. She explained subject verb agreement in wh-clefts and the order of the elements in the sentence.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

This belief was about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence which is similar to belief 8. Before the training, Elif

clearly proved to believe in the important role of using sentences during grammar

teaching.

> Before the training I believed that practices should be based on exercises with sentences. Learning how to form sentences with the target structure is the main aim of grammar teaching.

During the pre-training observed lesson, Elif used decontextualized sentences

as well as dialogues with wh-cleft sentences.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 focused on the fact that mechanical drilling is of no value in

language teaching. She explained that she used to find them useful without any other

alternative approach.

> I believe that mechanical drillings were important because students can easily understand the structure of the forms and practice them through drills I give.

It is clear that she valued mechanical drilling very much. During the observed

lesson, she gave decontextualized independent sentences and asked the students to

orally transform them into wh-clefts. A part of the activity is as follows:

> *Teacher: She wants a glass of water*
> *Student: What she wants is a glass of water.*
> *Teacher: I really need a holiday*
> *Student: What I really need is a holiday*
> *A holiday is what I really need.*

In general, Elif followed a structural perspective while teaching, but sometimes she

used contexts where functions of clefts were exercised, of which she was not aware.

6.2.3.2 Elif's post-training beliefs and practices

Table 13
Instructional stages of Elif's observed lesson after the training

Warm-up activity	A dialogue activity
A reading passage for True False Activity using it- and wh-clefts	Contextualized activity
Oral cleft transformation from unmarked to marked version	Decontextualized activity
Dialogue completion through reading	Contextualized activity
Situation-based dialogue construction	Contextualized activity
Song Listening: filling the gaps with clefts	Contextualized activity

The lesson after the training can be characterized by a number of changes in comparisons to the lesson before the training. One of the is the shift from explicit teaching of grammar based on teacher instruction to implicit teaching based on students' inductive learning through several activities. Elif also included more analysis of sentences with different word orders in the form of metalinguistic talks to help students to learn how different ordering of sentence elements create new meanings and functions with clefts constructions, which could help them be more creative in using these structures in their language production. Another shift was in providing the amount of the subject matter knowledge, i.e. cleft constructions, which is inevitably due to the knowledge-based training they were actively involved. The specific changes in beliefs and practices are indepthly evidenced below.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Belief 1 is about whether teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners. After the training, Elif explained that she started to use a technique of rule teaching, which she did not perform. Actually before the training, although she said she taught rules herself, she did not do so in the lesson I observed. After the training,

she said she allowed students to discover the grammar rules themselves. During the lesson she never mentioned a word of rules of clefts, but focused them on understanding and using the target structure throughout the lesson.

> After the training I started to pay attention to students discovering the rules. Now I think that teachers should not explain. Students must find out. Now I give some examples and expect them to infer. When they discover, they learn better. When I give, they may forget in a day or so.

It is clear that she had the belief that teachers should explain the rules to students, but she did not practice so. However, from what she said in the post-training interview, it seems that she developed an understanding of discovery-based approach to rule learning and teaching. She seems to reflect insightfully on her existing beliefs and practices and come up with personal ideas of the positive impact of such a teaching approach. The impact of the training is not a change but raised awareness in inductive teaching of grammar rules.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Belief 2 is about whether teachers should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples. She reported that she changed her teaching to providing examples without explaining the rules.

> Especially after the training, I started to give examples to teach grammar rules. It is better now to give examples and start the lesson without explaining the rules.

In line with what she reported in the post-training interview, Elif started the lesson with a reading text followed by a True/False activity that required the students to approve or disapprove the given cleft sentence as True or False. Here the students were provided with sample sentences, after which they were assigned to complete the

focus positions of the cleft sentences. Elif created a dialogue between grandma and the student, who is supposed to correct the information wrongly understood by the grandma with hearing difficulty.

> *Grandma: Hey, grandchild! What were Paul and his friend doing there, swimming?*
> *You: No, grandma, what they were doing was _____?*

Elif implicitly taught the contrastive function of clefts without explicit focus on the rules of forming clefts. It seems that she began teaching the grammar point exposing the students to a text and a follow-up activity containing clefts in context.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Belief 3 is about whether new grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations. Elif seems to raise awareness in the merits of teaching grammar through situational context. Her following statement demonstrates changes in her beliefs and practices.

> After the training, I started to pay attention to teach grammar in situations. In this way they learn where they can use the structures and become more willing and they retain knowledge of grammar better.

In the pre-training lesson she did not employ any activity that included situations. However, after the training, she prepared an original situation activity to teach the students how clefts can be used in communication. Her following activity shows that she also practiced situations in her post-training observed lesson. The activity was in the form of discourse completion task that required the students to form a dialogue in which they used either it-clefts or wh-clefts. What follows is only two of the eight contexts she employed.

You are a doctor and seeing a patient. You ask about the problem and try to learn where exactly the pain is.

You:
Patient:
You:
Patient:

You are a student and your teacher asks you where you can see kangaroos. Some students say "in Africa". You want to correct the information.

Teacher:
You:

It is clear that Elif wanted the students to create context for the target forms by providing them with opportunities for contextualized language production by which they can integrate function with forms in particular contexts.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is on whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning. Elif indicated that she underwent a radical change in her beliefs and practices of teaching grammar. She also implied that her main focus in grammar lessons changed from focus-on-forms activities to meaning-based, focus-on-form activities to presenting grammatical structures. Her following statement also demonstrates this conceptual change.

I started to teach forms and their meanings. The training was a milestone for me.

It is clear that the training provided her with an opportunity to revisit her beliefs about and practices of grammar instruction. The following activity shows that

she was also able to transfer this knowledge into her classroom practice through the

activity she generated. This activity helped the students to understand the meaning of

clefts by integrating their functions in a dialogue.

> *A: Have you heard that Michael bought a car for his*
>   *girlfriend?*
> *B: Yes, I have. He bought a BMW, didn't he?*
> *A: No, <u>what he bought </u>was a red Ferrari!*

With this activity, she explained how wh-clefts can be used for creating

contrast in an actual communication, thinking that they will understand the meaning

of cleft construction.

> *I am going on a trip around Europe*
> *next week. I want to see a lot of places,*
> *but <u>what I actually want to see</u> is Trevi*
> *Fountain in Rome.*

With this activity, she exemplified the intensifying function of wh-clefts,

which could facilitate the construction of meaning of clefts. With the awareness she

raised during the training, she prepared such activities, proving the knowledge

transfer into actual classroom practices.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 is about whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar

rules for themselves. Elif planned her activities to teach the rules of forming clefts

implicitly without any explicit reference to the rules or word order.

> After the training, I consciously planned to ask students to infer the rules of
> forming cleft constructions from the sample sentences, dialogues and texts I
> used in the lesson.

Elif's post-training lesson can be characterized by the functional and contextual

activities that aim to help the students to develop knowledge of clefts. For example,

while teaching it-clefts, she provided the following dialogues from which students can infer the grammatical rules.

> *A: My aunt has 4 children, and it is Julia who studies at university.*
> *B: She studies History at Oxford, right?*
> *A: No, it is at Cambridge that she studies History.*
>
> *A: My friends and family made a surprise birthday party for me.*
> *B: Really? How was it?*
> *A: Great! I was so surprised.*
> *B: What about the presents?*
> *A: Well, I got many presents. But it was the car that I liked most.*

She seems to have developed ability to create contexts for introducing grammar structures with the contexts they are used appropriately. She also exemplified the contrastive function of it-clefts from which the students were able to improve their knowledge of these structures.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 is about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. In the pre-training lesson, Elif employed a controlled drill-based activity that asked the students to use *what I am doing* in dialogues, which were replaced by a transformative mechanical drill.

I now believe that context- and situation-based exercises are very essential.

The following exercises show the conceptual change in her beliefs about using drills and the way she prepared drills within a context.

A: Did the First World War end in 1910?
B: No, it was in 1918 that it ended or When the First World War ended was in 1918.

A: Who did you give the letter to? (the landlady)
B: The person who I gave the letter to was the landlady or It was the landlady that I gave the letter to.

A: What does your grandmother want?
B: What she wants is a glass of water or It is a glass of water that she want, or A glass of water is what she wants.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

Belief 7 is about whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Elif stated in the interview that she started to avoid decontextualized sentence- based exercises. She also reflected on her weakness in grammar activities where she skipped activities beyond sentence level.

> After the training, I realized that I skipped activities based on talking and writing. But now I noticed how important they are.

During the post-training lesson I observed, Elif minimized the use of sentence-based exercise and increased the use of larger discourse such as dialogues and paragraphs. The following activities exemplify the change in the materials she employed.

Joe: Oh Jane, where have you been?

Jane: Hi Joe, I was on holiday for a few weeks.

Joe: Yeah, you went to Canary Islands, right?

Jane: No, where I went was Hawaii.

Joe: Really? How was it?

Jane: It was great.

In another activity she contextualized a situation for a hotel survey by asking students to respond to a survey which required them to use wh-clefts.

> *There is a survey in the hotel you're staying in. They ask you some questions:*
>
> *Staff: Are you happy with our hotel?*
> *You: Yes, I'm generally happy to stay here.*
> *Staff: What are the things that you like most?*
> *You: I like your service, food, entertainment. But the nature and peace are* <u>*what I like most in your hotel*</u>*.*
> *Staff: Why would you come here again?*
> *You: The price is* <u>*the main reason why I prefer here*</u>*.*
> *Staff: Thank you so much for your time. Have an enjoyable holiday.*

Elif's realization of the merits of the use of sentence-beyond input improved her skills to design contextualized and situational activities that could engage students in learning through implicit grammar teaching activities.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 is on whether grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. After the training, Elif reconsidered her beliefs about grammar explanation. She started to create learning environments where students induce grammar rules themselves with a minimum of explanation. The following statement shows that the beliefs and practices changed after the training.

> After the training, I realized that I started to give opportunities for students to find the rule. I gave up explaining them.

During the observed lesson, rather than explaining grammar, she demonstrated unmarked sentences so that they can write the marked versions of the same sentence and expected them to understand the formal characteristics of clefts.

I would like to go to <u>Paris</u> on my next holiday.
<u>Where I'd like to go on my next holiday</u> is Paris.
<u>It is to Paris that</u> I'd like to go on my next holiday.

I would like to go to Paris <u>on my next holiday.</u>
<u>When I would like to go to Paris</u> is my next holiday.
<u>It is on my next holiday that</u> I'd like to go to Paris.

<u>Dave</u> sends me letters.
<u>The person who sends me letters</u> is Dave.
<u>It's Dave who</u> sends me letters.

I need <u>a holiday to rest.</u>
<u>What I need</u> is a holiday to rest.
<u>It is a holiday to rest that</u> I need.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

Belief 9 is about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence. In the pre-training observation, Elif used sentences as the medium of teaching grammar. However, in the post-training lesson, I observed that she almost completely changed the materials and used sentences for teaching clefts to a very limited extent. She provided the students with dialogues and short texts to give them opportunities to deal with larger discourse other than sentences. The following statement also proves this change.

> Now I believe that not sentence but dialogues and short texts within contexts are needed. I started activities that involve their production and creating context.

Having raised awareness in the effective use of larger discourse in teaching grammar, Elif started to use materials other than sentences most of the time. One such activity was a song in which it-clefts and all-clefts are contextualized. There were also reading passages and short dialogues and texts she employed.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 is on the idea that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. After training, Elif minimized the use of mechanical drills, which characterized the pre-training lesson. She raised awareness in using different types of exercises other than sentence-based transformational drills as was clear in her response.

> Now I think that exercises should be in context. Mechanical drilling should not be the only way of grammar teaching.

Instead of mechanical drills, she prepared and employed activities that helped students to process the cleft structure in different contexts.

6.2.4. Case 4 Şerif

6.2.4.1 Şerif's Pre-training Beliefs and Practices

Below is a table designed with reference to Şerif's selected materials for teaching it-clefts, which also reflects her teaching grammar approach.

Table14
Instructional stages of Şerif's observed lesson before the training

Warm-up activity	
Introducing the meaning of the word "cleft"	Instruction
Noticing in different word orders	Instruction
Emphasis in English wh-clefts	Instruction
Wh-clefts sentence structure	Instruction
Written Transformational exercise	Decontextualized exercise
Oral transformational exercise: pair work	Decontextualized activity
Transformative it-cleft exercise	

Documents from teaching context such as materials used, tasks, activities, and exercise applied provide a comprehensive picture of teachers' knowledge in use when concurrently integrated, synthesized and analyzed with data set obtained through data collection methods such as observation and interviews.

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Şerif reported that he himself explained grammar rules to students rather than giving them opportunities to discover the rules of grammar. He said that he followed rule-first approach in grammar lessons.

> Before the training, I was explaining grammatical rules to the learners because it came to me logical to provide exercise after giving the rules. It was like from theory to practice.

In line with this belief, he started the lesson with a focus on formal structure of clefts. He explained to the students how a wh-cleft sentence is constructed with reference to the selection of wh-question words, subject-verb agreement in wh-clefts and word order rules of wh-clefts.

> *There will be two parts in wh-Cleft sentences.*
> *For example,*
> <u>*What*</u> *we now need* <u>*is*</u> *action rather than word.*
> *We now need action rather than word.*

As is clear from this extract from his power point, he focused the students' attention to the intra-sentential characteristics of wh-clefts right at the beginning of the lesson. This introduction justifies his beliefs about grammar rule teaching

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Şerif reported in the interview that he used sentences for the students' inducing the rule for wh-clefts. However, during the observation I carried out, he

started the lesson with a great deal of emphasis on the structure of wh-clefts, after which he provided sentences for exemplifying these grammar rules and for giving them opportunities to transform sentence from unmarked word order into marked wh-clefts.

> This was also the same before the training because when I give examples, I not only support the learning of the subject but also students can infer from these examples and give their own examples. This makes students learn the grammar rule more effectively.

As Şerif explained the grammar rules himself, the following sample sentences were not for students to induce the rules but to practice the newly learnt wh-clefts.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Şerif reported in the beliefs interview that he does not use situations in grammar teaching as he needs to focus on the structure.

> Before the training I almost always used only drills. I know about situations but never used it when teaching grammar. They are not actually useful. I believe that I should focus on the structure if I am teaching grammar.

During the observation I carried out, he did not show the students the possible context in which wh-clefts can be used. He placed more emphasis on how wh-clefts sentences can be formed.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is related to whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning when instructing grammar. Şerif clearly explained his beliefs about rule teaching disregarding the meaning of the wh-cleft forms.

> I had this idea before the training as I wanted them to learn the rules from my instruction and use it in the exercise.

This statement clearly shows that Şerif had beliefs that grammar teaching should be based on teaching rules rather than functional and contextual properties. This belief is also consistent with most of the exercises he gave and the activities he carried out. For example, he gave a worksheet with 5 canonical sentences so that the students can transform each to non-canonical word order to improve their knowledge of how wh-clefts can be constructed.

1. *Alev solved the hard problem*
2. *They need our help to overcome this bad situation.*
3. *They would like to create a new project.*
4. *Your health is more important than anything else.*
5. *She hides her children far from the city.*

He used these decontextualized sentences for teaching the word order rules of wh-clefts without any reference to their meaning and functions in a context.

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 was on whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. Şerif reported that he did not know about inductive teaching by which he can provide examples from which students can induce the grammar rules themselves with little help from the teacher.

I did not do such activities before training because I was not aware of such a teaching approach.

Rather than inductive teaching, he employed deductive teaching where he himself taught the rules of wh-clefts.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 was about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. Şerif reported that drills are necessary because students can track the progress and enjoy playing with the sentence structure. His exact statement is as follows:

> Before the training I believed that drilling was very important and useful. It was enjoyable because the students could see how they learn. My lessons were based on drills.

In line with this belief about using drills in grammar lessons, Şerif provided the students with a worksheet based on pair work. The students were expected to orally complete 10 wh-cleft sentences using the information in the given canonical sentence. The drill was as follows:

> Listen to your partner's sentences and rephrase with your own choice using a cleft sentence.
>
> A: I want to visit the National gallery this weekend.
> B: What I really want to do is ……
>
> A: I adore the guitar riffs in their early recordings
> B: What I adore is ….

Here the drill was an automatic one as the students were expected to place in the blank a short phrase rather than construct a full wh-cleft sentence. In addition, there was also no turn-taking as in a normal conversation using yes or no.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

This belief focuses on whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises. Şerif clearly expressed his beliefs about using sentences to teach grammar.

Before the training, I was using sentences to teach the grammar rules as I believed that grammar can best be taught using sentences.

The exercises that Şerif used during the observed teaching were all sentence-based. There were not any dialogues or texts to exemplify the wh-clefts in authentic context.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 highlighted that grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Şerif explained clearly his beliefs about grammar explanation that teachers should explain grammar.

I always thought that grammar explanation by teacher is essential. I always did so.

In line with his beliefs, Şerif highlighted the grammatical rules right from the beginning of the lesson to the end. His primary concern was teaching the rules of wh-clefts, particularly intra sentential ones such as subject verb agreement, word order, selection of the right wh-pronoun, and selection of tense.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

This belief was about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence which is similar to belief 8. Şerif once again confirmed that grammar teaching at sentence level is an effective way of presenting grammar.

I always used sentences in my instruction of grammar because I was not developing materials myself and I believed that sentences are easier to prepare and handle during the lesson.

During the pre-training observed lesson, he employed exercises for sentence transformation for the most part. His teaching through sentences was consistent with his beliefs.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 focused on the fact that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. He explained his beliefs about the use of drills that without drills there was no other ways of presenting grammar.

> Before the training I thought that mechanical drilling is critical in grammar teaching. It was the only way of teaching grammar.

It seems that he lacked knowledge of other ways of grammar teaching. His practices were centered on the belief that drills were effective exercise to teach grammar.

6.2.4.2 Şerif's Post-training Beliefs and Practices

Table 15
Instructional stages of Şerif's observed lesson after the training

Warm-up activity	A dialogue activity
Text based grammar teaching practice	Contextualized activity
Pictures to stimulate students to use clefts	Contextualized activity
Cleft sentence completion based on a reading passage	Contextualized activity
Dialogue completion with clefts	Contextualized activity
Functions of clefts: contrasting and intensifying	Contextualized activity
Story completion using clefts	Contextualized activity

Şerif's post-training lesson can be characterized by several changes when compared to the pre-training lesson. He made different instructional decisions and designed and integrated different materials into the lesson, especially in favor of contextualized materials that helped students to deal with meanings and functions rather than forms. Another change was in considerable effort he put in teaching implicit grammar rather than explicit, teacher-led instruction. He also provided students with more detailed and rich subject matter content about cleft constructions in comparison to the relatively limited amount of knowledge about cleft constructions. The specific examples for the changes in beliefs and practices are clearly and adequately evidenced below:

Belief 1: Explaining grammatical rules to learners

Belief 1 is about whether teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners. After the training, Şerif clearly explained the shift in her beliefs and practices. Before the training, he believed that teachers' teaching grammar rules is critical, but after the training he began to consider the role of induced grammar rules in learning grammar. The following response clearly shows the shift.

> After the training, I got the chance to research discourse-based teaching by which students can extract the rules from the context and they use these discovered knowledge better in exercise. It is also a better learning. When they don't understand the rules properly by inducing the rules, they can later compensate for this incomplete knowledge. I started to help students induce the rules from the input I provided. In the first days, it was hard for them but in time they got used to discovering the rules. Therefore, I instructed rule discovery rather than explaining the rule myself. When they really can't find the rule, I provided help.

Changing the belief about teaching grammar rules reflected in his grammar teaching after the training. He employed inductive methodology by which he gave the students opportunities to induce rules of grammar from the texts, reading

passages and dialogues. The first activity he conducted is a good example of how he

exposed the students to a text and asked relevant questions with it clefts and wh-

clefts.

> *'He didn't go down to the river alone that night, did he?' In fact Lauren had every reason to suppose that Russell had gone down to the river with Sandy Grayson. 'No I don't think he did,' said Tracy. 'And someone else was following?' Laura suggested. 'Yes, perhaps,' said Tracy noncommittally. <u>Was it Tracy who followed Russell and Sandy?</u> Or <u>was it Sandy who followed Russell and Tracy?</u> And how did Dora Carpenter fit in? [Victoria Silver, Death of a Harvard Freshman, 1984, p.99]*

Şerif included an authentic novel extract into teaching clefts to help the

students notice the clefts in a context. Şerif's explaining grammar rule himself

before the training was replaced by his using such texts to present grammatical form

without explicitly explaining to the students the rules of clefts.

Belief 2: Teaching a new grammar point by giving examples

Belief 2 is about whether teachers should begin teaching a new grammar

point by giving examples. Şerif's response to the question clearly showed that there

is a change in his practice which is consistent with the belief he explained below.

> After the training I started to expose the students to language samples such as dialogues and reading texts. When I gave examples, I not only supported the learning of the subject but also students could infer from these examples and produced their own examples. This made the students learn the grammar rule more effectively.

Şerif's pre-training beliefs and practices were based on rule teaching by

employing sentences, while those that emerged after the training are characterized by

more awareness in the potential effectiveness of teaching grammar inductively and

more insights into the construction of grammar teaching skills. The following

activity can be a good example of how he began to integrate reading comprehension

into rule teaching activity.

READ THE INFORMATION IN THE BOX THEN COMPLETE THE REPLIES.
EACH REPLY MUST CONTAIN <u>A CLEFT SENTENCE</u>.

Nick arrived late for work on Monday because he got stuck in a traffic jam on the highway.
Luckily, Nick had a mobile phone so he was able to phone his boss and warn her that he would
be late. She was angry but managed to reorganize an important meeting for the afternoon.

1. Nick was late because he overslept, wasn't he?
No, it _____ that he
was late.
2. How did Nick let the boss know he would be late?
Well, what _____ call her from
his mobile phone.
3. Wasn't Nick late on Wednesday?
No, _____ that he was late.
4. Nick's boss had to start the meeting without him, didn't she?
No, what she _____ the afternoon.
5. Didn't Nick get stuck in a traffic jam in the town center?
No, not in the town center; it _____ got
stuck.

Presenting this activity, Şerif wanted to help students learn the grammar rules

of clefts by answering the question in which they used clefts. The shift in teaching

materials is consistent with the changes in his beliefs of rule teaching through

context.

Belief 3: Presenting and practicing new grammar points in situations

Belief 3 is about whether new grammar points should be presented and

practiced in situations. Şerif seems to have experienced substantial change in his

beliefs and teaching practices. The statement after the training demonstrates this shift

markedly.

After the training I developed materials and started to learn how I could practice grammar using situations. I prepared role plays and pictures for practicing the newly learnt grammar subject. This increased student participation in learning process. Thanks to this, they could use them in the texts and writing as well as in daily life and they also see how and where the forms they learnt can be used.

In the pre-training lesson I observed, Şerif did not use any contextual activity. He used only decontextualized sentences for teaching the syntactic characteristics of clefts at sentence level. However, after the training during the lesson I observed, he employed an activity to show the students the functions for which clefts were used.

Please compose a compare and contrast sentences using given vocabularies below and It- or Wh- clefts. You may also like to add your own sentences and to include your own imagination.

<div align="center">

DAVE'S ROOM   *JANE'S ROOM*

</div>

Sample: What I see first in Dave's room is a long staircase which takes him up to his neat and seemingly comfortable bed. There is no carpet in his room, but he has a large number of drawers. What I see in Dave's room is ...../ What I cannot see in Jane's room is …..
white chair - green pillow - two little colorful chairs
a little white table - a brown curtain - two beds - one bed
three brown pillows - a t-shirt on the wall - a white desk lamp

Consistent with the changes in beliefs, he presented grammar point in situation of describing one's room. This situational activity implicitly enabled students to use the induced rules from the text introduced in the beginning stage of the lesson.

Belief 4: Focusing on structure and form, rather than meaning

Belief 4 is on whether teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning. Şerif gained more awareness and experienced considerable shift in terms of the value of meaning -based activities as opposed to grammar teaching activities derived from "focus-on forms" activities. The following statement provides evidence about the shift in relevant existing beliefs and practice.

> After the training I started to think that they need to learn the meaning as well as the structure. They also need to know where to use them. I changed my view because languages are learnt in use so students should know how to use them while learning.

It seems that after participating the training, Şerif revisited his practices and designed activities, instead of sentence based, mechanical and transformational exercises, to focus on the meaning of the clefts. To do this, he presented a dialogue as follows:

Activity for It or wh-clefts
  1) *A: I watched a wonderful reality show last night.*
     B: Really. Was it on e2?
     A: Well... I guess so. It was Jimmy Parker Show.
     B: No,….….who was on e2 last night. (Conan
     O'Brien)
  2) *A: Wow. Look at you in this picture! Is that you playing in front of this beautiful house?*
     B: Yes. It is. ……
  3) *A: Would you like to have some sugar for your tea?*
     B: No. Thanks. ……... (some milk/what)
     A: What? What is silk for?
     B: Ohh. Come on! Not silk. What I want is not silk, it is milk.

4) *A: What are you reading?*
   B: …… is 'Zorba The Greek' and 'West Side Story'.
   (read/what)
5) *A: Darling, why don't you feed our baby with your own milk?*
   B: Calcium and protein are……….and doctor recommended giving more.
   (our baby/need/what)
6) *A: I see that Jane picked herself a coat, a scarf and a pair of gloves.*
   B: No, …….., too.(What/Jane)

To be able to teach the meanings of clefts, Şerif also gave another activity that shows functions of clefts. In the activity the students were asked to complete the blanks.

Activity for functions of clefts
Are clefts in these conversations used as <u>contrasting</u> or <u>intensifying</u>?
<u>Conversation I</u>
A: Teacher, the exam was very hard.
B: Who got the highest grade?
A: It's only Nigel.
C: No, It's also Mary and even Lara.
A: Ohhh. We have some ha?
B: Yes, but it is only Nigel who got the highest. (<u>intensifying</u>)

<u>Conversation II</u>
A: Oh my dear. It's really nice to see you again. Where have you been?
B: I was in London for three years to improve my pronunciation.
A: Well.. I thought you were in Birmingham, weren't you?
A: No, It was London that I was in. (<u>contrasting</u>)

Belief 5: Working out grammar rules for themselves

Belief 5 is about whether teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves. This was something Şerif was not aware of. From the training, he discovered different ways of instructing grammar in the classroom. Therefore, it is clear that he experienced a remarkable shift in beliefs about grammar teaching and in teaching grammar.

I learnt how I can do this during the training and I believe that students should find out the rule. If teachers give the rule, this will stop students thinking about what they learn.

Şerif provided contextual and functional materials for the students to learn the rules of clefts. All activities were contextualized and implicitly gave the students rules. Şerif did not highlight the rules explicitly in any of the stages in the lesson.

Belief 6: Drilling new grammar structures

Belief 6 is about whether teachers should always drill new grammar structures. Şerif explained a considerable change in his beliefs about the use of and functions of drills in grammar teaching. In the pre-training lesson I observed, he employed a number of exercises that drilled the forms of clefts. However, in the post-training lesson in my presence, he used limited number of drills, which were relatively more contextualized.

After the training I realized that drills can only teach the forms rather than the functions of the clefts. I now think that students never knew why they used certain forms. When I introduced the topic in texts they learnt both the rules and could see how these forms are used.

Şerif seems to realize what skills drills can improve in students. Accordingly, he adapted new ways of grammar teaching other than drills. He brought new activities that are more contextualized and are based on teaching functions of the forms rather than only the structure.

Belief 7: Giving sentence-based exercises

Regarding whether the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentences-based exercises, Şerif made the following statement after the training, which clearly shows the change in his mind.

> After the training I realized that this is not sufficient and started to believe that a complex sentence should be taught in a text because I think students better concentrate on the grammar rules they feel they need to learn themselves.

Şerif had a different view of sentences as the medium of grammar instruction. He started to see text and context as a crucial part of the grammar teaching. In the post-training lessons he provided the students with discourses larger than sentences.

Belief 8: Avoiding grammar explanation

Belief 8 is on whether grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher. Şerif revisited the role of the teacher in providing grammar explanation and realized that the students can put an effort into understanding the structures themselves with a minimum of teacher interference.

> After the training I changed this view with the one that grammar rules should not be given directly by the teacher and that students should try to understand them.

During the post-training lesson I observed, Şerif did not do any explicit grammar teaching. Rather he expected the students to learn the rules and structure from the activities they were involved.

Belief 9: Teaching and practicing through the sentence

Belief 9 is about whether the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence. In the pre-training observation Şerif employed sentence-based exercise and activities. However, in the post-training lesson, I observed that he used the materials such as dialogues and texts. He provided the students with

dialogues and short texts to create practice opportunities. The belief he reported below also supports this observation.

> After the training, I tried to teach using texts because I started to believe that the rules inferred from the test could be more effectively learnt and retained because it is their own knowledge.

Şerif raised a great deal of awareness in the functional and contextual use of larger discourses than sentence after the training. He explained how he changed his beliefs about teaching grammar through sentence level language. In line with the change in beliefs, he used a number of grammar teaching activities involving dialogues and texts as exemplified in beliefs 1, 2 and 4.

Belief 10: Value of mechanical drilling

Belief 10 is on the idea that mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching. After training, he reported that he gave up using drills as grammar teaching exercises so much. After the training he changed his beliefs about using mechanical drills. He gained greater insight into the value of different types of exercises other than drill-based ones. This is also clear in his response.

> After the training, I started to prepare texts through which students could exercise the rules they learn. It is better if they see the structure in texts rather than sentences. However, if the subject is hard, then we can do some drilling to improve their learning.

During the post-training lesson I observed, there are no mechanical drills that asked the students to produce a form without the meanings highlighted.

6.2.5. Summary of the four cases regarding Research Question 1

A detailed comparison of the beliefs and practices before and after the training demonstrates that the training resulted in instructional and cognitive change in teachers with the impact of the training. The changes occurred in the 10 beliefs, manifested in their classroom practices, materials as well as by the responses in the interview.

Summary of the pre-training beliefs and practices

The trainee's lessons highlight limited number of characteristics of her approach to teaching it-clefts. First, they did a lot of metalinguistic and cross linguistic talk and analysis of it-clefts by providing contrastive examples from Turkish and English, followed by definition of it-clefts. Second, they presented the rule for forming it-cleft constructions, which is followed by sentence-based transformative mechanical drills. Third, they tried to train the students for the abstract rules of it-clefts with some decontextualized activities. Fourth, they attempted to provide situations for students to produce appropriate it-clefts sentences. Fifth, they provided song activities where students would listen and fill in the gaps that require syntactic elements of it-clefts such as *it was* and *that*, to improve students' structural knowledge about it-clefts. They then returned to partial rewriting or it-cleft sentence completion based on a given declarative sentence again. Finally, they gave a quiz in which students were supposed to rewrite a declarative unmarked sentence into a marked version using it-clefts sentence where they are not given any contextual clues in a discourse. Exercises do not go beyond sentence level. However, in some others, the students are introduced with the contrastive function of it-clefts in an exercise in tandem with a short reading passage.

Key characteristics of grammar instruction

The findings from the belief interview and classroom observation yielded the following key characteristics of the trainees' grammar teaching:

- Rule-first presentation:

- Deductive approach in teaching rule

- Mechanical drills at sentence level

- Sentence-based instruction of rules

- Limited contextualization of it-clefts structure in situations through discourse completion task model

- Metalinguistically explicit grammar analysis

- Teacher control over the delivery of grammar content

- No student generated knowledge about it-clefts as in inductive teaching

6.3. The Impact of the Training on Trainees

The second research question was to reveal the various dimensions of the impact of the training on the trainees based on their self-report. The in-service teacher training was based on linguistic content that aimed to improve the trainee's subject matter or knowledge about language in order to make them more linguistically aware and competent and lead to knowledge transfer and changes in grammar teaching pedagogy.

From the analysis of the interview data, 5 major themes emerged which could be seen as part of professional development: affective factors; cognitive processes; personal theorization; alteration in teaching approach, and integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge. These themes are closely related to one another because teachers are affected by some factors related to professional learning. They also need to go through a series of cognitive processes while at the same time making personal theorization about how to integrate this new knowledge with the existing knowledge. At the end, a trainee should be able to practice it in the classroom.

A potent model for impact of an in-service training emerged from the data analysis. This model represents a circular interaction of knowledge transfer stages rather than a linear interaction. The observations and the trainees' statements show that knowledge transfer is subject to a series of pre-processes that interact in a complex way as in Figure. 3.

Figure 3. The cycle of the trainees' training experience
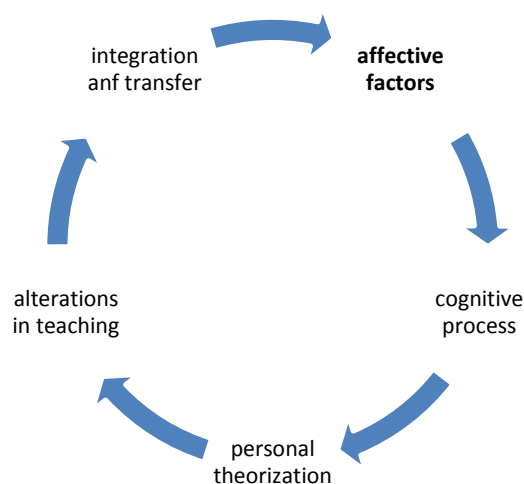
The cycle shows that the trainees experienced interlinked cognitive processes that encourage them to reflect upon the content of the training for use in their own classroom while teaching grammar. These processes are discussed and interpreted in the following parts of this section.

Table 16
The themes that emerged from the interview data

	Major Themes	*Sub-themes*

Theme 1	Affective factors	1. Attitudes
		    a. Positive
		    b. Negative
		2. Motivation
		3. Expectation

Theme 2	Cognitive processes	1. Learning subject matter 2. Awareness raising 3. Developmental proactive thinking
Theme 3	Personal theorization	1. Contextualized grammar teaching 2. Contextualized materials 3. Student learning

Theme 4	Alteration in teaching approach	1. Grammar Teaching Methodology
		2. Materials
		    a. evaluation
		    b. selection
		    c. generation

Theme 5	Integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge	1. Using new knowledge in grammar lessons 2. Implementing new knowledge in other courses

6.3.1. Theme 1: Affective factors

The first recurring theme that emerged from the data was affective factors. Under this theme are three sub-themes; attitudes, motivation and expectations.

6.3.1.1. Sub-theme 1: Attitudes

6.3.1.1.1. Positive attitudes

In general, all the trainees expressed their positive attitudes about the content of the training as it provided a theoretical and practical base for classroom practices and inspired them to gain new insights into how they could transfer this to their actual teaching environment.

> "I saw it as an opportunity because I attended a training which otherwise I would have to pay for". (Şerif)

> "I felt proud when you invited me to attend your study". (Müge)

> "I liked it because the practical part was very useful. We had a chance to learn theory and combine it with practice". (Elif)

6.3.1.1.2. Negative attitudes

There were also negative attitudes stemming from external factors such as weekly teaching schedule and little time. These negative attitudes are critical because the trainees might have devoted more time and energy to the training, which could have changed the depth and breadth of the impact on them.

> "I have a busy schedule and I have too little time to complete the tasks in the training". (Merve)

> "It took a lot of time and also I have an intensive syllabus to cover each week". (Müge)

> "I was concerned about our intensive schedule I was supposed to maintain, but we finished everything. It was very useful". (Elif)

> "I had a tight schedule and the training took me a lot of time to prepare". (Şerif)

It seems that these extracts reveal potential institutional factors that pose constraints on the amount of the engagement in the training. There are always syllabus specifications posed by the administrations. This could be a general problem faced by the teachers who need to develop their teaching.

6.3.1.2. Sub-theme 2: Motivation

Another sub-theme was motivation. The trainees' statements reflected a positive approach to such trainings and help them feel motivated to participate in the training. Their comments reflect satisfaction, development and willingness to learn. The level of motivation that the trainees reported that they had was important for the success of the training. This dimension helped them overcome the negative attitudes that indicated in sub-theme 1.

> "Just in the beginning of the training I realized that I did not know about clefts, so I was happy to learn something new here". (Elif)
>
> "I feel very happy and motivated because I will be able to teach in a better and effective way". (Müge)
>
> "I find such trainings very useful because we are all learners more than we are teachers". (Şerif)
>
> "I want to participate in such trainings because I am a new teacher and can learn a lot and develop my teaching". (Merve)

6.3.1.3. Sub-theme 3: Expectation

The final affective factor was expectation. Merve increased her level of expectation once she has realized that the topic is comprehensive. Şerif, on the other hand, expected to improve her teaching with new knowledge he can promote. Müge and Elif expected to improve their knowledge of grammar. Such positive

expectations initially possessed by the trainees contributed to the positive impact on them.

> I wondered how we can be trained about cleft sentences because the topic seemed to me to be very limited. However, then I changed my mind when the training started. I saw that it is a comprehensive grammar subject and that I know very little of it. (Merve)

> "I see this training very academic and believe that similar ones will improve my teaching. I thought it will be useful for me. I also thought that I was going to learn a new grammar teaching methodology". (Şerif)

> "I thought I was going to improve my grammar especially grammar structures and I did learn a lot". (Müge)

> I expected to integrate linguistic knowledge I would gain into my grammar teaching and to learn different ways of teaching grammar (Elif)

6.3.2. Theme 2: Cognitive Processes

The second theme emerged as cognitive processes that the trainees experienced during the training. The statements of the trainees in the post-training interview were analyzed to identify the cognitive processes. This analysis revealed three sub-themes: learning, awareness-raising, and developmental pro-active thinking. These three themes are interrelated because once the participants learnt subject matter; they raised awareness in their own pedagogical knowledge, which then led them to do developmental pro-active thinking. I see these three processes in the cognition critical to the transfer and integration of new knowledge.

6.3.2.1. Sub-theme 1: Learning Subject Matter

The first sub-theme was learning subject matter. This sub-theme was explicitly reported by the trainees. For example, Şerif gained more insight into knowledge about grammatical structures.

> Such a scientific training helped me deepen my knowledge about grammatical structures and then lead me to searching ways of using them in the classroom. (Şerif)

Elif explained how she promoted extensive knowledge about how to create emphasis in a sentence through clefts.

> During the training, I developed my knowledge of emphasis by clefts in texts and developed ways of how to better explain this to students. I also developed ideas about how to teach clefts constructions. (Elif)

Merve also highlighted that she developed knowledge about cleft constructions and generalized this knowledge to understand how language works.

> The training formed a basis for understanding how to apply linguistic knowledge in my teaching and integrate it into grammar teaching activities. I feel that I acquired clefts construction rather than learnt them. I always used clefts when talking but I never thought of why I used this structure. Through this training I could gain insight into its logic. I depicted the language system. (Merve)

Similarly, Müge also said that she not only developed knowledge about clefts but also understood that grammatical structures have functions and meanings and that they are not only forms to be taught.

> I improved my grammar skills, especially knowledge about cleft structures about which I learnt a lot. I understood the logic of grammatical structures such as functions and meanings. I developed an understanding of using context. (Müge)

All the statements point to substantial development in teachers' subject matter, which was also connected to the practical ways of using this knowledge in

the actual classroom practices. Developing subject matter led the trainees automatically to thinking about how they can implement new knowledge.

6.3.2.2. Sub-theme 2: Raising awareness

The second sub-theme was raising-awareness. Having promoted subject matter knowledge, the trainees reported that they raised awareness in how they can use new knowledge. Elif's realization was that she needs to teach grammar following contextual approach rather than teaching them grammar at sentence level.

> I have realized that I should not teach piece by piece but rather as a whole in context and that I need to modify some parts and add more approaches in it. (Elif)

Merve, similarly, reflected on her pedagogical beliefs by raising her awareness in contextual approach and inductive grammar teaching methodology.

> "After the training, I realized that I should teach clefts in context to allow them to discover grammatical structures and understand better". (Merve)

Müge also raised awareness in a gap in grammar teaching pedagogy as she engaged in the training. Once she developed knowledge about subject matter such as functions and meanings of forms in context, she realized that she could also teach these aspects to her own students.

> I realized that I ignore teaching structures in context or asking students to use forms in a particular context or to create context for structures they learn. (Müge)

Şerif realized that he needed to shift his grammar teaching from rule teaching to teaching use and meaning as in functional, contextual approach to teaching grammar.

> I realized that I need to try other ways of grammar teaching because my teaching was based on improving grammar rules, not their skills to use grammar. (Şerif)

6.3.2.3. Sub-theme 3: Developmental pro-active thinking

The third sub-theme under cognitive process is developmental pro-active thinking, which is the stage where the trainees began to think about what they can do with the new knowledge they have developed and the awareness they have raised. The trainees considered how they would teach grammar by making some instructional decisions about grammar teaching. For example, Elif thought of placing more emphasis on contextual, functional and communicative teaching by reducing the amount of structural grammar exercises.

> "I think I should minimize structure-based activities by giving fewer fill-in-the blank exercises. I think of contextual teaching using dialogues, which will be useful. I will put more communicative activities that contain conversations and I can give more exercises that may focus on functions and meanings of forms in situations or context". (Elif)

Merve made a similar remark that she will employ contextual and functional approach to teaching grammar. This statement shows that she will have different instructional decisions as she experienced belief change as well.

> "I will definitely use context through dialogues and role plays. If they ask "why do we use it-clefts" I can help them see the answer in the context. I can teach all grammar topics by presenting the grammar rules in a context from now on" (Merve)

Müge also highlighted her emerging idea that she will more commonly integrate contextual notions in the grammar course compared to the courses she gave before the training.

> I will give appropriate contexts while teaching clefts because I think that this can help students use context and understand the target grammar. I can ask them which functions of clefts are used in specific context. I will use context in my teaching grammar more than ever in my classroom. I will try to include in my lessons activities that help them understand how the forms are used. (Müge)

Şerif also commented on the value of teaching contextual grammar by which students can learn grammatical structures more effectively.

> …. in the future I will use context-based materials and write materials myself using the source in the internet because I think we need to give them opportunities to see the forms in use. Sentences without context may not help them learn effectively. (Şerif)

6.3.3. Theme 3: Personal Theorization

The trainees started to theorize what they learnt, which was clear in their statements. They made assumptions about positive impacts of contextualized grammar teaching and use of contextualized materials on student learning.

6.3.3. 1. Sub-theme 1: Contextualized grammar teaching

The first sub-theme under personal theorization was contextualized grammar teaching. The four trainees theorized about such grammar teaching. For example, Merve indicated that her grammar teaching would be more effective if she taught grammar in context. She also thought that the lessons would be much more exciting when contextualized materials were used.

> Teaching contextualized grammar through dialogues and role plays may lead to more exciting grammar lessons. If I can teach all grammar topics by presenting the grammar rules in a context, I think I can teach a better grammar lesson. If they ask "why do we use it-clefts" I can help them see the answer in the context. (Merve)

Müge also commented on the usefulness of using context and leading students to discover grammar points.

> Teaching grammar in contexts and eliciting answers from students, this could be more useful than teaching rules to them alone. (Müge)

Similarly, Şerif made assumptions about the effectiveness of presenting grammar in context drawing attention to the functions and meanings of grammar structures.

> When students learn rules separated from where they are used, they cannot learn them properly. When clefts are used in a context as in a text I use in the lesson, I can highlight the structure and ask them to talk about the meaning and functions. Teaching grammar using context can create a more effective grammar lesson. (Şerif)

Lastly, Elif focuses on the idea of having students dealing with using grammar point in a context, which might lead to better student learning.

> Writing structural rules of grammar on the board may not be so useful, but if students use these structures in meaningful contexts, they learn better. (Elif)

The four trainees theorized the new knowledge in terms of contextualized grammar perspective and made assumption about how contextualized instruction could yield better grammar learning.

6.3.3.2. Sub-theme 2: Contextualized materials

The trainees also made assumptions about the effect of using contextualized materials on students' learning grammar. For example, Şerif thought such materials could make students think about the new structure and this thinking process could lead to better learning.

> We need to modify the materials that teach forms only and create exercises that make students think rather than do automatic exercises as in mechanical drills. This could be more effective. (Şerif)

Elif also commented on contextualized grammar teaching materials which might lead to better learning results.

> I think if I can use contextualized materials such as using dialogues in teaching grammar, this could be more useful than using materials based on independent sentences. (Elif)

Merve, on the other hand, mentioned the difficulty in finding contextualized grammar teaching materials and reported that she generates such materials herself as she believed they would be more motivating.

> It is hard to find contextualized grammar teaching materials, so I produce my own materials because such materials are more motivating to use in the classroom. (Merve)

The trainees theorized their knowledge about materials being contextualized and their impact on students. Among the impacts are usefulness, effectiveness, and motivation.

6.3.3.3. Sub-theme 3: Student learning

The last sub-theme was the personal theorization about student learning in terms of using contextualized grammar teaching approach. All the statements that the four trainees made below relate using contextualized materials will have an impact on students' learning process. For example, Müge highlighted the better learning of the grammatical forms when taught in context with the functions.

> I can increase students' use of grammar if I teach it in a variety of contexts. If I can create contexts where students exercise different function of clefts in these contexts, they will learn the structure better. (Müge)

Şerif placed emphasis on the fact that contextualized grammar teaching will lead to long term learning.

> When it is in context I am sure they will learn better. They can better learn both the form and use Now it is clear to me that using context could be very useful for the students to learn grammar. I think through contextualized grammar their learning will be long term. (Şerif)

Merve also focused on the potent positive impact of effective grammar learning in context on student learning.

> If I teach clefts in context, I think this will help them learn grammar more effectively. (Merve)

6.3.4. Theme 4: Alteration in teaching approach

The fourth theme that emerged from the interview data was alteration in teaching approach. Having gone through a series of cognitive processes, the trainees started to make changes and modifications in their grammar teaching.

6.3.4.1. Sub-theme 1: Grammar Teaching Methodology

The first sub-theme is grammar teaching methodology, which is where the trainees explained how they already started to change their grammar instruction. For example, Elif indicated that she already started to teach contextual grammar in her regular courses during the time of the training.

> "I started to think that we need to give the sentence structure in context because students should know the contextual information about the target structure. Therefore, I started to teach grammar much more in context and dialogues". (Elif)

Merve also began to implement what she learnt from the training in her grammar classes in unobserved lessons.

> Before the training I would explain grammar rules myself as a teacher, but I started to demonstrate them in a context so that students could discover rules themselves and decided on methodology in grammar teaching. (Merve)

Müge also mentioned that she translated what she learnt to the classroom by changing her instruction. She practices contextual grammar teaching in some classes.

> My ideas about how I can teach grammar have changed a lot. I now teach through inductive learning. I try to create appropriate contexts while using grammar. I also show them the functions of grammar points in specific context. I use different contexts in my grammar teaching more than ever. (Müge)

Şerif also started to alter his grammar teaching methodology which favors more contextual and functional activities.

> There are many changes in my grammar teaching. Now I use context in situations through role plays. I now ask students to talk about the meaning and functions of the forms they are learning. I started to lead students to discover rules rather than giving them myself. (Şerif)

It is clear from the statements that the trainees have undergone a pedagogical shift in teaching grammar almost in a similar way. The main change in common seems to be to teach more contextual grammar and less decontextualized grammar on the basis of the trainees' self-reports as well as the observational data from the actual classroom teaching.

6.3.4.2. Sub-theme 2: Materials

Another sub-theme in alteration in teaching approach is materials. All four candidates reflected change in their approach to teaching, but they all highlighted substantial changes in the way they handle materials. The changes in materials can also be categorized in three groups: materials evaluation, selection and generation.

a. Evaluation

The trainees mentioned that the way they evaluate the grammatical exercises and activities changed considerably. For example, Şerif relates the value of contextualized grammar to his emerging ability to evaluate the exercises in the book he uses.

> Before the training, I had not thought of using context in grammar teaching. Since I learnt how important the context is, I now realize that the exercises we are provided in the books are inadequate because they are sentence-based and focus on the structure rather than meaning and use. (Şerif)

Müge also highlighted that she developed an ability to evaluate effectiveness of materials and knows more about which grammar skills an exercise can promote.

> I can choose from among exercises considering how useful they can be. I now think of weak and strong points of exercises and use them accordingly. I am more aware of which skills a grammatical exercise improves. (Müge)

Merve also said that she learnt how to evaluate exercises based on the degree of contextualization. She also comments that the accuracy and appropriateness could be developed through different exercises.

> I now evaluate each grammar exercise on two categories, those improving knowledge of form for consolidating the structure, those teaching why grammar forms are used. For example if there is an exercise based on dialogue and interaction, I realize that they use context to teach students why they learn a particular structure. If there are sentences that are for rewriting, I view them as exercises to improve structure. (Merve)

b. Selection

The trainees also reported that they developed skills to select the right and effective materials for grammar lessons. For example, Merve stressed that she could select appropriate materials for her grammar lesson.

> There is a big difference between the materials I selected before and after the training. I used text and dialogues rather than sentences this time. I think that I created a difference in terms of material selection. I saw that I could select more appropriate materials. (Merve)

Similarly, Elif mentioned that she chooses more communicative materials from the grammar resources and brings them to the classroom.

> I select contextual materials with dialogues and texts, which could be useful. I find more exercises that focus on meanings of forms. (Elif)

Şerif revealed a shift in the selection of the materials from structure-based ones to those that highlight contextual aspects of grammar.

> I try to select less structure-based activities while increasing the use but more communicative activities. I now prefer activities that contain conversations. (Şerif)

Müge also explained that what she looks for in a material is that it is improving functional and contextual abilities in a student.

> I now avoid controlled activities and try to raise their awareness in function and meaning of structures. I try to choose exercises where students can produce structures in context. (Müge)

It is clear that there is a consistency in the way the trainees select materials. The common point in selecting materials is that they should promote contextual and functional principles of grammatical structures.

c. Generation

The trainees also mentioned that they started to generate materials that may contribute to effective grammar teaching. For example, Elif said that she integrates functions and meanings in the materials she generates.

> I try to write exercises that focus on functions and meanings of forms in situations or context. (Elif)

Merve exemplified how she developed skills to create grammar teaching materials and explained how she could generate materials more easily.

> …. However, after the training, I realized that I became more creative. For example, I watched "Romeo and Juliet" at the theatre, which inspired me to generate an activity for teaching clefts. ….. I started to create my own materials more comfortably and consciously. (Merve)

Şerif also highlighted the difference between pre-and post-training materials. Having learnt contextualization, he generated his own materials.

> Before the training I took the ready materials and went to the classroom. Now I spend some time to prepare some contextualized materials. (Şerif)

It is clear that the trainees started to transfer the emerging grammatical knowledge into materials evaluation, selection and generation. The four trainees experienced similar material development stages.

6.3.5. Theme 5: Integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge

The last theme that emerged from the study was integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge into classroom practices. The trainees taught clefts under my observation in a markedly different way compared to the first observed lesson before the training. Their statements clearly show that they implemented what they learnt in the post-training lesson.

6.3.5.1. Sub-theme 1: Using new knowledge in grammar lessons

First, the trainees successfully implemented new knowledge about cleft constructions by integrating it into their instructional decisions and material use. For example, Merve highlighted that she would change her grammar teaching methodology and integrate functions of clefts in context. During the post training observation I made, Merve practiced in the way she described here.

> The training will have great influence on my teaching. While teaching cleft sentences or others, I won't use independent sentences. Instead, I will create some contexts so that the students can get the functions of cleft sentences. I will prepare some dialogues and daily life situations and get the students to contextualize cleft sentences. (Merve)

Elif explained how she taught the intensification and contrast functions of clefts in the observed lessons, indicating a pedagogical change.

> I used to teach grammar based on rule and sentences more often, but now I think of teaching the functions such as intensification and contrast functions of clefts (Elif)

She also explained that she transferred functional grammar teaching into other grammar points such as "Can I..?"

> After the training while I was teaching modals, I asked the students to create dialogues about real situations for the actual time. I asked them to tell me the function of "Can I ..?" structure. (Elif)

Müge also described how she transferred new knowledge into her teaching cleft constructions, making clear that she was more effective as a teacher as the students were more active in the learning process.

> I frequently put the knowledge into use in the observed grammar lesson. ….. I taught grammar through, inductive learning methodology. … I prepared contextualized teaching materials for cleft constructions. In the post training observed lessons; I was more comfortable and allowed the students more opportunities to enjoy learning the functions and meanings of clefts in appropriate contexts. (Müge)

6.3.5.2. Sub-theme 2: Implementing new knowledge in other courses

The training not only influenced the trainees' cleft teaching approaches but also helped them think about how they can use this knowledge in other courses. They reported that they could use it in writing courses. For example, Elif indicated that she could use information principle in teaching cohesion and coherence in writing courses.

> When I learnt that in English the information structure goes with Old to New information, I analyzed a text when I went home and I saw that this was almost always true. I used this information in my reading lessons to teach them the flow of information in a text. I also tried teaching coherence and cohesion in writing courses a few times. I also used what I learnt in writing lessons. For example, I can teach how and where to use pronouns as old information. (Elif)

Elif reported that she also used contextualization in vocabulary teaching by presenting the meaning of a new word in a context.

> In vocabulary, I can show the context for vocabulary rather than giving the meaning only. (Elif)

Merve, similarly, integrated information principle into writing courses by explaining to the students that there is a flow of information in a text with reference to the order of old and new information structuring.

> In this quarter, I teach writing and most of the students' writings lack logic and organization. While forming a paragraph, they write lots of incoherent sentences successively. Therefore, I mentioned the old/new information order to them, they got better in writing. I urged them to start their sentences with old information and to finish them with new information which turned into old information in the next sentence. (Merve)

Müge, however, indicated that she would apply information principle in English in writing courses. She also highlighted that she could integrate postposition rule in English that long constituents in the subject and object positions are to be postposed to the end of the sentence.

> I will use old and new information principle when teaching writing. I will also teach them to use long pieces of information at the end of a sentence for being reader friendly. I think that I will teach with more awareness and more knowledge. (Müge)

Şerif also implemented new knowledge in writing courses by showing students how cleft constructions can be used in compare- contrast essays.

> I try to include similar activities into other courses. After the training, I immediately tried to use what I learnt in the training. For example, in my writing lesson, I encouraged students to use cleft constructions in their compare-contrast essay. (Şerif)

6.4. Impact of the Training on Trainees in Six Months

Research question 3 investigates to what extent the trainees retained knowledge and sustained their changed grammar teaching practices in the post-training observation six months after the training and classroom practices ended. The long-term impact was evaluated on the basis of the observation notes and the interview responses. In order to demonstrate the impact clearly in six months, I will first analyze and interpret the characteristics of the third observation of each trainee. Then I will highlight the four themes that emerged from the data.

6.4.1. Analysis of the third observation

6.4.1.1. Case 1 Müge

Table 17
Instructional stages of Müge's third observed lesson- th-clefts

Warm-up activity	Activity
Pair work- reading dialogues with cleft sentences	Awareness raising activity
How emphasis in a sentence is made	Metalinguistic explanation
Comparing and contrasting unmarked and marked sentence	Metalinguistic activity
Comparison of paragraphs with and without clefts sentences	Contextualized activity
Rule induction from the story	Contextualized activity
Pictures for student output	Contextualized exercise
Dialogue completion with clefts	Contextualized activity
Dialogue writing using clefts	Contextualized task

The third lesson Müge gave six months after the training and post tests and observations were made can be characterized by several characteristics such as extensive use of various, sentence-beyond types of context and texts to allow students to induce rules of clefts, metalinguistic analysis to learn the functions of the

forms and opportunities for students to use these forms in their original output. The first part of the lesson was to cover the previously instructed it- and wh-clefts. In instructing these two structures, she did not highlight structural features of clefts explicitly but exposed students to relevant dialogues and short paragraphs so that they can induce the form of wh- and it-clefts. She demonstrated three dialogues on the screen and asked the students to read them to show in which sentences the emphasis is expressed. By doing so, she wanted to draw the attention to the cleft forms and help them understand their emphatic functions. Following this, she wrote wh- and it cleft sentences below on the board and asked them to show where the emphasized information.

It was Kate *Winstlet* who won the Oscar
What Kate *Winstlet* won was the Oscar.

She discussed the focused information in these sentences with students and summarized the functions of clefts as to contrast and intensify. This initial instruction was to prepare students for learning th-clefts, which was instructed as described in stages below.

In the second stage of the lesson, Müge formed groups of four and handed out two versions of a story that each included the same declarative meaning but with different sentence structures. This was done to make students to familiarize themselves with the target structure which is the focus of the lesson. The first version was full of th-cleft sentences, while the second was the unmarked versions of the same sentences. She asked the students to think about meaning difference, the functions of th-clefts and compare the two in terms of quality. The students discussed

these questions in detail. She focused on the intensification and emphasis as the two functions of th-clefts. This practice is consistent with the changed beliefs that the students should induce the rules rather than given by the teacher and that larger discourse other than sentences only should be employed in the instruction of grammar rules. It seems that she designed activities in line with function- and text-based approach.

In the third stage, Müge made a brief introduction to all-clefts, which is the other target form in the lesson. She started using 5 pictures for which students should tell what is happening by writing sentences with all-clefts.

Picture 1: A child is looking at the broken vase with a

shocked look while his mother is entering the room.

The child is expected to utter a sentence that means he did not do anything else than touching it. One student said "All I did was to touch it". Another said "I just touched it". Having received such answers, the teacher wrote the two sentences on the board and asked them to analyze the meaning of the sentences. Some students replied that the sentence with all-cleft is of stronger meaning and could express the meaning in an effective way. The last material she used was a dialogue completion with th- and all-clefts structures. The dialogues included contexts for different functions of these forms: contrast and intensification. She then asked the students to create dialogues in their groups where they use the newly learnt clefts that they have been practicing since the beginning of the lesson.

Summary

It seems that learner production is maximized through different tasks and activities using sentence-beyond discourse materials, while Müge also abandoned the form and rule based approach. The main approaches practiced in the third lesson were pragmatically-conditioned word order activities in dialogues and discourse-oriented materials, which was not the case for the first observed lesson before the training. However, in the second observed lesson, which was immediately after the training, she designed language awareness activities, metalinguistic talks and functional activities to address formal and functional characteristics of clefts constructions. The second and third in-class practices shared some similarities on the grounds that they both prioritized functions and meanings rather than forms.

6.4.1.2. Case 2 Merve

Table 18
Instructional stages of Merve's third observed lesson about all- and th- clefts

Warm-up activity	Self-narration
Pair work: Practice of functions of all- and th-clefts in dialogues	Contextualized Activity
Comparing marked and unmarked sentence structures	Metalinguistic activity
Dialogue completion with all- and th-clefts based on reading passage	Contextualized activity
Dialogue completion with all- and th-clefts	Contextualized Activity
Card game: correcting wrong information	Contextualized activity

The third lesson Merve taught six months after the training can be characterized by several features. First she did not use any mechanical and transformational activities to improve the forms of clefts. Instead, she resorted to materials that highlighted the acquisition of functions and meanings of clefts in appropriate contexts. The shift ranging from the first observation to the third occurred more towards the functional principles of language use, whereas the

commonly used form-rule based approach that addressed formal characteristics of language was used less and less. The third observation addressed the shift in practices even six months after the training. A week ago before the third observation, she was asked to teach th-clefts and all-clefts in order to be able to be able to reveal the long-term impact of the training on their development and change. These structures were chosen as they are also marked constructions like wh-and it-clefts, which they had previously taught.

She started the lesson by recycling what was done before and explained the connection between previously learnt cleft constructions. The first activity was a contextualized one that implicitly taught the functions of all- and th-clefts. She started an activity where students corrected the wrong information in the utterance.

> *A: Did Edison invent the telephone?*
> *B: No, the thing he invented was the light bulb.*

Such dialogues were made by the students several times. Merve planned to help students understand the rule for forming th- cleft and its underlying functions. Following this activity she asked the students the difference between marked and unmarked responses to the question asked by person A.

> *A: Did Edison invent the telephone?*
> *B: No, the thing he invented was the light bulb.*
> *B: No, he invented the light bulb.*

The students had no difficulty in understanding function and meaning. They replied that the response (*No, the thing he invented was the light bulb*) shows emphasis, whereas the other response (*No, he invented the light bulb*) is a normal one that does not create the same linguistic effect.

Following this, Merve gave a worksheet to help students recognize and identify the new grammar form (all-clefts) as well as talk about why such constructions are used in the dialogue. This activity like the previous one raised students' awareness in the use of the target forms and helped them construct their meanings in the context.

Another activity was based on a two-paragraph text and follow-up dialogue where two people are talking about the content of the paragraphs but one side is saying wrong dates, names and places whereas the other is correcting it.

The final activity was short dialogues that had gaps to be filled by the clue words in the parenthesis. The information given in the parenthesis contrasted with what was said by the other person.

A: Mom told me that you went out with Marco yesterday. Did you have fun?
B: Uhmm.. I can't say I did. _____ to sit and talk about daily life. (All clefts)

Summary

Merve planned to make students aware of the context in which all clefts can be used. In general, she taught th- and all-clefts in a more language-in-use or pragmatic point of view. Excluding formal language teaching through transformative and mechanical exercises at sentence level could be an initial sign of lasting pedagogical change in grammar instruction.

Merve's beliefs changed after the training from form and rule based, sentence-mediated grammar instruction to the one that is based on the combination of formal, functional, and discourse approaches to grammar teaching. She created more active groups of students who engaged in the tasks and activities as well as contextualized grammar presented through implicit and inductive way.

6.4.1.3. Case 3 Elif

Table 19
Instructional stages of Elif's third observed lesson- th-clefts

Warm-up activity	Self-narration
Reading a text and follow-up T/F questions with clefts	Awareness raising activity
Role play: Using clefts	Metalinguistic explanation
Functions of clefts	Metalinguistic activity
Comparing and contrasting unmarked and marked sentences	Metalinguistic activity
Transformative exercise: practice for th-cleft sentence formation	Contextualized activity
Pair work: using clefts	Contextualized activity
Pictures for student output	Contextualized exercise
Dialogue completion with clefts	Contextualized activity
Dialogue writing using clefts	Contextualized task

The third lesson Elif taught six months after the training reflects a number of instructional changes such as discourse-based, context-dependent texts that facilitates induction of rules of clefts, metalinguistic analysis to learn the functions of the forms and opportunities for students to use these forms in their original output.

Elif started the lesson with a reading passage that is followed by a T/F activity, which included th-cleft sentences which the students are supposed to tick

true or false. With this activity, Elif introduced the sample th-cleft sentences without

making any grammar explanation.

> *Read the statements and decide if they are true or false.*
> 1. *The time when they were fishing was the morning.*   *T / F*
> 2. *The person who first saw the man in the sea was Armando.*   *T / F*
> 3. *The reason why Armando screamed was that he saw a shark.* *T / F*
> 4. *The thing the man was doing in the sea was swimming.*   *T / F*
> 5. *The person who went to ask help was Paul.*   *T / F*
> 6. *The thing that went up and down with the waves was a paper bag. T / F*

Another follow-up post-reading activity was a dialogue about the content of

the reading passage. The grandma talks about the reading passage, but constantly

gives wrong information. The student corrects the information using th-clefts.

> *You have a very old grandmother who also listened to Paul, your uncle. But she couldn't hear very well, so she misunderstood many things. Can you correct her?*
>
> *Grandma:*
>   - *Hey, grandchild! What were Paul and his friend doing there, swimming?*
> *You:*
>   - *No, grandma. All they were doing was ------ (1)*
> *Grandma:*
>   - *What!? On the beach, huh?*
> *You:*
>   - *No, the place they went fishing was ------ .(2)*
> *Grandma:*
>   - *So they thought they saw a whale!*
> *You:*
>   - *No, all they thought they saw was a ------- (3).*
>   *But in fact, it was a ------ (4) that they saw.*
> *Grandma:*
>   - *Oh, stupid boys!*

Following this, she handed out a short reading text and asked the students to

complete the follow-up dialogue in which one person makes a statement about the

content of the paragraph and the other correct if necessary.

Read the paragraph below and complete the dialogue using cleft (emphatic) structures.
Bob invited us to his sister's birthday party. We went to the club to celebrate her birthday at 9 o'clock. It was very crowded and noisy. But the music was excellent. After the presents and the birthday cake, we just danced for hours. When we went home, it was 2 pm.

> A: Tom invited you to the party, right?
> B: ....
> A: Ah, OK. Did you go to celebrate his birthday?
> B: ....
> A: Alright. I heard that the birthday cake was excellent.
> B: ....
> A: Did you sing a song together?
> B: ....
> A: Really? And you came back at 12 o'clock.
> B: ....

In this activity, the students were expected to produce cleft sentences in a particular context. They were implicitly forced to use the structure and practice the contrastive function of clefts. This activity was followed by a transformation exercise which is not contextualized like those above. It aimed to improve the structural knowledge about how cleft sentences are formed. Only four of this exercise is as follows:

> *Transform the following sentences into cleft sentences, focusing on the underlined part.*
> 1.I met them on a cold rainy December day.
> …………………………………………………..
> 2. Samantha wrote the story you are reading now.
> …………………………………………………..
> 3.I love this album the most.
> …………………………………………………..
> 4. I booked the table at the finest restaurant in town.
> …………………………………………………..

The underlined constituents were carried to a focus position using clefts sentences. It should be noted that Elif did not give up such mechanical exercises

completely despite her questioned beliefs about the use of decontextualized transformational grammar. She said that she wanted to make sure that the students learnt the structure of clefts.

The final activity she employed was two contextualized pair-work visual activities. In the first one, the students completed with clefts the dialogues that are supplemented with pictures.

Your partner:
   - *Do you have some yogurt?*
You:
   - *I am sorry, but all I have ------------.*

In the second, the student remembers the answer for the same situation and completes a discourse completion task.

Now it's time for you to ask questions to your partner. First ask the questions and wait for and listen to his/her answers.
1) You go to your neighbor to ask some yogurt.
   You: do you have some yogurt?
   Your partner's answer: --------------------.

Summary

Elif taught all- and th- clefts by highlighting more functional and contextual grammar teaching approach. She used a variety of discourses ranging from sentences to dialogues and texts in order to exemplify different linguistic contexts for the functions and meanings of clefts. The students were given ample opportunities to induce the structure of clefts and use them in different contexts, spoken and written. When compared to the first observed lesson, she integrated a more contextual and functional understanding to her instruction. She followed a perspective that prioritized presenting grammar in a triangulation of form, function and meaning.

6.4.1.4. Case 4 Şerif

Şerif was asked to teach th- and all-clefts for the identification of the long-term impact of the training on her classroom practices. Table 20 is an outline of the structure of this lesson.

Table 20
Instructional stages of Şerif's third observed lesson- th-clefts

Warm-up activity	Self-narration
Texts for teaching functions of clefts	Contextualized activity
Comparison of clefts: showing meaning differences	Metalinguistic explanation
Dialogue completion with th- and all-clefts	Contextualized activity
Using clefts in dialogues: student out	Contextualized activity
Story completion with all-clefts	Contextualized activity

The third lesson Şerif gave seven months after the training and post tests and observations were made. He started the lesson with reference to the previously learnt it- and wh-clefts to provide a base from which students could start. The first

activity he carried out was a text in which clefts are appropriately used. He analyzed the text with students and asked them to explain the meaning of the new cleft forms. By this activity he raised students' awareness in the functions of cleft constructions in a specific context.

After the text, he showed a dialogue to demonstrate functions of clefts in a different context. He made salient the cleft constructions to help the students notice the target forms.

> Nigel:
> - There is something that happened here that you might not know about.
> Joseph:
> - Fred quit his position.
> Nigel:
> - Oh, that's right—did Karen tell you about it?
> Joseph:
> - No, *the person who told me* was *Roger* —I talked to him last Sunday.
> Nigel:
> - *Actually, Fred is the person who* works harder than anybody else in this organization. I can't understand why he was sacked.
> Joseph:
> - But life is merciless.

When working on the dialogue, he explained that in the first highlighted sentence, "Roger" was post positioned and a focus final was created. He also indicated that "Roger" is new information. On the other hand, in the second "Fred" was fronted as a piece of old information that was previously mentioned in the text. It seems that Şerif practiced what he learnt during the training. He was able to talk about information structure in the dialogue by referring to the systemic functional linguistic terminology.

Following this activity, he provided an incomplete paragraph including th-cleft in order to draw the students' attention to the use and usage of th-clefts.

> *Pardon me, sir,' he said. 'If you can spare a few moments, I'd like a word with you.' Ryan turned quickly and then smiled, holding out his hand. 'Captain Morgan, isn't it? Of course, if there's any way at all I can help, I'll do it. The thing that's happened was terrible.*

After this text-based activity, Şerif provided a question-answer format dialogue where the students are expected to produce a sentence using the given word in parenthesis.

A: Would you like to have some sugar in your tea?
B: No. Thanks. ------- *(some milk/All/want)*
A: What? What is silk for?
B: Ohh. Come on! Not silk. _____ is not silk, it is milk. (*want / I / all*)
A: Darling, why don't you feed our baby with your own milk?
B: The doctor advised "calcium and protein are -------. *(your baby/need/all)*

By this activity, Şerif planned to enable the students to produce clefts in a relevant context to improve their knowledge of functions of clefts.

The last activity was a story completion with all- or th-cleft. He wanted the students to read the text carefully and write a sentence as they want to end the story.

> *Please finalize the story using All or Th-Clefts*
> *Fifty years ago in one of the far countries something unbelievable happened. There were two smart close friends; Jamie and Dave. Jamie had a perfect job and a beautiful girlfriend. He was fine with his life, but what he had was what Dave lacked. All what Dave wanted was have a life like Jamie's. One day Jamie had an accident and he was taken to a hospital. Dave paid him a visit. He saw his girlfriend and fell in love with her. ……….*

The students wrote different sentences and created an end for the story. Such an exercise helped students use cleft structure in a text and create linguistic connection with the previous context.

Summary

Şerif made a difference in the second and third observation by using more functional and meaningful activities and presenting tasks to the students. He changed his instructional decisions about grammar teaching through the employment of more textual materials rather than kernel sentences that have no context. He mainly highlighted functions of forms in communication. He also displayed a better knowledge of cleft constructions and guided the students to understand the structure in a more contextualized perspective.

6.5. Analysis of Interview in Six Months

The following four major themes emerged from the interview responses six months after the training. These are changes in beliefs, changes in the material selected and used, development of and change in teaching, implementation of new knowledge in the observed and unobserved lesson.

6.5.1. Theme 1: Belief changes

The first theme that emerged from the interview data was changes in teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching. The responses that the trainees made regarding the lasting impact of the training reflected a profound impact of the

training on their beliefs. For example, Elif indicated a lasting shift in her beliefs about the positive role of teaching functions and meanings in grammar lessons.

> The training changed my ideas and helped me see the importance of teaching functions and meanings of structures in my lessons. When the learners understand why the structure they learn is used, they can integrate it in productive skills and use it much more easily. (Elif)

Merve also reported positive impacts of the training on her grammar teaching that can be characterized by a change from rule teaching to functional and contextual teaching.

> I realized the importance of pragmatics. This training made me aware of the fact that grammar teaching is not all about structure and words. Rather, grammar teaching should focus more on functions and meanings in contexts. I have gained an awareness of the importance of teaching grammar in context. If I had the chance, I would exploit inductive teaching method and context-based exercises in my classes. Language is not composed of mere words and grammar rules. It has to be learned, digested and internalized with the help of meaningful, daily-life situations and examples. (Merve)

Müge made the point that her ideas about teaching grammar inductively changed once she practiced it. She started to believe in inductive teaching much more and she made a cognitive change.

> We always knew the importance of inductive teaching but when we experienced it, it became more persuasive. I started to question the traditional way of grammar teaching and inferred that grammar wasn't something about formulas. Also, there was no point in giving the rules without giving the function, meaning and reason. Moreover, it was very important to involve the students in the learning process because it helped them gain confidence in themselves, which made them more active during the lessons. It helped us become more aware of the importance of knowing the function as well as the structure. While teaching, it was more effective because the students saw the reason why we used such a structure rather than just memorizing the rule and that made the learning process easier. (Müge)

Şerif made a long comment on how he changed his beliefs about grammar teaching. He experienced a belief change from teaching grammar structures without context to teaching them with meaning and use.

> Personally, this training contributed to my learning and classroom instruction in several ways. First, I realized that I lack knowledge about some grammar subjects. For examples, as I said before several times, I did not know types of different clefts th-clefts, all-clefts as well as it- and wh- clefts. I learnt how meaning of these sentences changes when their word order is changed sometimes focus, contrast, emphasis. If I were to teach clefts again in the future, I would have more self-confidence while preparing and instructing. I could touch on many aspects of the structures from different points of view. Its form, meaning and use rather than only teaching them sentence structure without drawing their attention to the meaning and use. Therefore, my learning from this training has been very useful for both me and students at the same time. (Şerif)

From the interpretations above, it is clear that the teachers can still comment on the changed beliefs about grammar teaching and on the new ways in which they will teach grammar. The responses could be seen as evidence of the on-going impact on their beliefs.

6.5.2. Theme 2: Change in the materials selected and used

The second theme that emerged from the study was the evidence of on-going change in the grammar teaching materials selected and used. For example, Şerif highlighted that he started to use texts and dialogues to be able to teach functions and meanings unlike the sentence- based grammar teaching materials he used in the first observation.

> Previously I focused on sentences as part of old education technique/traditional grammar teaching. During the training you gave, I realized how important text/discourses are in teaching grammar, how a sentence is used in a text. Therefore, now rather than give a decontextualized single sentence, I started to teach grammar in a text so that students can monitor the previous context that makes a

> sentence meaningful. If you are teaching focus and emphasis, then you need to present the structure in a text to contextualize it. To teach such structures using sentences will not lead to students better understand and their long-term learning. However, in dialogues if you read clefts they will also see the function of these forms. I think their seeing the sentences in a text will make it more useful. That is why I chose such materials now. (Şerif)

Merve similarly indicated that she experienced a shift in grammar teaching materials from structure-based controlled practice to the use of contextual and functional grammar teaching materials.

> The materials I used in the last teaching practice are quite different form the ones I used in the first lesson because the training has taught me the importance of context-based grammar teaching. My first materials were composed of structure based controlled practice activities; however, now I tend to prepare more creative and context-based materials. While my first materials could only help the students reinforce the new structure they learned, my last materials can make the students understand the function of it. That's to say, my context-based materials help them understand where and when they should use the language item. (Merve)

Elif also indicated that she used structure-based exercises in the first observation, while in the post-training observations she used contextualized materials rather than using only sentences to teach grammar rules.

> The materials I used in my first teaching practice were very different because I learned the importance of using context during the training. In the first one I used separate sentences and my aim was only to teach the structures. I did not consider where and when these structures are used. In the other teaching practices I gave importance to these points rather than only structure. (Elif)

Müge highlighted that she used controlled exercise and explained grammar rules without contextual information, while after the training with the increased awareness in contextual grammar she chose materials based on dialogues, situations, and texts.

> In the first lesson, I mostly used controlled activities. I showed and explained the rules to them. Moreover, I wasn't aware of the power of using contexts during lessons. Another reason was that I didn't believe that the students were capable of discovering the rule themselves. I also thought it consumed more time. However, during the observations and sessions I realized that it was much better to involve students in the learning process. Before the sessions, I didn't allow the students to discover the rule, but I experienced that a teacher should help the students find the answer / rule on their own. For this reason, I was more aware when choosing the materials after the sessions. I tried to give more situations, and dialogues to make the students clear with the functions of the structures. Moreover I tried to give more importance on eliciting the rule rather than explaining it in the first few minutes. (Müge)

In the six months after the training, it is still clear from their statements that the trainees have the same ideas about contextual and functional grammar teaching as they constructed during and after the training.

6.5.3. Theme 3: Development of and change in teaching in six months after the training

The interview data also revealed a third theme reflects development and change in teaching. The trainees commented on the changed grammar teaching practices during the six months after the training. For example, Müge explained how she changed her grammar teaching from deductive to inductive teaching and from rule teaching to functional and contextual teaching.

> With the help of the training, I was more confident about what to do in the lessons. I knew what to teach and how to teach and also the reason behind them. I started to teach more inductively because in this way it was more effective. I used to teach deductively because I used to think the students would understand better in this way. I never allowed them to discover rules on their own. The training shed light on my way of grammar teaching and showed me the effect of using contexts in inductive teaching. That was the reason why I gave dialogues and situations to elicit the rules from students. I tried to create an environment in which the students could see and infer the functions of cleft sentences. I tried to make them clear about the reason why we

need such a structure instead of saying "OK, this is a cleft sentence and this is the formula and that's it"… (Müge)

Elif implied that she changed her beliefs about grammar teaching towards using contextualized materials but that she might return to traditional grammar teaching approach if she does not have time and relevant contextualized materials.

I tried to find or prepare more creative and discovery activities in grammar lessons, and I started to write situations, dialogues, in short I tried to contextualize what I taught. I teach with such activities as long as I have time and appropriate materials. After the training I started to be more careful with giving more meaningful activities to my students. Those activities can be situations, dialogues, paragraphs just to help students understand the function of a grammar structure, and use it for communicative purposes. (Elif)

Merve also explained clearly that she began to implement inductive grammar teaching by giving opportunities to the students to discover the rules and meanings and functions of grammar structures.

As a two-year teacher, I used to tend to teach grammar in a traditional method which aims to reinforce the grammatical structure. However, now I've understood the importance of teaching grammar in such a way that the students not only learn the mere structure and mechanics of a grammatical item but also pick up its real use and function in daily language. I tried to apply inductive method and discovery learning in my advanced classrooms. (Merve)

Müge, like Merve, explained how she applied inductive grammar teaching and how developed competence in effective implementation.

I've learnt to believe in my students' capability to discover the rule themselves. Also, I now know how to teach grammar in an effective way and the rationale behind inductive teaching. (Müge)

Şerif characterized his pre-training lesson as the one based on teaching rules only, but he explained in a very clear way how he began to use inductive grammar teaching six months after the training.

> I started to make students' involvement in grammar lesson through contextual and inductive activities. I gave up, presenting rules on the blackboard before they deal with rules themselves in context actively. I also try to induce rules with students myself. Such an instruction also helps me learn a lot in collaboration with students. Therefore, students feel more attached to the lesson when they see they can autonomously learn. (Şerif)

Şerif also likened his pre- training lesson to a math course where he focused on transformative mechanical exercise based on rewriting a sentence without highlighting the meanings. This metaphorical description demonstrates the cognitive change in six months.

> I taught it-clefts in the first observation like a math course where they do some permutations playing with the order of the words without talking of meanings. These changes that occurred in my views and practices were clearly the impact of the training sessions I was involved. I believe that thanks to the training content I see the developments in my potentials and skills in the third teaching practice compared to the first and second teaching practices. In the third one, I felt more knowledge and performed more successfully because I could choose more adequate texts which did not hinder the students learning, which was neither tiring nor unnecessarily challenging for students as in the second teaching practice. (Şerif)

6.5.4. Theme 4: Implementation of new knowledge in the unobserved lessons

The final theme from the delayed interview was implementation of new knowledge in the unobserved lessons. The responses highlighted that the implementation of new knowledge is possible but under certain circumstances. For example, Elif mentioned that she could not teach grammar in the new ways due to some contextual constraints such as lack of time, syllabus that she needed to cover

and difficulty of preparing contextualized materials for each lesson. Her responses imply that, though her beliefs changed, her teaching did not completely.

> To be honest, I cannot teach similarly in all lessons because of the time limits and the intense syllabus we have. Moreover, it is almost impossible for us to prepare new materials as we did for the clefts for each grammar topic. (Elif)

Müge also made a similar remark on the implementation of new knowledge in line with changed grammar teaching beliefs in unobserved grammar lessons. There are external factors that prevent her from implementing new grammar teaching approaches such as the intensive syllabus to cover and the lengthy time required to implement inductive and contextual grammar teaching.

> The training helped me a lot. Thanks to it, I know why I should choose inductive teaching and allow students to discover the rules. However, it doesn't work in every lesson or in every grammar topic. Because of the timing, we sometimes have hard times to catch up with the pace of the syllabus. Giving contexts needs more time, and we should give students some time to "digest" the topic. Unfortunately, we cannot teach them inductively all the time. However, I have an inner voice now which says "Müge, believe your students and let them discover the rules themselves. You know it is better and more effective" ☺ (Müge)

Merve also admitted that she could not teach grammar in the new way due to factors such time that contextualized grammar teaching takes and the lengthy syllabus she had to cover each week.

> Unfortunately I don't teach in the way I thing is right because teaching grammar in context with the functions takes lots of time and it is impossible to catch up with our syllabus if we use context-based materials in our lessons. (Merve)

Şerif, like the others, showed his willingness to implement the grammar teaching methodologies but cannot do so because of the contextual factors such time and the intensive syllabus he is supposed to cover.

> I believe that it is useful to follow text-based language teaching since your training. The students are used to traditional old learning, they find it challenging. When the students learnt to deal with the new approach, they learnt more successfully. To break the habits of the students who are prepared for exams was hard. Therefore, I return to old instructional acts in the classroom. Not to waste time. If I were the director, I would change the entire syllabus and adapt such contextual, functional and textual materials. (Şerif)

The trainees verbalized the positive impact of the training in six months. However, although the trainees report that they are convinced about the merits and benefits of several other grammar teaching instructional decisions, they cannot implement them due to the constraining contextual factors. It is important that the potential of the such a training in changing the grammar teaching conceptions and practices could be revealed, which could be permanent but for the situational inhibiting factors.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS

This chapter discusses the three questions that this research set out to answer in relation to the changed practices and beliefs immediately after and 6 months after the training as well as emerging themes. The current case study sought to answer the following specific research questions.

1) Will the training result in concurrent change in trainees' beliefs about and practices in grammar teaching?

2) Will the training enable the trainees to transfer their knowledge into actual classroom practices immediately after the training?

3) Will the training lead to long-term change in teachers' actual classroom practices six months after the completion of the ISTT?

The chapter elaborates on specific results from the findings for each research question to make the findings interpretable for the audience.

7.1 Summary of study design and procedure

The study design is composed of four stages. The first stage involved the data collection process prior to the training in order to reveal the existing practices of participants through observation of the participants' grammar teaching practices. The identification of their grammar instruction was thought to help understand the development of their instruction after the training. The second phase was the presentation of the training spanning 4 weeks amounting to 8-hour training period

apart from the extra assignments and tasks given to the participants outside the training period. During the training, the participants were exposed to inductive learning methodology through discovery-based tasks. The third stage was the post-training data collection process including classroom observations and interviews. This stage aimed to reveal the beliefs and practices of the participants to understand the cognitive and practical changes as part the immediate impact of the training on them. The fourth and the last stage were commenced six months after the actual training and post-training data collection process ended. It involved delayed observations and interviews to document the classroom practices and the influence that the training left on them.

The data collected at each stage were analyzed through qualitative data analysis tools. In the analysis of the observation notes and beliefs reported by the trainees before the training, the data were separately analyzed and discussed which were then tabulated and collectively interpreted for the ease of the readers at the end of the chapter. The first analysis involved the extent to which the trainees' classroom practices and beliefs overlapped and were consistent. As the study would seek to reveal the impact of the training on teachers, it was important to know the belief-practice resonance. The change aimed to be achieved cannot only be in their practices but also on their beliefs about grammar instruction, which are the fundamental basis for their grammar teaching practices. To identify the degree the teachers changed, the degree of the consistency between practices and beliefs before and after the training was investigated and analyzed. Only by this way can the impact of the training on their grammar teaching be clearly and reliably shown. The data collected after the training as the third phase can be divided into two parts. First, the

post-training observational notes and their beliefs about grammar teaching were, as in the pre-training analysis, were compared and the degree of the consistency between them was identified. Second, the post-training interview was analyzed through inductive content analysis and emerging themes grounded from the data were interpreted and were found to logically cohere with one another. The data yielded positive impacts but revealed contextual constraints that are believed to considerably affect the effectiveness of the training in creating conceptual changes in the trainees and in facilitating the transfer of knowledge form the training to their actual classroom practices.

In the fourth stage, the trainees were once again observed almost six months after the training to be able to show the degree of the impact that is still going on. The observational notes were analyzed and interpreted in relation to the practices before and after the training. The data coming from the delayed interview were analyzed and four themes were grounded. The themes cohered with one another, but the most important finding was that the trainees failed to fully transfer the knowledge and skills gained through the training particularly due to the contextual constraints they self-reported as time, tough syllabus, the students' previous learning experiences, and the materials formally used by the teachers and students alike.

7.2. Results for RQ 1

In research question 1, the main aim was to determine whether there is concurrent change in trainees' beliefs about and practices in grammar teaching. It turned out that there is considerable consistency between trainees' beliefs about grammar teaching and classroom teaching practices before the training. This

consistency was identified with reference to responses to the belief interview and their classroom practices. Similarly, it was found after the training that there was also concurrent change in beliefs and practices of trainees with regard to grammar instruction. To understand the extent of this simultaneous change, a brief summary of the findings will help to shape the relevant results.

The trainees' existing beliefs about grammar teaching were induced from the interview, and the following ten pre-training beliefs about grammar teaching were identified. Trainees believe that:

1. they should explain grammar rules to learners.

2. they should not begin teaching a new grammatical structure by giving examples.

3. new grammar points should not be presented and practiced in situations.

4. they should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning.

5. they should not help learners work out grammar rules for themselves.

6. they should always drill grammar rules.

7. the most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercise.

8. grammar explanation should not be avoided by the teacher.

9. the basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence.

10. mechanical drills are of value in language teaching.

The trainees' existing grammar teaching practices had the following key characteristics which were grounded from the findings that the observational data yielded.

1. Teacher-induced rule-first teaching approach

2. Deductive grammar teaching

3. Sentence-based mechanical exercises devoid of context

4. Limited contextualization of structures in situations

5. Teachers' explicit metalinguistic talk

6. Focus on structure and form rather than meaning and use

On the other hand, from the beliefs interview, the following post-training beliefs about grammar teaching were identified. These beliefs the trainees reported in the interview seem to be quite different from those in the pre-training observation. Trainees believe that:

1. they should not explain grammar rules to learners.

2. they should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples.

3. new grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations.

4. they *should not focus on structure and form*, but on meaning.

5. they should help learners work out grammar rules for themselves.

6. they should not always drill grammar rules.

7. the most effective way of teaching grammar does not involve using sentence-based exercise.

8. grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher.

9. the basic unit for teaching and language practice <u>should not be the sentence.</u>

10. mechanical drills <u>are of little value in language teaching.</u>

It is clearly seen that the beliefs they reported after the training changed remarkably and these cognitive changes were also confirmed by the observational data. The changing practices about grammar teaching practices shows that there is consistency between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and classroom teaching practices after the training. The key characteristics of the changed practices are as follows:

1. Relatively little or no use of mechanical transformational drills

2. Inductive grammar teaching approach

3. Use of sentence-beyond teaching materials

4. Use of context in teaching

5. Focus on form, meaning and use in triangulation

6. A learner-based grammar teaching method

Commonalities and differences across participants

Trainee 1: Müge

During the pre-training observation, Müge performed a lesson where it was possible to monitor a number of methodological decisions about grammar instruction. These include teacher-led rule teaching; rule-first grammar teaching that was introduced deductively through mechanical drills at sentence level in which there was little use of contexts but more of metalinguistic explanations. The observed

characteristics of the lesson can also be associated with her statements in the belief interview that embody her instructional preferences for teacher-centered grammar teaching. She took the control of presenting grammatical knowledge herself where the learners took the role of passive knowledge receiver. The materials she used during her lesson also reflected such a transmission-based approach to grammar teaching. She handed out worksheets which include sentence-based, decontextualized as well as, though less, semi-contextualized exercises after she presented the rule through instruction. The only concern in the materials was to improve students' knowledge about clefts through mechanical transformative exercises.

However, after the training, Müge's grammar instruction changed considerably in many ways that were not observed in the pre-training observation. The observational notes, the interview, and the materials used in the form of exercises, activities, and tasks can well account for the changes in practices as well as in her beliefs. There was a movement towards using activities where knowledge about clefts was contextualized with emphasis on functional aspects of language. She also tried to encourage the students discover the form and meaning of clefts from the input she provided by following inductive grammar teaching approach. The post-training belief interview confirms these changes in practice and material selection. She reported that she gained confidence in using inductive, learner-centered and discovery-based grammar teaching with little emphasis on isolated form-focused instruction. She seemed to integrate grammar into communicative activities more than she did in the pre-training observed lesson.

Trainee 2: Merve

Merve's observed lesson can be characterized as a lesson based on learning through oral and written transformative activities. She had the students exercise the structure of cleft constructions in most of the lesson. She improved the same grammatical knowledge and skills in students through such exercises. It seemed that the students learnt only how to transform independent, decontextualized sentences into clefts constructions, which is also decontextualized. The materials she employed in the lesson also confirm this approach. They were more based on worksheets that included rewriting activities for teaching the formal features of how to make a cleft sentence without highlighting any information about how to use them in various contexts such as dialogues and written discourses. Her beliefs also embodied an approach that prioritized the key role of the teacher in transmitting the rules of grammar as well as passive role of learners in learning. Her grammar teaching beliefs reflected instructional preferences for teacher-induced rule instruction on the basis of transformative, mechanical and decontextualized drills to improve their grammatical knowledge. However, the lesson observed immediately after the training can be characterized by a shift in instructing grammar with more contextual activities by which students are provided with opportunities to induce grammar rules and to generate their own cleft sentences. The activities presented were designed to help students to understand functions and meanings of the forms in various contexts. Merve seemed to avoid explicit grammar teaching through a teacher-centered perspective but allow students to induce grammar rules from the contextual activities and exercises towards the end of the lesson. Her lesson was based on the presentation of context –function –form respectively, while in the pre-training lesson she followed on only form presentation through decontextualized activities. Another

marked difference is that Merve brought to her lesson more contextual activities compared to the previous lesson observed. This was one of the major areas of impact as she also expressed in the interview.

Trainee 3: Elif

In general, in the pre-training observe lesson, Elif followed a structural perspective while teaching grammar, but sometimes she used limited contexts where functions and meaning of clefts were exercised. She used translation to help them understand the meaning of the new structure, provided drills to improve their knowledge of the sentence form. However, the lesson after the training had a number of changes in comparison to the lesson before the training. One of them was the shift from explicit teaching of grammar based on teacher instruction to implicit teaching based on students' inductive learning through several activities. Elif also included more analysis of sentences with different word orders in the form of metalinguistic talks to help students to learn how different ordering of sentence elements create new meanings and functions with clefts constructions, which could help them be more creative in using these structures in their language production. Another shift was in providing the amount of the subject matter knowledge, i.e. cleft constructions, which is inevitably due to the knowledge-based training they were actively involved.

Trainee 4: Şerif

In his pre-training lesson, Şerif followed a very strict structural approach to teach grammar. His instructional preference was quite limited to metalinguistic talk and decontextualized exercise at sentence level. The whole lesson was based on written and oral transformation of normal word order to clefts sentences. During the

interview, he also confirmed his approach with the stated beliefs about grammar teacher by favoring rule-first instruction, form-based exercises controlled an practiced by the teacher. However, Şerif's post-training lesson was different from the pre-training lesson in many ways. He made different instructional decisions and designed and integrated different materials into the lesson, especially in favor of contextualized materials that helped students to deal with meanings and functions rather than forms. Another change was in considerable effort he put in teaching grammar rules implicitly or inductively rather than explicitly and deductively. He also provided students with more detailed and rich subject matter content about cleft constructions in comparison to the relatively limited amount of knowledge about cleft constructions.

The evaluation of the changes in materials and approach to grammar instruction before and after the training can be found in more detail in Tables 21, 22, and 23. Table 21 demonstrates comparatively the trainees' grammar teaching beliefs before and after the training. Table 22 shows the variety of the materials used by the trainees before and after the training, which indicates their approach to teaching grammar in the terms of the materials they selected and used. On the other hand, Table 23 reveals methodological preferences the trainees made before and after the training.

Table 21

Pre- and post- grammar teaching beliefs across the trainees

	Pre-training beliefs	Post-training beliefs	Belief statements
Müge	+	--	
Merve	+	--	1. Teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners
Elif	+	--	
Şerif	+	--	
Müge	--	+	
Merve	--	+	2. Teachers should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples
Elif	--	+	
Şerif	+	+	
Müge	--	+	
Merve	--	+	3. New grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations
Elif	--	+	
Şerif	--	+	
Müge	+	--	
Merve	+	--	4. Teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning
Elif	+	--	
Şerif	+	--	
Müge	--	+	
Merve	--	+	5. Teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves
Elif	--	+	
Şerif	--	+	
Müge	+	--	
Merve	+	--	6. Teachers should always drill new grammar structures
Elif	+	--	
Şerif	+	--	
Müge	+	--	
Merve	+	--	7. The most effective way of teaching grammar involves using sentence-based exercises
Elif	+	--	
Şerif	+	--	
Müge	--	+	
Merve	--	--	8. Grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher
Elif	--	+	
Şerif	--	+	
Müge	+	--	
Merve	+	--	9. The basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence
Elif	+	--	
Şerif	+	--	
Müge	--	+	
Merve	--	--	10. Mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching.
Elif	--	+	
Şerif	--	--	

It is clear from Table 21 that the training coupled with the language awareness activities as well as lesson preparations for the observed lesson helped them revisit their existing beliefs and modify them to a considerable extent. However, it seems that Merve did not change her beliefs about teachers' grammar explanation and the use of mechanical drills. Rather than change completely, she expressed that she might reduce the amount of the drills and changes the sequence of exercises she might be giving. Similarly, Şerif also made a similar statement

regarding the use of drills. He said he could use fewer drills by considering the complexity of the grammar point. Şerif also held the same beliefs about the use of example sentences. In terms of the beliefs of the trainees about grammar teaching, the training had a similar impact on the trainees.

To provide concrete evidence for the changes observed in the trainees, the variety of the materials used in the observed lessons by the trainees before and after the training can be evaluated as in Table 22.

Table 22
Materials across the trainees in the pre- and post-training lessons

	Pre-training lesson/ frequency	Post-training lesson/ frequency	Delayed post-training lesson/ frequency	Materials
Müge	2	0	0	
Merve	1	0	0	
Elif	0	0	0	Explicit rule presentation
Şerif	1	0	0	
Müge	5	1	0	
Merve	4	1	0	
Elif	2	1	1	Transformative activities
Şerif	3	0	0	
Müge	2	0	0	
Merve	1	0	0	
Elif	0	0	0	Mechanical drills
Şerif	2	0	0	
Müge	1	1	0	
Merve	0	0	0	
Elif	0	1	0	Situations
Şerif	0	0	0	
Müge	0	2	2	
Merve	1	1	3	
Elif	2	3	3	Dialogues
Şerif	0	1	2	
Müge	0	1	1	
Merve	0	1	1	Role plays
Elif	1	1	1	
Şerif	0	1	0	

Table 22 shows the frequency of the use of the specific types of materials before, after and six months after the training. The frequency of the activities may

indicate the considerable change in their presentation of grammar knowledge that the trainees experienced. The general shift in the types of materials was particularly from decontextualized knowledge to contextualized knowledge. While teaching rules explicitly and transformative activities was abandoned by all four trainees, mechanical drills were not abandoned but minimized by Merve and Şerif as they reported in the interview. On the other hand, Elif continued to use dialogues and conduct role play activities as she did before the training. In general, the changes in the way grammar knowledge could be summarized as from teacher-oriented to student-discovery through the sentence beyond-materials the trainees used; decontextualization were replaced by contextualized materials in all four of the trainees, and deductively-taught grammar was replaced by inductively-oriented grammar teaching. In general there is a tendency to opt for the materials that help learners use language in its own context rather than in discrete sentences that have no context.

On the other hand, Table 23 demonstrates the methodological preferences of the trainees in pre- and post- training lessons. From the activities they gave and materials they used, it could well be identified which methodologies were followed during the observed courses. There were similarities across the trainees in terms of the methodological changes they made in their grammar teaching instruction. Just as deductive grammar teaching approach was abandoned by all the trainees, and inductive approach was followed, the structural view of language teaching was replaced by functional view of language teaching. However, Elif continued to follow similar methodologies before and after the training but increased the variety of functional materials due to the increased awareness towards the contextualized

materials through authentic texts. On the other hand, sentence-based grammar instruction was not used. Instead, the trainees followed a discourse- and context based materials. However, Elif increased the amount of such materials in the post-training observed lesson. With the methodological changes they experienced or modified, they also changed their roles as teachers in the classroom. They seemed to be more student-centered as opposed to teacher-centered, which was the case in the pre-training observed lessons.

Table 23

Methodological preferences in pre- and post- training lessons across the trainees

	Pre-training lesson	Post-training lesson	Delayed post-training lesson	Grammar teaching methodologies
Müge	+	--	--	
Merve	+	--	--	Deductive
Elif	+	--	--	
Şerif	+	--	--	
Müge	--	+	+	
Merve	--	+	+	Inductive
Elif	+	+	+	
Şerif	--	+	+	
Müge	+	--	--	
Merve	+	--	--	Sentence-based
Elif	--	--	--	
Şerif	+	--	--	
Müge	--	+	+	
Merve	--	+	+	Discourse-based
Elif	+	+	+	
Şerif	--	+	+	
Müge	+	--	--	
Merve	+	--	--	Teacher-centered
Elif	+	--	--	
Şerif	+	--	--	
Müge	--	+	+	
Merve	--	+	+	Student-centered
Elif	--	+	+	
Şerif	--	+	+	
Müge	+	--	--	
Merve	+	--	--	Structural
Elif	--	--	--	
Şerif	+	--	--	
Müge	--	+	+	
Merve	--	+	+	Functional
Elif	+	+	+	
Şerif	--	+	+	

7.3. Results for RQ 2

The training yielded a cycle of interrelated processes for integration and transfer of new knowledge. A potent model for transfer of new knowledge emerged from the analysis of the post-training interview data. This model represents a dynamic and circular interaction of knowledge transfer stages rather than a linear interaction. The observations made and the trainees' interview responses show that knowledge transfer is subject to a series of pre-processes that interact in a complex way as is shown in figure 3.

Figure 3. The cycle of the trainees' training experience
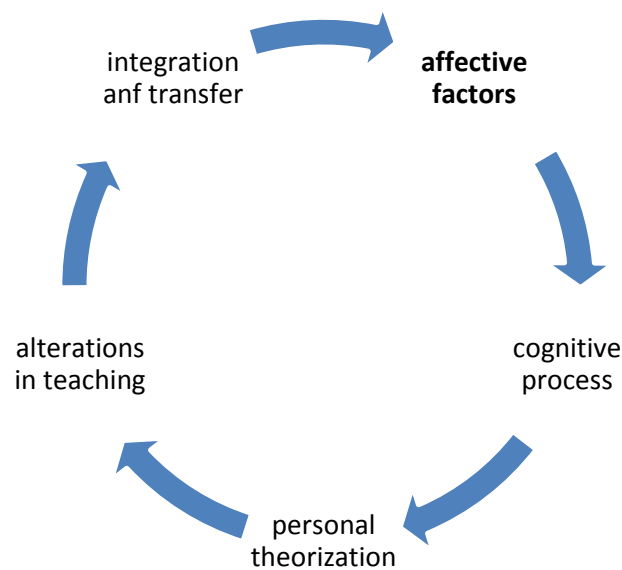
7.3.1. The stages

7.3.1.1. Affective factors

From the interview data three components emerged as affective factors. These include positive and negative attitudes, motivation and expectation. In general the trainees had positive stance towards the participation in the training, which is clear in the positive attitudes, motivation, and expectation. The constraints that can be attributed to the institutional, pedagogical, and personal negative factors emerged as a key theme that also account for the strategic conceptual change (SCC). This means that the trainees underwent a considerable pedagogical cognitive change also identified from the observed teaching practices, but the outcomes of the conceptual change such as contextualized grammar teaching, inductive grammar teaching, using sentence-beyond discourse, avoidance from mechanical transformational exercises could not be implemented in the unobserved courses. The training was not able to delete any existing beliefs. Rather, it provided the trainees with new insights into how they could best make use of both existing and newly acquired conceptions of grammar teaching in their practices. It seems that the trainees developed strategies of integrating new knowledge and skills into their teaching practices on the basis of the constraints posed by the classroom context including students' skills, needs and desires, the syllabus, and materials to be covered. It is no coincidence that the trainees report that they sometimes use what they acquired from the training if the classroom conditions permit.

It can be interpreted from the data analysis that the trainees have accommodated new knowledge but have not given up pre-existing cognitive

conceptions completely. The reason for the accommodation is that in the pre-training observed lesson they taught grammar on the basis of the existing beliefs and knowledge. However, during the training, their active involvement in the training helped them identify the pedagogical and linguistic weaknesses in their observed pre-training grammar teaching practice and reflect retrospectively on the approaches they followed.

In my case, though there were negative attitudes towards the training stemming from external factors such as intensive working conditions related to too many hours of teaching and too many educational responsibilities along with teaching, they had high expectations and motivation for the training. This attitude changed as they realized weaknesses and deficiencies in their knowledge base and in their grammar teaching skills.

These factors arising from the institutional and contextual constraints impinge on the conceptual change that the trainees would normally go through and promote their grammar teaching. The reason for conceptual change constrained by contextual factors is related to institutional restrictions such as pressures posed by the exam, the nature of the exam questions, time tabling, time pressures, course aims and requirements by syllabus, materials officially selected and used, materials required to teach in the new way, course focus, and limited preparation time for courses, and pedagogical constraints such as students' needs, skills and language ability as well as their desire for the traditional grammar teaching practices, and personal constraints such as trainees' language learning experiences, previous

teacher education courses at the university, existing practices comfortably conducted in the classrooms.

These institutional, pedagogical and personal constraints functioned as filters that inhibit measurable conceptual change in teachers' beliefs and practices. Even though the trainees promoted their knowledge base to a large extent regarding the training topic, namely clefts constructions, and successfully practiced accordingly in the observed lessons, this fell short of changing their practices in unobserved lessons. However, it should be noted that in the observation conducted six months after the training I could see them instructing grammar in the way they changed for the post-training lesson and heard them explain how useful the newly acquired grammar teaching methodology can be, but add to this positive outcome that they unfortunately cannot reflect such a pedagogical and personal change into every grammar lesson due to the institutional and pedagogical constraints.

It is also clear that helping trainees change their beliefs and practices may not necessarily guarantee that they will teach so forever. Rather they may be constrained by the factors they cannot control in the local context arising from institutions and pedagogical factors related to students' profile.

7.3.1.2. Cognitive Processes

The second stage identified from the data as cognitive processes revealed three sub-processes such as learning, awareness raising and developmental pro-active thinking. These cognitive processes, I believe, formed a basis for systematic changes in the grammar teaching. The trainees reported that they acquired new knowledge

and added remarkably to their subject matter, which also raised their awareness in alternative grammar teaching practices. These learning and awareness raising process led them to doing developmental pro-active thinking during which they integrated the acquired knowledge into the issues, of which they have become more aware.

7.3.1.3. Personal Theorization

The third stage that emerged from the data is personal theorization, which refers to a process where the trainees combined the ideas they developed in the cognitive process stage with the possible outcomes of the planned future practices. During the interviews, they mentioned explicitly the learning outcomes of the shifted grammar teaching approaches, which facilitated the route to using new knowledge in their grammar teaching.

7.3.1.4. Alterations in teaching

This theme was grounded from the data as the fourth stage on the way to trainees' changing their practices. There are also sub-themes that emerged under this major theme. The first sub-theme was induced to be grammar teaching methodology. The shift can be characterized by several key features such as from decontextualized grammar teaching to contextualized grammar, from explicit grammar teaching to implicit grammar, and from formal grammar teaching to functional and situational grammar teaching. Such a variety of pedagogical and methodological changes were tried out in the unobserved classroom practices before the training ended as an immediate impact of the training. The trainees sought to apply what they learnt immediately in their regular classes as they wanted to confirm the feasibility of what

they discovered during the training before they were asked to do practice teaching for the purpose of the evaluation of the impact of the training. Another immediate impact occurred in the area of language teaching materials. The trainees reported and were observed that they modified and reconsidered the nature of the materials they were using in their classrooms. They started to re-evaluate the existing materials, select suitable ones and generate new ones with the help of the new knowledge and insights they gained during the training. This experience with the new material characteristics also was a powerful one which implicitly guided them to reconsider and reflect upon their classroom practices. Their realization of the weakness in the materials they were using contributed to their understanding of the instructional decisions as well. This stage functioned as a confirmatory one which gave them the confidence to apply new and modified grammar instruction. During this process, they consciously or unconsciously went through a trial period which prepared them for an instructional and pedagogical both in beliefs and practice and for the ability to generalize the results of the modified teaching experience to other courses.

7.3.1.5. Integration and transfer

Having gone through a careful trial and substantial reflection, the trainees reported how they integrated and transferred new knowledge into their post-training observed lesson as well as into other courses. Therefore, the last stage that was grounded from the interview data and from the evaluation of the observational data was called the integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge into the classroom practices. They specifically reported that having gone through such a training and practice helped them gain new insights into how they could use this

knowledge in grammar courses, which was the first sub-theme. They have practiced and said they would practice the implications of what they learnt in their future grammar courses. The second sub-theme was based on their self-report that they would generalize the implementation of the new knowledge in teaching other language skills. The training seems to have provided them with the skills to reflect upon how they can utilize the newly learnt pedagogical and instructional content for other courses. One of the reasons for this impact might be that they were teaching different language skill courses at the time of the research, which meant they could implement any cognitive and practical changes in their classrooms. The link between theory and practice was facilitated by this advantage that the context they were in gave them. In chapter 2, figure 1, proposed by Ferguson, provided a context for a teacher education course. According to Ferguson, cell 1, where the training is run in the trainees' setting with a homogenous group would be most successful, justifies this direct link that the trainees were able to make in this research study.

7.4. Results for RQ 3

Long term practical changes likely to be induced by short in-service teacher training courses have been criticized in recent relevant literature (Pacek 1996; Lamb 1995). Although trainees seem to be motivated to implement the new knowledge and skills, it is clear that creating teacher change in the long run is a challenging process.

From the impact interview six months after the training, the following four themes were grounded from the data. These themes indicate that the changed beliefs and practices after the training are still implemented in the observed lesson

but that trainees could return to their traditional ways of grammar teaching due to external factors they could not control such as keeping up with an intensive syllabus that reduces the time they can invest in functional and contextual grammar teaching activities.

Theme 1: Belief changes

Theme 2: Change in the materials selected and used

Theme 3: Development of and change in teaching in six months

Theme 4: Implementation of new knowledge in the unobserved lessons

The delayed observations can be characterized by the implementation of functional and contextual grammar teaching principles based on sentence-beyond discourses and by the use of inductive grammar teaching methodology.

Not surprisingly, these characteristics also resonate with the findings of studies of teacher expertise. Tsui (2003), for example, identifies three dimensions as critical indicators of the extent to which any teacher is an expert:

1. how teachers relate to the act of teaching, and the extent to which they integrate or dichotomize the various aspects of teacher knowledge in the teaching act;

2. how they relate to their specific contexts of work, and the extent to which they are able to perceive and open up possibilities that *do not present themselves* as such in their specific contexts of work; and

3. the extent to which they are able to *theorize the knowledge* generated by their personal practical experience as a teacher and to '*practicalise' theoretical knowledge* (Tsui, 2003:247).

The evidence gathered for the present study would suggest that in most respects all four subjects are experts according to Tsui's criteria, despite the apparent limitations in their subject-matter knowledge.

The trainees made enormous progress both in the awareness of the theoretical linguistic knowledge and its value to the teaching but also promoted knowledge about who they can integrate this new knowledge into their grammar teaching instruction and materials selection, evaluation and generation. Such a theoretical and experiential model of training led to desired impact upon their teacher learning. However, this teacher learning experience required them to invest time and effort and required me to provide considerable support in understanding the theoretically complex issues. Both the trainees and the researcher (I) worked with highest motivation and commitment to complete tasks that helped bridge the gap between the theoretical linguistic knowledge and grammar teaching.

During the training, as clearly discussed in the findings for research question 2, the trainees went through a cyclical process of reflective practices that was initiated by several affective factors which were then followed by cognitive processes, personal theorization, alteration in teaching and integration and transfer of new knowledge. This process of personal reflection helped them facilitate the integration and transfer of new knowledge as they reported a plenty of

developmental pro-active thinking in the while-training and post-training. It was this reflective cycle they personally experienced as they learnt during the training that facilitated retention of knowledge and its incorporation into the long term practices.

As a general result of the training, figure 4 emerged that showed relations between the themes that were grounded from the whole study.
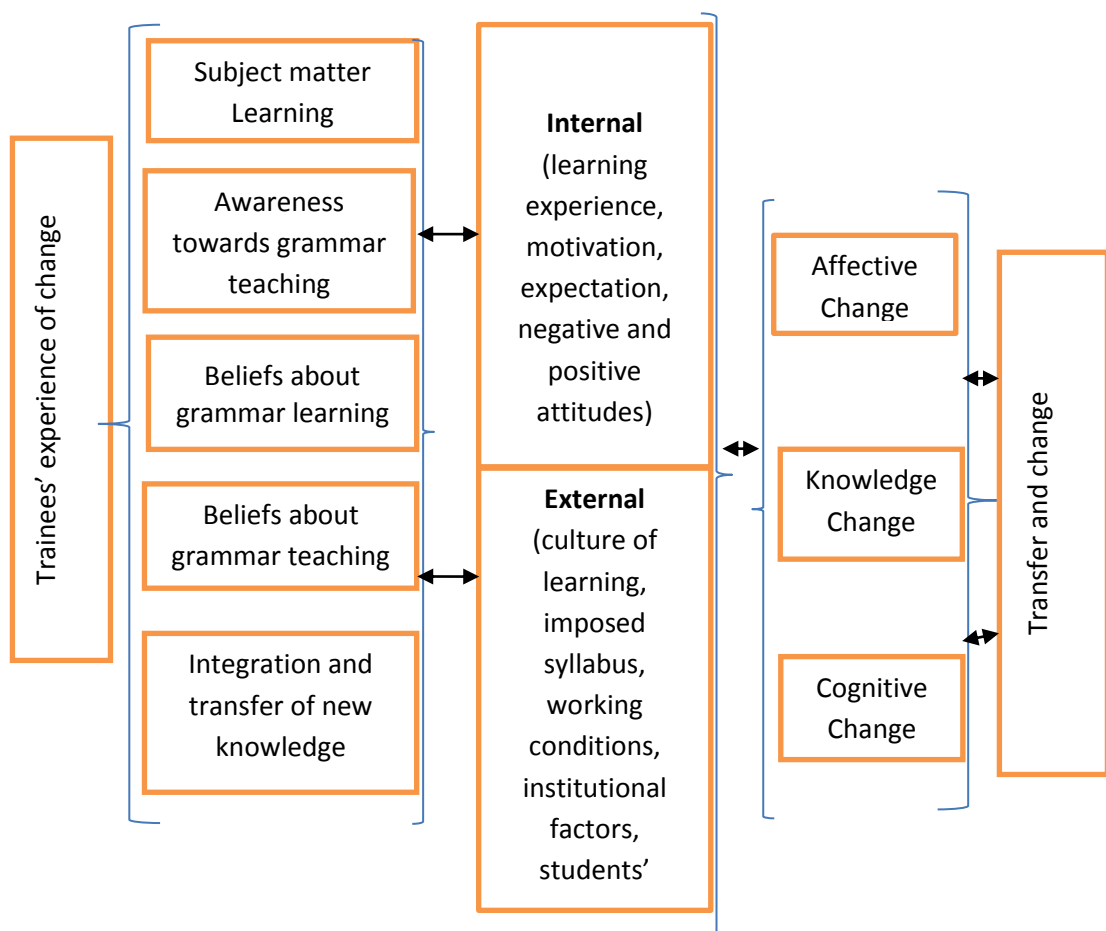

Figure 4. Facilitating and inhibiting factors for knowledge transfer

Figure 4 was constructed from the data grounded from the interviews with the trainees after the training. The content of the data demonstrated that they went through a process of change from the beginning of the training to the end of the study. The change of experience can be summarized under five headings: subject

matter learning, awareness towards grammar teaching, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about learning, and integration and transfer of new knowledge. More specifically, the trainees raised awareness towards grammar instruction by the subject matter knowledge acquired, which in turn influenced the beliefs about grammar teaching and learning. The existing beliefs reconsidered and modified then helped the trainees integrate new knowledge into classroom practices and transfer the new knowledge. However, from the data, it was discovered that there were also internal and external factors that constrain or facilitate transfer of knowledge acquired from the training. These factors in figure 3 were grounded carefully from the content analysis of transcribed interview data. Though the negative external factors that emerged were constraining the transfer of knowledge for conceptual change in the trainees' teaching, the impact of the training at least enabled them to practice the positive contributory aspects of the training into practice in the observed lessons, which also was a good opportunity for them to experience the practical aspects of the new knowledge. It was these practices under the presence of the researcher that facilitated the implementation. After the training, the self-reports that the trainees provided in the interviews and the observations made revealed that the trainees experiences affective change, knowledge change and cognitive change. First, they developed positive attitudes towards such theoretical content trainings based on inductive methodology supported by learner-centered language awareness activities. This positive stance helped them acquire the knowledge about clefts more readily and question and modify their existing beliefs. It should be noted that rather than change or delete the existing beliefs, this training provided the trainees compelling evidence by which to judge the new instructional alternatives. They came to better understand the weaknesses and strengths in their existing grammar instructions with reference to

the subject matter from the training. Therefore, knowledge manifested itself as huge power that can profoundly influence the trainees' cognition. One reason to claim that the trainees changed their beliefs is that they taught in the observed lessons in a markedly different way from the pre-training observed course. If they had not been convinced to practice in such a changed way, they would not have designed their lessons in a modified way, because the researcher never imposed on the trainees a particular way of teaching rather provided them knowledge from which they could come to prepare such grammar lessons that prioritize context, functions and use rather than merely forms. Therefore, it is clear that there was transfer and long-term change monitored and identified, but the factors that constrained the trainees' innovative teaching in the unobserved lessons played the key role in the insightful interpretation of results of the study. Theoretical and content knowledge-based trainings may lead to conceptual change in teachers' cognitions and practices because knowledge can help trainees rationalize the underlying principle of particular teaching methods and approaches.

7.5. Discussion

Though the training was short, the content and delivery mode of the training was the catalyst for creating changes in the trainees. Even though it was short, the way it was run and the role that the trainees undertook and the scope of the training such as addressing knowledge base, providing opportunity to implement under the presence of the trainer, the process of the training (user-learner-analyst-teacher respectively or sometimes concurrently) were actually crucial for creating desired changes and development in trainees.

The study came up with some additions to three roles that Wright and Bolitho (1993) assigned to the trainees. Wright and Bolitho tended to view the trainees "learner user", but the analyzed data revealed that the trainees undertook these two roles separately because in the training it turned out that the trainees were able to use cleft constructions in their English communication but did not know what they are in metalanguage terms. They needed to consult grammar books for formal structure of the subject matter. This gap leads me to think that the training carried them from "user" level to "learner" level, where they explored what it is something they actually use in communication. Another difference is that trainees, before actualizing "teacher" roles, went through a "practitioner" role in the lessons they taught for the sake of the study. Therefore, they implemented what they learnt under the control of the trainer in their classroom. They undertook the role of "teacher" when they started to teach in real classrooms where they were not observed. On the basis of the interviews, the trainees went through user, learner, analyst, practitioner and teacher roles to improve language awareness, which can be schematized in figure 5.

Figure 5. Levels of trainees' roles
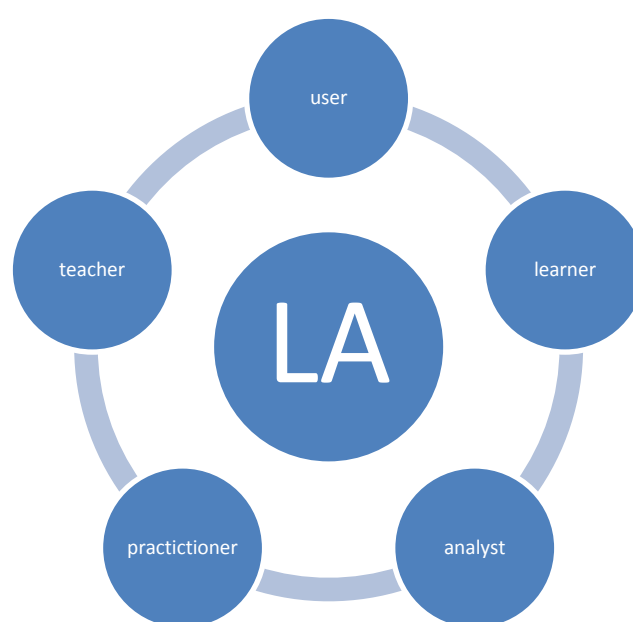
Rather than three competences, trainees develop five competences according to the revised model from this study. The competences need to be clarified for the purposes of this study.

User competence: the trainees use cleft structures in English communication accurately and appropriately but do not know what they refer to in terms of grammar. It is clear that they have procedural knowledge about clefts but little or no declarative knowledge.

Learner competence: Having vague declarative knowledge about what clefts are, they need to promote their knowledge of clefts by consulting grammar reference books in the same way a language learner might need to do. More specifically, they promote their declarative knowledge on top of procedural knowledge they have.

Analyst competence: trainees deepen the knowledge learnt from the reference grammar books to be able to use in their teaching practices. They act pro-actively at this level to explore ways of transferring knowledge from the training to the classroom teaching.

Practitioner competence: trainees integrate the newly learnt knowledge and skills in the classroom where the trainer observes their practice as part of the training.

Teacher competence: trainees complete the training and integrate the newly learnt knowledge and skills from the practicing process into their actual teaching competence.

Revealing more roles of trainees is one of the critical results of the study. A training based on theoretical content knowledge should be combined with language awareness activities that allow for preparation and experimentation of the new knowledge by helping them bridge the theory and practice and making explicit connection between the new knowledge and the way it can be used in teaching grammar. The trainees found partaking in the training personally and professionally beneficial, which allowed them to explore linguistic aspects of clefts and revisited their existing beliefs about grammar teaching. Despite all the pedagogical and professional benefit that such training might have offered, it took the trainees a plenty of time and effort to engage in the training and understand and synthesize theoretical linguistic knowledge with their grammar teaching experiences.

On the other hand, as is the case in this research study, trainings generally promote positive attitudes in trainees that encourage them to try out new practices with seemingly changed beliefs about the subject of the training. According to Widdowson (1987, p, 27), these positive attitudes are closely related to the 'social and professional intensity of the event' where they come together with others who have similar problems in different contexts, which is also discussed by Lamb (1995). Though this is the case, returning to their teaching environments, teachers do not sustain the pedagogical and personal change they experienced during the training. Therefore, in any in-service training, long-term teacher change needs to be

addressed. According to Chin and Benne (1970) cited in Nicolaidis and Mattheoudakis (2008), there are three strategies for the implementation of change. These are the power–coercive, rational–empirical and normative–re-educative strategies. The first (the power–coercive) strategy requires imposing an external top-down change, but it is highly unlikely that teachers will change their existing practices without clear understanding of the reasoning and theoretical aspect of the imposed changes (Hayes 1995). The second (the rational–empirical) strategy is based on the principle that people will adopt the changes only if they are convinced of the merits to be experienced. However, this may also fall short in promoting change in teachers. These outcome-based and practical-change oriented strategies seem to lack another critical aspect of the change process, which is introduced in Hayes (1995) as the normative–re-educative strategy. This strategy requires changing teachers' deep-seated beliefs and behaviors (Kennedy 1987, p.164). As teaching conceptions are deep-seated in the minds of teachers and functionally active in the practice of teaching, they will inhibit any new conceptions by competing with them. Without such inappropriate, unfounded beliefs to be changed, teacher change will always have deficit and yield unsuccessful results. This thesis suggests that promoting knowledge base of trainees provided strong theoretical and pedagogical basis for trainees and helped them distinguish the weakness and strengths of the existing and emerging beliefs. This reflective process induced inevitable changes as in the case of the normative - re-educative strategies. Another aspect that contributed to the trainees' changing their practices immediately after and 6 months after the training was that the training itself was not following a transmission-based approach that involves formal lectures that see theory and practice as distinct processes, but a transformative approach that requires learner-centered and inductive training

methodology that assigns trainees a more active role in constructing knowledge during the learning process (Sandholtz, 2002).

The scope of change in the trainees' approaches to teaching grammar can only be claimed to be within the limits of the classroom observations. The trainees' self-report clearly implies that they have developed a strategy where they decide which grammar teaching methodology they can use, based on institutional (time for the imposed syllabus, time for preparation for courses, exam system based on multiple choice) and pedagogical (students' actual proficiency level, their expectation for a particular instruction) factors. These two factors, institutional and pedagogical, were previously discussed by Burns and Knox (2004), which suggested that a teacher's knowledge about language and classroom action and decision-making is dialectical and dynamic. This concurrent interaction between theory and practice or action constitutes a springboard for long-term conceptual change. What I observed was that the trainees decided to change their existing teaching methodology not when they were acquiring the theoretical content knowledge but once they had implemented it in the observed and unobserved lessons. The final decision to change the on-going practices seemed to depend on the pedagogical results of the rehearsals in the classrooms. The trainees evaluated the influence of their modified grammar instruction on how the students felt and how they felt as a teacher while applying it. The self-reports indicate that they were pleased with the positive affective influence on their students as well as on their classroom performance. Burns and Knox explained how knowledge about language from the training functioned as the base for their classroom practices and in return, the teaching practices informed, developed and added to the knowledge about language. Similarly, the trainees in the

current research articulated their understandings of the theoretical content and explored implementations of this knowledge better and better as they experienced the process of linking both in a creative and constructive way. Equally important, during the training, the trainees reflected critically on how they have been teaching grammar and on how they could employ what they were acquiring. They were able to induce characteristics of their own practice and the angles that they were not aware of previously (Burns, 1996).

Another reason for the trainees' transfer and integration of new theoretical content knowledge was the language awareness activities in which they actively engaged. The last session allowed and even inspired them to use the new knowledge in understanding the nature of the teaching exercises developed for teaching clefts constructions. The trainees were assigned to analyze a text including the use of clefts, provide explanations for the use of syntactic focus constructions, and consult a grammar book available to compare what they learnt with how the target grammar structure is presented in grammar books. Later they were assigned to evaluate what learners would be learning from such exercises and whether they would use them in their teaching. Finally, the trainees were assigned to write language learning exercises based on what they gained in the previous stages of language awareness activities. This active and creative process that helped them to raise their own awareness in the pedagogical aspects of the materials also facilitated the transfer and integration. The language awareness activities provided the trainees with implicit teaching tools for pedagogical implementation of the knowledge they gained from the training. This opportunity to learn, process, and practice new knowledge facilitated the transfer and integration that would otherwise be impossible

without the training and follow-up lesson preparation and observations in the presence of the researcher trainer.

Though transfer and integration of theoretical content knowledge could be evidenced by the post and delayed post observations, teacher change was found to be subject to a number of internal and external factors. More specifically, the training influenced the internal factors such as pedagogical and personal ones because the main aim of the training was to help the trainees promote diverse ways of grammar instruction by reflecting critically upon their previous language learning and training experiences as well as by adjusting their students' expectations, needs and skills to the new instruction. This was achieved through the training, but there were unique conditions in the context they were teaching which they could not control or beyond their control such as keeping up with the syllabus, integrating the grammar book in their classrooms, responsibilities that take up time such as marking papers, proctoring, and intense teaching schedule. Phipps and Borg (2009) also reported similar factors that forced teachers to behave or teach differently from what they believed it should be. In line with those identified in this study, they listed student expectations and preferences, and management concerns also identified by Sanchez (2012), Farrell and Kun (2008) and Burns and Knox (2005), and Farrell (2005). Sanchez, for example, reported internal and external factors for teachers' failure to teach in line with the grammar teaching beliefs. The former includes teachers' perceptions of their knowledge about grammar, grammar-related pedagogical content knowledge, and their concerns about losing face in the eyes of the learners. The latter, on the other hand, consists of contextual constraints. Sanchez parallelized the internal and external factors with those identified by Andrews (2007); the contextual

(e.g. time and syllabus), attitudinal (e.g. interest and confidence), and professional (e.g. knowledge and experience). It seems that even though teachers are successfully taught the abilities to examine their beliefs and modify them appropriately as part of the impact of the trainings they actively participate, it is relatively harder to guarantee that these new beliefs will impact their practices particularly due to the inherent factors discussed above.

The qualitative content analysis with an emic perspective revealed key themes and concepts induced from the categories. These themes were then theorized to represent the underlying meaning of these key concepts. For example, training may help trainees reveal some facts about their context particularly in terms of conditions that would constrain them from transferring and integrating new knowledge. Though the trainees in the research recognized the pedagogical, linguistic and methodological contribution of the new theoretical content knowledge to their grammar teaching skills, they reported some inhibitory facts existing in their context. Training may also function as a springboard to plan to make pedagogical and methodological changes in their grammar instruction. In this study, the trainees went through cognitive processes by which their plans for change commenced at the cognitive level. This was followed by another stage where the training enables reflection in the form of assumptions-making about learning and teaching grammar, which then helps them gain new insights into knowledge about aspect of linguistics, methodology and teaching materials.

The results of the current study regarding teacher change are compatible with many studies though there are few which investigated the impact of in-service

development programs on language teacher development. Freeman (1993) investigated the reactions of four high school French and Spanish teachers to the new ideas introduced in an in-service MA degree course. The data collected through qualitative tools indicated that teachers developed new ways of thinking. Freeman referred to this new way as *renaming experience,* but he could not provide evidence for this renaming experience helped the teachers reconstruct their practices because despite the evidence of changes for some teachers, there were still others who returned to their old teaching practices. Freeman concluded that cognition and behavior is interrelated and changes in practices cannot be the sole evidence of change. He suggests that a relevant study into teacher change should not only examine how teachers rename their practices but also whether they reconstruct them. Lamie (2004) reported that Japanese teachers changed their attitudes and practices after having participated in an in-service teacher development course. However, the study mentions in the limitations that the evidence for positive attitudinal shift resulted from teachers' increased awareness of the correct attitudes and their desire to demonstrate new knowledge rather than an actual, unaffected change in attitude for teaching. To minimize the risks of collecting data for superficial and indefinite changes rather than deep pedagogical changes, Kubanyiova (2007) highlighted the need for a triangulation of teachers' cognition, teaching practice and in-depth explanation of how practical changes was assessed. This study triangulated the trainees' beliefs through semi-structured interviews, teaching practices through observations and how the data obtained by these tools were then integrated to provide critical evidence for trainees' conceptual and practical change. There are also a number of studies in a book edited by Bartels (2005), which examines the impact of knowledge about language (KAL) on the participants and transfer of KAL into

classroom practices. More specifically the book is a collection of studies that investigate how teachers use their KAL in teaching (section 3) and on teachers use of KLA during actual classroom teaching (section 4) as well as the complexity of teachers knowledge about applied linguistics and complexity of using this knowledge for language teaching (section 5). The first study I would like to introduce from this book is the study of Burns and Knox (2005), which focused on systemic –functional linguistics and the language classrooms. The study was carried out to provide empirical evidence that teachers adapt their teaching on the basis of new knowledge. The main purpose of the study was to investigate to what extent Masters TESOL students would implement the theoretical knowledge gained in their practice as teachers. During the MA course, two teachers were exposed to knowledge base (content knowledge) and then observed and interviewed to assess the impact of this learning process on their teaching. Burns and Knox explained how they forced the teachers to learn linguistic knowledge and make it active and relevant to their own practice in the classroom where at the same time the teaching practice informed, developed and added to their KAL. Burns and Knox found that KAL that was introduced in the 9-week lesson reshaped the two teachers' practices in grammar teaching. They also found that KAL alone is not enough to change teachers' practices but researchers' presence in the classrooms is also a reason for change, which subverted the teachers' practice.

Another study is Borg (2005), which explored two teachers' perspectives on grammar teaching in relation to the nature of KAL they possess, influences on its development and its impact on grammar teaching practices. Borg found that understanding teachers' prior beliefs and experiences is critical to development of

effective teacher education programs, and that the teachers need KAL in order to facilitate grammar teaching. Hislam and Cajkler (2005) is another relevant study that aimed to investigate how trainees shared their knowledge of grammar with their pupils during their teaching practice. They concluded that acquiring grammatical knowledge is a long process during which trainees should reflect on and try out. Andrew and McNeil (2005) sought to find answers to three questions. The first question was whether 'Good Language Teachers' possess highly developed levels of declarative knowledge of the language systems. They found that such teachers had high levels of knowledge of the language systems particularly in vocabulary and grammar. The second question was whether Good Language Teachers' exhibit highly developed levels of teacher language awareness in their pedagogical practice. Their finding was that good language teachers proved to have high degree of language awareness. The last purpose was to explore the characteristics of the teacher language awareness of 'Good Language Teachers'. These were their willingness to engage with language, self-awareness, particularly their awareness of the limitations of their knowledge, and intuitive understanding of the "input enhancement" by making key features salient to enhance learners' noticing, awareness of learners' potential difficulties by providing support for individual learners and strategies for input enhancement, being able to tune their language for learners' understanding. The study concluded that 'Good Language Teachers' might have gaps in their subject matter knowledge on the basis of the test results, which in turn might adversely impact upon the procedural dimension of their teacher language awareness. Yates and Wigglesworth (2005) investigated whether and in what ways a professional development project impacted on the trainees' subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. They provided pragmatics as content knowledge for trainees

to learn. They found that the trainees made enormous gains both in the language awareness in pragmatics and in skills and confidence as researchers as well as in language use regarding interpersonal communication.

Borg (2011) also examined the impact of an intensive-eight-week in-service teacher education programme on the beliefs of English language teachers. The findings of the study provide ample evidence for the impact on the beliefs of the participants. However, Borg highlights the fact that how "impact" is perceived determines whether the programme actually had a considerable impact on the beliefs. If the term "impact" is meant to imply a deep and fundamental change in beliefs, then the programme yielded no significant impact, but if "impact" means progressing from limited awareness of the existing beliefs to more awareness by which participants could verbalize the beliefs that govern their instruction more effectively. On the basis of this difference, the impact of this current research on the trainees' beliefs is considerable in that they underwent deep and radical pedagogical shift in the observed lessons immediately after and 6 months after the training. The training also provided the trainees with opportunities to examine and express their beliefs as well as to deepen the initial beliefs and/or modify them with an insightful amalgamation of both, by which they also did some pro-active thinking for implications of this belief analysis on the classroom practices.

Knowledge transfer

The study revealed several tendencies regarding the impact of the research on the trainees. The first is that a training based on theoretical content knowledge delivered with an inductive training methodology seems to have the

potential to manage to change the novice trainees' beliefs and practices of grammar instruction. All four trainees abandoned their existing grammar teaching approach that prioritized sentence-based, mechanical and decontextualized exercises that were presented by a teacher-centered instruction. Instead, particularly in the observed lessons, they highlighted the use of contextualized text-based inductive methodologies of grammar teaching that put the learners in the center of learning who could discover the rules and understand the grammatical structure by the carful and critical guidance of the teacher. This transformation is quite related to the nature and delivery of the training as well as the power of the knowledge-based training. Attardo & Brown (2005) and Riegelhaupt & Carrasco (2005) reported that an introductory course they gave to the trainees helped them change their conceptions of dialects and use them in their own courses. Similarly, Angelova (2005) concluded that giving the trainees input about SLA enabled them to revise and change their beliefs about language learning and teaching. On the other hand, Yales & Wigglesworth (2005) similarly found that assigning the trainees to do research in pragmatics helped them change their conception of teaching. These studies that reported positive impact of the trainings on theoretical knowledge proved that gaining theoretical knowledge about different grammar domains may be successful in changing trainees' beliefs about teaching and learning. According to Grabe, Stoller, & Tandy (2000), applied linguistic courses are important part of professional development and trainees try to use the theoretical knowledge they acquired from such knowledge-based trainings in their teaching (Burns and Knox, 2005; Popko, 2005).

Given that some previous studies reported positive impact and transfer of theoretical knowledge into the teaching practices, the findings of the current research may also provide similar comments. According to Bartel (2005, p.411), from a cognitive perspective, knowledge transfer into practice is possible through the provision of propositional knowledge. Bartel explains six statements about the role and power of such knowledge. However, only four of them were discussed for the purpose of the study.

First, propositional knowledge about language successfully helps change beliefs and purposes of language teaching. The linguistic training in the current study can claim that the trainees' beliefs were reformed and enriched the existing grammar teaching beliefs rather than deleting them. The newly emerging belief functioned as complimentary to the already constructed ones. Bartel hypothesized that what made the transfer cognitively straight forward could be the type of the activities in linguistic courses which are similar to the beliefs about language teaching and learning. The same thing happened in the trainings. What helped the trainees to reform their beliefs was the activities which served directly for the purpose of the study.

Second, though KAL is successfully acquired and beliefs are effectively reformed, it does not necessarily mean that the full and consistent transfer to L2 teaching is possible. Bartel proposes the lack of deliberate practice that teachers could be made involved as the main reason for the failure in transfer of linguistic knowledge. Bartel also highlights that the major cause of transfer failure can also be

the focus on procedural problems such as how to do things or teach rather than on understanding the problems that may occur while teaching.

In the present research the acquisition of theoretical linguistic knowledge during the training and practice teaching can make strong claims about the transfer of the knowledge into the deliberate teaching practices under the presence of the trainer or the research, while it cannot about the teaching practices without the presence of the supervisor. This does not necessarily mean that they have not embraced the new belief about grammar teaching but as they consistently reported, there were situational constraints that impede them from teaching grammar in the new ways that they discovered. The constraints were also monitored and evidenced by the researcher and explained throughout the finding s and result chapters.

The third statement concerns itself with situational constraints that lead to substantial difficulties with transferring of KAL. As Bartel indicated, the contextual constraints may require teachers to do explicit processing to use KAL even in situation that does not allow for easy implementation. This creates cognitive overload, which might lead to failure in transferring the new knowledge and skills into the teaching practices. This study also concluded that profound positive impact on the trainees' beliefs and practices was inhibited by the contextual constraints which the trainees could not control. Most probably demotivated by the cognitive overload the trainees went through the commitment to the modified beliefs and new grammar teaching methodologies was loosened. Therefore, the trainees consistently reported to me that in the unobserved lessons, they sometimes went back to their traditional grammar teaching characterized by teacher centered teaching and direct

rule presentation followed by practice without contextualizing new knowledge and allowing the students to induce from the data.

The final statement includes contributory factors that help knowledge transfer into teaching practices. He reviewed these factors from the studies in (Bartel, 2005). These include;

(a) *Concrete information* vs. abstract: there is significant need for a concrete experience with new concepts with teaching practices. This was achieved in this study by the pre- post- and delayed post- observations. The trainees can be said to be given chances to implement the abstract knowledge through the activities, tasks and instructional decisions.

(b) *A focus on using KAL on specific teaching activities*: there is need for sustained engagement in the new knowledge spanning over a period as preparations for the teaching practices. The current research engaged the trainees actively in the material evaluation, selection and generation experiences in the form of language awareness activities. In addition, they were given some assignments to process the theoretical content knowledge outside the classroom. Therefore, the impact of the training time was supported by the outside cognitive and practical engagement in the linguistic knowledge.

(c) *Deliberate practice*: Ericsson, Krampe & Tesch-Römer (1993) reported that high levels of expertise are gained not only by long lasting experiential knowledge but also by engaging in a sustained deliberate practice. Therefore, Bartel

claims that applied linguistic courses need to provide teachers immediate opportunities to do deliberate practice and generate deliberate practice activities. This was also achieved in this study both with hands on awareness raining material evaluation and development activities and with the immediate follow-up lessons under observation. It was these aspects of the research that contributed greatly to the evidenced belief reformation and enrichment, and transfer of the theoretical content knowledge into the observed practices.

(d) *Well-developed mental models*: Tsui (2003) describes mental models as actively seeking out KAL and constantly working on integrating their KAL with their knowledge of teaching. She found in her study with four ESL teachers of varying degrees of expertise that teaching experience was not the most important impact on the development of teacher expertise. Rather it was the willingness and ability of the teachers to consistently reinvest their time in learning more and more about their teaching. Similarly, in the current study, the trainees were inspired to expand their understanding of new knowledge through the tasks and activities that led them to thinking about new ways of using KAL they acquired.

According to Bartel, these factors may encourage teachers to promote practice-specific, well-organized knowledge, a process that minimizes the cognitive overload and complexity of implementing linguistic knowledge in practice teaching. In the current case, the factors facilitated the trainees' transfer of knowledge and enabled them to create new ways of using KAL in their grammar teaching practices.

In addition to the factors elaborated above, the subject matter of the training, focus constructions also led to instructional difficulty for teachers to implement. As Table 3 indicates, it-clefts and wh-clefts have varying degree of markedness on the basis of syntactic and pragmatic knowledge that they require. According to table 3, from structural point of view, both structures are deemed to be marked since they require complex transformation of the constituents such as starting the sentence with dummy subject *it* and carrying a particular constituent before that-clause. Similarly, wh-clefts are also marked since they are clausal elements that are positioned in the subject position.

However, from a pragmatic point of view, there are two criteria to be considered. Based on universal frequency, both of these constructions are pragmatically unmarked since they are communicatively used both in spoken and written language. On the other hand, in terms of information principle, it-clefts are pragmatically unmarked if they are used to intensify given information in the previous context but marked if they are used to contrast the given information to highlight new information by placing the old information after the new information. Wh-clefts are unmarked in line with the information principle in English because in these clefts, the old information retains its frontal position and new information is sued as end-focus.

The trainees' teaching practices before the training focused on teaching structural aspects focus constructions rather than functions and meaning in context. This implies that they either disregard the functional aspects of these constructions due to the relatively higher degree of markedness or lack knowledge of such aspects.

However, when equipped with explicit knowledge about focus constructions, they attempted to focus more on pragmatic than structural aspects. This could be related to the increased awareness and knowledge that allowed them to teach the marked characteristics of clefts. The shift from structurally designed pre-training lessons to pragmatically-designed ones could be initiated by the increased knowledge, allowing them to teach previously-untouched aspects of focus constructions. The post-training observations did not yield a teaching difficulty hierarchy for the trainees, but rather the trainees attempted to integrate the structural knowledge they already had with pragmatic knowledge they seemed to acquire. With the integration of new knowledge acquired, the trainees struggled to overcome the inherent teaching difficulties without any explicit teaching hierarchy. Different from the pre-training observed lessons, they focused on the pragmatically unmarked aspects of focus constructions more than structurally marked aspects. The trainees were observed to facilitate the learning and teaching of structural markedness by teaching explicit knowledge about clefts through mechanical and transformational drills, whereas they facilitated the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge about clefts through process-oriented tasks and activities involving language use in context.

7.6. Implications and Suggestions

The findings and results of the study propose a number of implications for in-service language teacher training particularly in the area of grammar instruction. The training provided for the purpose of this study focused on the acquisition of theoretical content knowledge specifically addressing cleft constructions by covering the linguistic forms, functional meanings and linguistic contexts in which these constructions could be used. Such narrow-focus on a specific grammar domain that

the trainees had never taught created an interest in the training subject. They were aware that they would be learning not only new subject matter but also may develop new skills of grammar teaching. Though it was not in the scope of the study to lead the trainees to choosing a particular grammar instruction methodology, the trainees tended to favor integrated FFI rather than only isolated FFI as a result of their active participation in the training. The trainees' preferences for this particular grammar instruction can be justified with reference to a number of studies that discuss these two types of grammar instruction. Spada (2009) reports that, in the related literature, it is well-established that grammar instruction that includes attention to both form and meaning in communicative and content-based instruction will be most effective. The instructional change observed and reported in the trainees in this study exemplified a similar approach to grammar teaching, which is also supported in the instructed SLA literature. For example, Long (1996) argued the necessity of negation of meaning and implicit feedback on form in the revised interaction hypothesis, which favored a meaning based instruction of grammar. Similarly, Lyster (1998) highlighted the need for explicitly given feedback on form through interaction, where grammatical form is also negotiated for an effective grammar teaching and learning. In addition, Swain & Lapkin (2002) focuses on meta-talk and collaborative dialogue by which learners are allowed to reflect explicitly on grammatical form through communicative language use. These three hypotheses support integrated FFI by explaining theoretically how learners can develop better second language learning when they focus on form that is embedded in communicative discourse. Integrated FFI is also empirically supported by classroom research studies carried out in intensive second language classrooms by Spada, Lightbown & White (2005) as well as in French immersion classrooms by Lyster (1994, 2004). Similarly, Doughty &

Varela (1998) provide empirical support from communicative and context-based classroom research. From a cognitive point of view, Blaxton's (1989) theory of transfer appropriate processing claims that knowledge can be recovered most effectively in context when the context is similar to the one the form was acquired. Therefore, there is a close relation between the type of processing involved in knowledge acquisition and the type of procession involved in retrieving it. More specifically, learners can retrieve more quickly and accurately when knowledge is presented and retrieved in context as well.

On the other hand, in the related literature, there is less agreement on the effectiveness of grammar instruction that draws learners' attention to form only. However, there are still a number of studies that empirically support isolated FFI. For example, VanPatten (1991, 2004) claims that learners can only process input for meaning before they can process it for form because working memory is limited in nature. Due to the memory constraints, grammar instruction that highlights explicit information about the language that is learnt, explicit information about processing strategies and structured input activities are recommended in input processing studies. DeKeyser (1998) refers to the skill acquisition theory and claims that explicit instruction of grammar is necessary to maximize the understanding, which is then followed by some exercises to allow students to send the knowledge into their consciousness in order to facilitate recalling during communicative tasks. He also claims, according to skill-building theory, that it is explicit knowledge that allows implicit knowledge to emerge through the proceduralization of the former by giving learners opportunities to do enough practice.

The trainees' teaching practices of grammar before the training was provided was based on isolated FFI, where the only concern was to draw learners' attention to discrete grammatical points with little or no focus on their meaning in context. However, after the training there was a tendency to teach grammar in line with focus on form where they draw learners' attention to the linguistic elements when asked for by learners by explaining the perceived problems by their learners (Long, 1991 and Long & Robinson, 1999). The major focus was on helping them learn how to use the form in contexts such as discourse or dialogues. This training addressed the trainees' grammar teaching approaches by drawing their attention to the contextual and functional characteristics of marked forms. It was accompanied by the experimentation and adaptation of these approaches in their own classrooms for developmental purposes. Therefore, the training seemed very distinct from one-shot teacher training sessions that are provided in a lecture mode without any follow-up engagement with the trainees. It is also clear that such conventionally short trainings provide no pedagogical tools for the trainees to transfer and integrate the transmitted knowledge to their own teaching context. Therefore, the current research makes the following implications for the trainers who are to design linguistics-based in-service teacher training for their trainees.

First, trainees should be seen the constructors of knowledge and meaning who could discover language specific issues analytically and should be exposed to a mode of training that follows an inductive training methodology. By this, trainees can be given the responsibility of taking the ownership of their own learning, which could inspire them more easily to transfer the newly acquired and constructed knowledge into their teaching practices.

Second, as fundamental part of the training, trainees should be given opportunities of designing activities and developing teaching materials so that they can plan how to transfer and integrate the linguistic knowledge into grammar instruction. This cognitive process is an integral part of cognitive change and in turn practical change. Trainees should be adequately and insightfully made convinced that new knowledge can be applied and effective pedagogical results can be obtained. This theoretical and practical experience also reduces the cognitive overload posed by the complexity of theoretical linguistic knowledge from which they need to induce methodological and pedagogical implications.

Third, training should be sustained as long as possible to give trainees the implicit feeling that teacher change is a gradual process that needs to be supported by the supervisors and by the personal commitment and engagement. Therefore, it is important to video record the teacher and to allow them to watch it together with the trainer with follow-up questions by employing stimulated recall technique, which will enhance self-discovery.

Fourth, training should provide trainees with critical reflection activities that inspire them to revisit their own previous learning process and comment insightfully on the weaknesses and strengths to better organize their knowledge. It also should provide them with a pedagogical tool to handle the pedagogical, institutional and personal inhibitory factors that impede their developments towards a changed perspective.

Fifth, through the training, the trainees developed some aspects of interactional competence since the target grammatical constructions, namely focus constructions, are discourse-motivated and pragmatic oriented forms that are only meaningful in context. However, since this training did not primarily aim to nurture but implicitly improved interactional competence of the trainees, specifically designed in-service teacher training program should be organized to promote this skill. Given that a teacher instructs at least 4- 6 hours in an English teaching classroom on a working day, learners are normally expected to develop adequate pragmatic competence along with grammatical competence. However, in EFL contexts it is usually the case that learners fail to acquire pragmatic competence as much as grammatical competence, which might be related to the low interactional competence teacher possess. Therefore, the need for non-native teachers' acquisition and improvement of interactional competence is crucial.

The current study also provides some implications for the institutions that offer professional development programs to their instructors who are working intensively. The study concluded that even though trainings can be successful in changing conceptions of trainees towards a richer and more in-depth understanding of grammar teaching evidenced in the observed teaching practices, this does not guarantee that trainees will do so in the unobserved lessons. The major hindrance in this failure is that trainees are offered an intensive program where they are assigned to carry out several responsibilities such as marking papers, proctoring, teaching more hours than they could as well as than they would otherwise teach in a more effective way, some quizzes outside the teaching hours and sometimes tasks of material development and exam question preparation. Such a long list of tasks

assigned to the trainees makes the professional development activities a secondary responsibility which could never be achieved. Therefore, institutions should carefully schedule trainees' teaching program and assign tasks other than teaching hours in a way that allows teachers to engage in professional development activities.

Similarly, there are also recommendations for pre-service teachers and teacher educators who especially teach linguistics at theoretical level without pedagogical implications explicitly studied in the classroom. Most pre-service teachers are expected to connect the link between theory and practice once they have graduated from the department. However, the link cannot be adequately made unless the pre-service teachers are insightfully taught how to do so when they are provided with theoretical linguistic courses. Therefore, I highly recommend language teacher educators to provide applied linguistic courses that highlight explicitly the identification and exploration of these pedagogical links.

Another recommendation is related to the lack of human capital that can work in the area where linguistics and language teaching merge. In the curriculum of undergraduate Language Teaching departments of educational faculties, there are few linguistic courses that effectively teach linguistics primarily due to the lack of academic staff who can teach the course as an interdisciplinary one which helps pre-service teachers gain insights into pedagogical implication of linguistic knowledge. The lack of linguistic focus educational setting in Turkey is also closely related to the few number of linguistics departments, which also point to the few number of academics who can teach linguistics. More specifically, there are only six linguistics departments and limited number of linguistics lecturers in 174 state and private

universities. Haznedar (2012) investigated the pre-service education and classroom practices of primary language teachers. The study identifies and discusses the lack of linguistic-oriented courses provided for primary language teachers. Haznedar relates the old-fashioned teacher-centered methods, explicit grammar-focused instruction, and translation into Turkish to the lack of field-specific courses such as particularly in second language learning, applied linguistics, teaching young learners psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics as well as many others. Such courses given by linguistically and pedagogically aware academic staff could enhance pre-service teachers' professional qualities in their teaching career. It is clear that courses integrating linguistic areas such as syntax, morphology, phonetics, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse with pedagogy may help develop practical ideas to facilitate pre-service teachers' ability to explore and implement ways of both making pedagogical connections and promoting their teacher knowledge and teaching skills.

Pedagogical Implications for teaching marked structures

There has been an ongoing argument regarding whether some language features are more affected by instruction than others. While some researchers (Krashen, 1982 and Reber, 1989) claim that simple language features can be taught, but complex ones are likely to be better learnt implicitly through exposure to linguistic input, others (Hulstijn & Graaff, 1994) claim that complex features should be instructed explicitly because such features are hard to notice in the linguistic input without instruction. The trainees in the research implicitly supported the latter by embedding the forms in discourse and a variety of contexts while presenting the marked constructions. They changed their initial preferences to use form-focused instruction while teaching marked constructions. They explained this shift as part of

the changes in their ideas that if grammar is instructed in context, students can better use it in communication. Though it is not in the scope of this study to investigate whether certain language features such as marked or unmarked can be affected the type of the grammar teaching instruction, the trainees self-reported that they already started to teach unmarked forms in different types of contexts and found it easier to teach them in context as in the form of integrated FFI.

Though positive feelings of the trainees and creative classroom practices were observed in the two post-training observations under the presence of the teacher trainer (the researcher), the role of the training content, which was marked structures in the form of cleft constructions, also created a partial pedagogical difficulty in the trainees' transferring the knowledge content to the instructions and practices in the classroom. This was evident in the interviews and observations. However, the reason behind this transfer difficulty did not only result from the complexity of the structure itself, but from the contextual factors stated above (c.f. 6.3.1.1.2.) beyond the control for the trainees. The difficulties in teaching marked structures compared to unmarked ones may arise from the following factors:

1. Marked structures such as clefts are not taught as often as the unmarked forms;

2. Teachers teach unmarked forms more often in their teaching career, for example, how many times a teacher teaches inversions, dangling clauses, fronting, extraposing, reduced subordinate clauses or clefts constructions is questionable;

3. Teachers normally develop more strategies for teaching unmarked forms rather than marked forms;

4. The complexity of the word orders always requires a focus on the functional and contextual aspects of marked forms, which teachers do not typically adopt;

5. Teachers find fewer materials for teaching marked forms than they can about unmarked forms. Therefore, they need to generate materials that prioritize the functional aspects of such language use, which could pose cognitive overload and take up time, which they would normally be spending on other aspects of teaching;

6. Teaching marked forms calls for more preparation, carefully designed materials and more time do that, while also requiring different processing of knowledge by learners;

7. The complexity of the structure creates cognitive overload both for the learners and the teachers;

8. While the functions of unmarked forms can be relatively easily induced by the learners when encountered in the context, it may be hard to do the same with marked structures. The reason behind the use of the non-canonical word order is to perform a pragmatic function, which is focusing or emphasizing. More specifically, clefts convey two sub-functions; contrasting with the previously mentioned information, and highlighting the new information for the purpose of intensification of the given information in the text or dialogue.

Apart from the possible instruction-constraining factors enlisted above, it is also important to note that the structural and pragmatic markedness degree of the cleft constructions posed difficulty to a varying extent. It was clearly observed in the pre-training lessons that the difficulty posed by the pragmatic markedness was the major reason why the trainees failed to teach the functional and discoursal principles of cleft constructions, though they put a considerable amount of effort to teach the structure of clefts with a variety of transformational and mechanical exercises without any consideration of meaning and functions in context. The main reason for this gap can be assumed to be the pragmatic markedness posed by such context-bound structures. The instructional and pedagogical change in the post- and delayed post- training observations can be accounted for by the increased understanding of the pragmatic aspects of cleft constructions along with the structural aspects. All four of the trainees used in their post-training courses functional and contextual materials compared to decontextualized structural exercises devoid of language use focus. Teaching pragmatically marked structures seems to be relatively more difficult and more complex for teachers than teaching structurally marked constructions.

During the pre-training observations, I observed that the four trainees displayed a lack of knowledge about cleft constructions as well as pedagogically appropriate instruction. Almost all of the four trainees taught clefts constructions in explicit ways that promote structural knowledge with a strong focus on form through mechanical, transformational and sentence-based activities without addressing the functional principles of language use. This showed that trainees typically have instructional weaknesses to teach such marked structures which are constructed through non-canonical word orders, such as those other than SVO and which are not

taught as often as other canonical word order structures conforming to SVO. On the other hand, such a heavier focus on the formal aspect of language knowledge in the pre-training observed lesson resonates with Bardovi-Harlig (1997, p.686), who suggests that pragmatic competence develops independent of grammatical competence because even high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee the same levels of pragmatic competence. It was seen before the training that the trainees practiced the structural aspect of focus constructions with mechanical exercises but did not focus on the pragmatic aspects of them. This clearly demonstrates that the high level grammatical competence did not lead to successful integration of the functional and pragmatic aspects of the forms into their grammar teaching instruction. Therefore, the training also filled this gap in teacher knowledge by highlighting the functional and contextual aspects of language use regarding cleft focus constructions. It is therefore suggested that the in-service teacher trainings should allow the trainees to be able to understand the functional aspects and contextual meanings of grammatical forms.

During the training, the linguistic and functional characteristics of these marked structures, particularly cleft constructions, were implicitly highlighted in a way that may inspire the trainees to learn pedagogical aspects of teaching focus constructions with cleft structures. This training methodology and content can be justified with reference to Blyth (2000), and Callies and Keller (2006) who agree that non-canonical word order constructions are best taught in terms of their functions in discourse. It seems that implicit demonstration of functional aspects of such constructions had the most impact on their instruction of clefts in their classroom. The trainees implemented and integrated several activities and exercises that

highlighted pragmatic aspects of knowledge about clefts as marked structures by addressing information structure of English. However, considering that information principle in English and forms and functions of cleft constructions are problematic even for advanced learners (Callies, 2009), it is not surprising to find that teachers have had difficulty in covering those pragmatic aspects during their instruction in the classroom. In the post-training observations of their lessons, though trained for several functional aspects of the focus constructions, two of the trainees failed to teach intensification function of cleft construction in a discourse-based methodology, whereas all of them highlighted the contrastive function of clefts through dialogues, which could stem from the relatively more common use of such functions in conversations. It seems logical to suggest that the sample exercises and activities need to be explicitly used in the training even if no explicit prescription of how to teach is provided. The current training functioned as an implicit model for teachers to follow in their classroom, which was evidently observed several times.

Learners' acquisition of marked structures in English such as cleft constructions is found to be problematic. This is the case even for advanced learners who are assumed to have adequate grammatical competence for those structures. Callies (2009) defines advanced learners in his study as having only limited awareness and knowledge of the appropriate contextual use and functions of focusing devices. Without contextual reasons producing such word order-oriented structures will not serve any purpose. Given that learning of such structures poses difficulty on the learners, it is not surprising to find that the trainees in the study had experienced a similar difficulty. The trainees teaching cleft constructions in a way conducive to learning were observed to have pedagogical difficulties before the training was

given. It was also observed that training teachers for learning about such marked structures could facilitate the teaching of them in several ways. It was found that the training increased their knowledge of the language and helped them better interpret the structure and use it in ways that students can learn. It seemed that they had more relevant knowledge after the training. However, while teaching the clefts they were constrained not only by the contextual constraints but also by the inherent complexity of these marked structures. They felt that they had to contextualize the clefts. Otherwise, the meaning of such constructions would not be clear enough to be comprehended. Though, in teaching cleft constructions, the trainees followed several techniques such as inductive grammar teaching, discourse analysis and focus on Form instruction, which requires highlighting linguistic elements within the larger context of a meaning-based lesson for learners to attend to (Long, 1988). They managed to highlight the pragmatic functions in discourse through materials including reading passages, dialogues either student-generated or pre-designed teacher generated, and short paragraphs. It was also clear in the post training interviews that they felt the need to use such larger discourses in their courses to be able to teach functional meanings in context. It is then suggested that trainers should be exposed to sentence-beyond discourses during the training for them to understand the critical roles of the context in teaching marked structures as well as other structures.

The subject of the training, the cleft constructions, was also the subject of the lessons to be observed. This connection facilitated the transfer of the knowledge though what was taught was a marked structure. To reduce or minimize the complexity of marked constructions particularly for teaching purposes, it became

evident that it was necessary to raise trainees' language awareness in understanding the features and use of clefts constructions by highlighting the pragmatic functions in discourse or context. Such discoursal and functional approaches provided the trainees with a tool by which they could also implement in their instruction of grammar, particularly clefts constructions. The compatibility between the training content and the topic of the lesson to be observed was a facilitative component. Without any training, teaching marked structures would have posed a considerable difficulty on the trainees due to the lack of knowledge about cleft constructions as examples of marked forms. Such trainings need to expand trainees' depth of grammatical knowledge of the target structures by implicitly showing how they can be used.

It is suggested that, to train teachers to teach discourse-bound and pragmatically-oriented word order constructions, specifically designed awareness-oriented training models be prepared. Teachers without such training cannot gain insight into how those forms function and how they should be taught only by gaining experience. They also need to analyze these forms from linguistic perspective and see the implications in the classroom. Training the trainees for only clefts does not necessarily mean that the linguistic knowledge acquired and the skills developed will be confined to the teaching of those structures. It is expected that they will generalize these for marked and unmarked forms as well. The findings of the qualitative data from observations and interviews have already shown that the trainees started to interpret what they learnt in ways that could be used not only in other courses such as reading and writing but also in grammar courses where they teach other domains of grammar such as unmarked forms. They clearly explained how and why they could do this in their responses. The trainees reported that being trained to discover

how they could teach marked structures also gave them insight into how they could teach less marked structures. This resonates with what markedness theory claims regarding learners who learn the more complex structures can learn the relatively less complex ones easily. Though there is little empirical evidence arguing for the impact of training on marked structures on teaching less marked ones, one can refer to Spada & Lightbown (1999), which made assumption that learners, though not ready to learn the targeted marked structures, may improve their knowledge of such structures as well as of associated, less marked structures. This assumption about learners and learning can have implications for teachers and teaching. During the training, the cognitive process of understanding the marked structures provided the trainees with opportunities to gain new and critical insight into acquiring new knowledge and skills, which in turn facilitated their understanding of teaching less marked structures.

This implication was not in the scope of the research. Therefore, evidence for this was not provided in the training. However, this aspect of markedness theory where teachers teaching marked and unmarked forms can be a subject of a further study, which could yield a number of implications for English language teaching education and educators. More research is needed regarding how teaching marked and unmarked structures poses complexity and difficulty for teachers.

Suggestions for further research

The study brought with it several limitations. As the sample size was small, it is questionable how much the findings can be generalized. Therefore the first

suggestion is that similar studies with more cases and in different context be carried out to identify various other dimensions of linguistic training and teaching practices.

In addition, the study solely focused on the trainees' development, transfer and change without any consideration of the impact on the students instructed by these trainees. Studies that also consider the relation between changed teachers' beliefs and practices and student learning can be carried out.

The context where this research was carried out was an language intensive teaching program that assigned a number of roles to the trainees which gave the trainees cognitive and physical overload, which could have significantly influenced the results of the study. In a context, where teachers are teaching reasonable number of hours, which allow them to engage in professional development activities with more engagement and commitment, different result could be obtained. Similar studies should be replicated in such less intense and trainee-supporting educational settings.

The study reported the impact of the training six months following the completion of the study. However, is six months a reasonable period for the trainees to transfer, adapt and integrate the acquired theoretical knowledge? It is clear that further studies should investigate the impact of longer terms on teachers' cognitive and practical change.

Another limitation might be that the researcher was an insider and working as a trainer during the period the training was given. He was holding a superior position

over the trainees, which might have unintentionally forced them to change and teach in a different way. This should also be considered in the interpretation of the results.

7.7. Conclusion

The research allowed the four the trainees, Müge, Merve, Elif, and Şerif to experience a training process and learn how to instruct grammar in ways that prioritize students' knowledge construction rather than being exposed to transmitted knowledge by the teacher. The positive responses provided by the trainees and innovative grammar teaching materials generated originally by the trainees and the use of contextualized and functional sentence-beyond discourses in the observed lessons enriched my beliefs that such a linguistics-based training with observational components and reflective interviews can have enormous impact on the trainees. It emerged out that such trainings with short period but with more responsibility for trainees to use the newly-discovered knowledge in lesson planning and material generation as well as material evaluation and selection from the available grammar books. It was also revealed that such research in different context might yield many other dimensions of teacher training that could support this research and add to the relevant literature a rich repertoire of experiences. Equally important, investigating impact is a much more complex and challenging task that requires a long period of time to monitor practices and a cycle of interviews that exposes changing beliefs and practices. The study concluded that knowledge-based in-service teacher trainings might play a key role in the transformation of novice teachers when supported with observations for practice and interviews for reflection. Change and development depend not only on trainees but also on the surrounding factors such as the institutional policies of working conditions. The study identified important

institutional and contextual barriers to some possible positive impact of in-service teacher training. The themes and factors that emerged in this research will hopefully encourage other trainers to investigate different methodologies of teacher training and consider seriously the contextual factors identified in this study.

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APPENDIX A
CONSENT FORM

The title of the study: The impact of in-service teacher training: A case study of four novice teachers' beliefs and classroom practices

The researcher: Kenan Dikilitaş

Information:

Dear Colleagues, as part of the professional development you have been observed in your classrooms while teaching grammar. As a result of the post-observation discussions with you, it turned out that there is need for some kind of in-service training to help you equip yourself with more effective grammar teaching methods and approaches. Based on this agreement on the emerging need, I have designed a training that will help you improve your instruction of grammar. You will also be participating in my PhD research and provide necessary qualitative data for me to use in the dissertation. The study will not only contribute to your professional development in a specific grammar domain but also to the professional development office in your institution.

If you have further information about the study, you may contact me directly in my office.

I have read and understood the objectives of the study. By signing this form, I agree to participate in the research.

Trainee's signature   Date

APPENDIX B
Belief Interview Questions

The belief interview questions were adapted from Andrews (1994). The items below were chosen from the original questionnaire containing sixty statements of belief about language and language learning. Only those that were directly relevant to grammar teaching were selected for the purpose of the research.

The instruction: Please comment on each statement regarding grammar teaching practices.

1. Teachers should always explain grammatical rules to learners
2. Teachers should begin teaching a new grammar point by giving examples
3. New grammar points should be presented and practiced in situations
4. Teachers should focus on structure and form, rather than meaning
5. Teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves
6. Teachers should always drill new grammar structures
7. Teachers should give sentence-based exercises.
8. Grammar explanation should be avoided by the teacher
9. The basic unit for teaching and language practice should be the sentence
10. Mechanical drilling is of no value in language teaching.

APPENDIX C

Interview Questions after the training

Please answer the following questions regarding the training you have attended.

1. What did you think when I invited you to the training?
2. What were your expectations and feelings then?
3. How did the content of the training impact on your teaching grammar subjects other than clefts?
4. Can you give specific examples of classroom practices?
5. How did you interpret the knowledge you have constructed from the training?
6. How did this training affect your personal understanding of approaches to language teaching?
7. How did it influence your understanding of methodology that you already have?
8. Now you teach grammar in the program, you encounter exercises. How do you evaluate the exercises in these books?
9. As you know, in this training we focused on the subject matter of the target structures. What do you think of such subject matter-based trainings?
10. How you feel now in grammar lessons?
11. How would you put the knowledge here into practice? Do you think you could do?
12. Would you like to attend similar theory-based, linguistic-oriented, theory-application-based seminars in the future? Why or Why not

APPENDIX D

Interview Questions six months after the training

Dear colleagues,

Please read the following questions and try to comprehensively write your answers so that you can insightfully discuss your ideas during the interview next week.

1. The materials you used in this third teaching practice are remarkably different from the ones you have used in the first lesson? What was the reason for this shift?
2. So far you have taught different clefts structures three times before, right after and 7-month after the training? How did you prepare for each of them?
   Can you please tell me the changes in you that you have monitored since the first observation I made? How have you changed?
3. What was your criterion in choosing the changed materials? What led you to make changes in shifting your materials?
4. You have attended the training, created materials, observed, prepared lesson plans, done individual learning at home and experienced important changes in your lessons. What about the unobserved lessons? Do you instruct similarly?
5. To what extent do you apply what you have learnt from the training in unobserved lessons?
6. How did the training influence your knowledge and understanding of grammar teaching?
7. The training contained syntactic knowledge mostly, what is the direct effect of this type of linguistic training on your grammar teaching?
8. What have you done since the second observation regarding the clefts till the third teaching practice?
9. What are the short and long-term impacts of the training on you?

APPENDIX E

Sample Coding of Şerif's analysis of post-training interview

Pre-coding	Sub-themes	Major Themes	
"I saw it as an opportunity because I attended a training which otherwise I would have to pay for".	Positive Attitudes	Affective factors	Theme 1
"I had a tight schedule and the training took me a lot of time to prepare".	Negative Attitudes		
"I find such trainings very useful because we are all learners more than we are teachers".	Motivation		
"I see this training very academic and believe that similar ones will improve my teaching. I thought it will be useful for me. I also thought that I was going to learn a new grammar teaching methodology".	Expectation		
Such a scientific training helped me deepen my knowledge about grammatical structures and then lead me to searching ways of using them in the classroom	Learning subject matter	Cognitive processes	Theme 2
I realized that I need to try other ways of grammar teaching because my teaching was based on improving grammar rules, not their skills to use grammar.	Awareness raising		
…. in the future I will use context-based materials and write materials myself using the source in the internet because I think we need to give them opportunities to see the forms in use. Sentences without context may not help them learn effectively.	Developmental proactive thinking		
When students learn rules separated from where they are used, they cannot learn them properly. When clefts are used in a context as in a text I use in the lesson, I can highlight the structure and ask them to talk about the meaning and functions. Teaching grammar using context can create a more effective grammar lesson	Contextualized grammar teaching	Personal theorization	Theme 3
We need to modify the materials that teach forms only and create exercises that make students think rather than do automatic exercises as in mechanical drills. This could be more effective.	Contextualized materials		
When it is in context I am sure they will learn better. They can better learn both the form and use Now it is clear to me that using context could be very useful for the students to learn grammar. I think through contextualized grammar their learning will be long term	Student learning		

There are many changes in my grammar teaching. Now I use context in situations through role plays. I now ask students to talk about the meaning and functions of the forms they are learning. I started to lead students to discover rules rather than giving them myself.	Grammar Teaching Methodology	Alteration in teaching approach	Theme 4
Before the training, I had not thought of using context in grammar teaching. Since I learnt how important the context is, I now realize that the exercises we are provided in the books are inadequate because they are sentence-based and focus on the structure rather than meaning and use.	Material Evaluation		
I try to select less structure-based activities while increasing the use but more communicative activities. I now prefer activities that contain conversations.	Material selection		
Before the training I took the ready materials and went to the classroom. Now I spend some time to prepare some contextualized materials.	Material generation		
After the training, I asked the students to deal with the sentences and texts to understand the grammar topic. While teaching *should have* and *shouldn't have* I did not give the rules. I used a text between a child and his aunt. The child did not visit his aunt who was ill. *Should have* was used in such a context and nearly all students could have inferred the functions of the form. After that I asked the students to form groups of three and asked them create similar dialogues.	Using new knowledge in grammar lessons	Integration and transfer of new linguistic knowledge	Theme 5
I try to include similar activities into other courses. After the training, I tried to use what I learnt in the training. For example, in my writing lesson, I encouraged students to use clefts in their compare-contrast essay.	Implementing new knowledge in other courses		

APPENDIX F

Sample interview transcript with Elif.

Post Training Interview Questions	Elif's responses
1. The first question about the training is: What did you think when I invited you to the training?	First, just in the beginning of the training I realized that I did not know about clefts, so I was happy to learn something new here. I was concerned about our intensive schedule I was supposed to maintain, but we finished everything It was very useful.
2. What were your expectations and feelings then?	I expected to integrate linguistic knowledge I would gain into my grammar teaching and learn different ways of teaching grammar.
3. How did the content of the training impact on your teaching grammar subjects other than clefts?	I developed ideas about how to teach clefts. I thought of contextual teaching using dialogues, which could be useful. In addition, in my lessons, if there is no context, I want my students to create situations. For example, I grouped my students and asked them to use more than one tense in situation they created. I asked them to talk as well. They developed awareness because they wrote situations and their friends role-played it. They used what they learnt better. I started to teach grammar much more in context and dialogues.
4. You mentioned some change in your instruction. You said you used context. Can you give specific examples of classroom practices?	During the training, I developed my knowledge of emphasis in texts and developed ways of how to better explain this to students. I also developed ideas about how to teach cleft constructions. I started to use fill-in-the blanks less than contextual exercises.
5. How did you interpret the knowledge you have constructed from the training?	I thought how I could integrate it into my lesson. When I learnt that in English the information structure goes with Old to New information, I analyzed a text when I went home and I saw that this was almost always true. Then I started to use this information in reading lessons to teach them the flow of information in a text. I also tried to teach coherence and cohesion in writing courses a few times. I can also use what I learn in writing lessons. For example, how and where to use pronouns as old information. In vocabulary, I can show the context for vocabulary rather than giving the meaning only.
6. How did this training affect your personal understanding of approaches to language teaching?	I have realized that I should not teach piece by piece but rather as a whole in context and that I need to modify some parts and add more approaches to it. I started to think that we need to give the sentence structure in context because students should know the contextual information about the target structure. Therefore, I started to teach grammar much more in context and dialogues. The same sentence can be interpreted differently in two different contexts. For example, in grammar, advice or permissions can have different forms when the speakers and listeners are teacher and students. Both can be formal or informal. Writing the structural rules of grammar on the board may not be so useful, but if they use these structures in meaningful contexts, they learn better. I now select contextual materials. on the other hand, I used to teach grammar based on rule and sentences more often, but now I think of teaching the functions such as intensification and contrast of clefts.

7.	How did it influence your understanding of methodology that you already have? Did it affect your lesson preparation?	I reconsider the methodology I use. I realized that I need to modify some parts and add more approaches in it. I try to include in my plan exercises that focus on meanings of forms. I think I should minimize structure-based activities by giving fewer fill-in-blanks exercises. I think of contextual teaching by using dialogues, which will be useful. I want to put more communicative activities including conversations and I can give more exercises for teaching functions and meanings of forms in situations or contexts. I try to write exercise that focus on functions and meanings of forms in situations or context.
8.	Now you teach grammar in the program, you encounter exercises. How do you evaluate the exercises in books? Should I do it or what they can learn from such an activity?	I now prefer activities that contain conversations. I do fewer fill in the blank. I try to use more exercises that may focus on functions and meanings of forms in situations or context. If I can use contextualized materials such as using dialogues in teaching grammar, this could be more useful than using materials based on sentences.
9.	As you know, in this training we focused on the subject matter of the target structures. What do you think of such subject matter-based trainings?	I liked it because the practical part was very useful. We had a chance to learn theory and combine it with practice.
10.	How you feel now in grammar lessons?	I feel more confident. There is considerable difference between the first and next cleft teaching. When I first investigated clefts, I had many question marks. I taught grammar based on rule and sentences. Now I think of teaching the functions such as intensification and contrast. I mostly gave trivial grammatical rules like subject verb agreement. I was dealing with such grammatical details rather than production of these structures. My goal was to teach them rules.
11.	How would you put the knowledge here into practice? Do you think you could do?	After the training while I was teaching modals, I asked the students to create dialogues about real situations for the actual time. I asked them to tell me the function of "Can I..?. I asked them to tell me how they can ask for permission from me to do what they want.
12.	Would you like to attend similar theory-based, linguistic-oriented, theory-application-based seminars in the future? Why or Why not	Yes, but I want practice-based training rather than theory-based, which could be more useful. Though we did both theory and practice-based, I liked the practical sides more. We need to learn subject matter, but should be followed by practice. First, theory then practice about it.