

**Pre-service and In-service
Teachers' Beliefs Concerning
Language and Language Learning**

(MA Thesis)

**Özlem ERDEM
ÇOMÜ: BAP- 2008/3
2009**

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' BELIEFS CONCERNING
LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING**

MA THESIS

Supervisor

Asst. Prof. Dr. Ece ZEHİR TOPKAYA

Submitted by

Özlem ERDEM

**Bu proje Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi
Bilimsel Araştırmalar Projesi Kapsamında Desteklenmiştir.**

Proje No: 2008/3

ÇANAKKALE , 2009

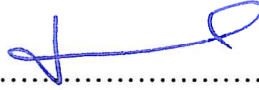
TAAHHÜTNAME

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “Pre-service and In-service Teachers’ Beliefs Concerning Language and Language Learning” adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

22/07/2009

Özlem ERDEM


Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne
Özlem ERDEM'e ait
'Pre-service and In-service Teachers' Beliefs Concerning
Language and Language Learning
adlı çalışma, jürimiz tarafından
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programında
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.



Üye: Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL



Üye: Yrd. Doc. Dr. Ece Zehir TOPKAYA



Üye: Yrd. Doc. Dr. Çavuş ŞAHİN

Tez No : 347316
Tez Savunma Tarihi: 22.07.2009

ONAY

.....
Doç. Dr. Yücel ACER
Enstitü Müdürü
.../.../2009

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the present study was to find out the beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers regarding language and language learning. Besides describing these beliefs, the influence of some variables such as gender, graduation, teaching experience, and socioeconomic status was questioned.

The study was carried out with two sample groups; the first group included 68 in-service teachers who work in the city centre of Çanakkale and the second one included 293 pre-service teachers at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, English Language Teaching Programme. A quantitative research methodology was followed and a descriptive survey study was conducted. The research tool was a self-report questionnaire which was adapted and developed by the researcher using existing scales, primarily BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory).

The data gathered from the participants were analysed statistically with the help of SPSS 17.00 (Statistical Package for Social Studies) and evaluated in the light of the research questions. For the analysis, Descriptive statistics, Independent Samples T-Tests, Analyses of Variance Tests (ANOVA), and Post-Hoc Tukey's Tests were done.

The results revealed that both pre-service and in-service teachers hold strong beliefs about language and language learning. Additionally, some significant changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs were identified in relations to independent variables, namely gender, grade, and high school graduation which may indicate that individual differences, pedagogical and subject area teaching knowledge, and personal learning experiences have an influence on beliefs. No significant differences were found in the beliefs of the in-service teacher sample, except gender. The findings here point out that the in-service teachers' beliefs stay stable and become resistant to change throughout their professional life since they do not differ according to the variables

such as teaching experience, faculty graduation and school type they currently work in. When the pre- and in-service language teachers' beliefs were compared, the only significant difference was found in the factor related to self-efficacy. This may indicate that teachers' beliefs evolve mainly during pre-service teaching education and teachers start their career with certain set of beliefs which are resistant to change.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı öğretmen ve aday öğretmenlerin dil ve dil öğretimine yönelik inançlarını ortaya koymaktır. Bu inançları betimlemenin yanı sıra, cinsiyet, mezuniyet, öğretim deneyimi ve sosyoekonomik statü gibi bazı değişkenlerin etkisi de araştırılmıştır.

Çalışma iki örneklem grubu üzerinde yürütülmüş, ilk grup Çanakkale il merkezinde çalışmakta olan öğretmenleri kapsayıp, ikinci grup Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi bölümünde okuyan öğrencilerle oluşturulmuştur. Çalışmada, nicel araştırma yaklaşımı takip edilerek betimleyici tarama (survey) metodu kullanılmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak araştırmacının var olan ölçeklerden faydalanarak geliştirdiği bir self-report anket tercih edilmiştir.

Katılımcılardan elde edilen bulgular SPSS 17.00 (Statistical Package for Social Studies) programı yardımıyla istatistikî olarak analiz edilmiş ve araştırma soruları ışığında değerlendirilmiştir. Analiz için Betimleyici İstatistik, Bağımsız Gruplar T-Testleri, Varyans Analizi (ANOVA), Post-Hoc Tukey's Testleri uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular öğretmen ve aday öğretmenlerin dil ve dil öğrenmeye yönelik oldukça güçlü inançlara sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, aday öğretmenlerin inançlarında cinsiyet, sınıf ve lise mezuniyeti gibi bağımsız değişkenlere bağlı bazı farklılıklar saptanmıştır ki bu durum bireysel farklılıkların, pedagojik ve alan öğretim bilgisi ve öğrenmeyle ilgili kişisel deneyimlerin inançlar üzerinde etkili olabileceğini göstermektedir. Meslekteki öğretmenlerin inançlarında cinsiyet dışında hiçbir anlamlı fark bulunamamıştır. Öğretmenlerin inançları, deneyimleri, fakülte mezuniyetleri ve çalıştıkları okul

tipi gibi deęişkenlere baęlı olarak deęişmedięi için, bu konudaki bulgular öğretmenlerin inançlarının mesleki yaşamları süresince duraęan kaldıęını ve deęişime dirençli hale geldiklerine işaret etmektedir. Aday ve meslekteki öğretmenlerin inançları karşılaştırıldığında ise, istatistikî olarak tek anlamlı farklılık öz-yeterlikle ilgili faktörde ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu durum öğretmen inançlardaki dönüşümün özellikle öğretmen yetiştirme programı süresince gerçekleştiğini; öğretmenlerin deęişmesi zor bir takım inançlarla mesleęe başladıklarını göstermektedir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express special thanks to my supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Ece ZEHİR TOPKAYA who always guided and encouraged me with her endless patience throughout this study. I owe so much to her for her invaluable advice, suggestions and support. I could have never completed this thesis without her.

I am also grateful to Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL, Asst. Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN and Asst. Prof. Dr. Cevdet YILMAZ who inspired me with their wisdom during the master courses and to Asst. Prof. Dr. Aysun YAVUZ for her expert ideas and comments during the modification of the instrument of the study.

Finally I would also thank to the pre-service and in-service teachers who eagerly participated in the study.

TO

My parents; AYTEN and ABDULKADİR

My husband; MURAT

and

My dear son UMUT EKİN

FOR THEIR ENDLESS SUPPORT AND LOVE

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title	i
Abstract	iii
Özet	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Dedication	vii
Table of contents	x
Abbreviations	xi
List of figures	xiii
List of tables	
CHAPTER ONE	
INTRODUCTION	
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the study	1
1.2 Purpose of the study and the research questions	5
1.3 Significance of the study	6
1.4 Limitations of the study	6
1.5 Assumptions of the study	7
1.6 Organization of the thesis	7
1.7 Chapter Summary	8
CHAPTER TWO	
LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.0 Introduction	9
2.1 Teacher cognition and teacher beliefs	9
2.1.1 Beliefs and related terms	11
2.1.2 Sources of beliefs	15
2.2. Impact of teacher beliefs	18
2.2.1 Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice	20
2.2.2 Relationship between learner and teacher beliefs	23
2.3 Belief change	25
2.3.1 Pre-service teacher education and beliefs	28
2.3.2 In-service teacher development and beliefs	31
2.4 Studies on teacher beliefs	35
2.5 Chapter summary	45
CHAPTER THREE	
METHODOLOGY	
3.0 Introduction	46
3.1 Purpose of the study and research questions	46
3.2 Rationale for the study	47
3.3 Pilot study	49
3.3.1 Subjects and setting	50
3.3.2 Instruments and procedure	50
3.3.3 Analysis	56

3.3.4 Findings	57
3.3.4.1 Findings of in-service teacher sample	57
3.3.4.2 Findings of pre-service teacher sample	58
3.3.4.3 Reliability of the instruments	60
3.3.5 Implications for the main study	61
3.4 Main study	61
3.4.1 Subjects and setting	61
3.4.1.1 The in-service teacher sample	62
3.4.1.2 The- pre-service teacher sample	63
3.4.2 Instruments and procedure	64
3.4.3 Procedures for data analyses	65
3.5 Chapter Summary	65

CHAPTER IV FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction	66
4.1 Findings and discussion of the main study	66
4.1.1 RQ 1: What are the beliefs of pre-service teachers related to language and language learning?	67
4.1.2 RQ 2: Is there a relationship between the beliefs of pre-service teachers in regard to learning and language learning and gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic background?	77
4.1.3 RQ 3: What are the beliefs of in-service teachers related to language and language learning?	95
4.1.4 RQ 4: Is there a relationship between the beliefs of in-service teachers in regard to learning and language learning and gender, graduation and teaching experience?	103
4.1.5 RQ 5: Is there a significant difference between pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs in regard to learning and language learning?	110
4.2 Chapter summary	111

CHAPTER FIVE CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Introduction	112
5.1 Conclusions	112
5.1.1 Conclusions for pre-service teachers	112
5.1.2 Conclusions for in-service teachers	114
5.1.3 Conclusions with regard to differences between pre- and in-service teachers' beliefs	114
5.2 Implications	115
5.2.1 Implications for pre-service teacher education	115
5.2.2 Implications for in-service teacher education	115
5.3 Suggestions for further research	116
5.4 Chapter Summary	116

REFERENCES	117
-------------------	-----

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (1988 version)	134
Appendix B: BALLI (original in- service teacher version)	136
Appendix C: BALLI (in-service teacher version in English)	138
Appendix D: BALLI (original pre-service teacher version)	140
Appendix E: BALLI (pre-service teacher version in English)	142
Appendix F: Demographic scale for in-service teachers (original version)	144
Appendix G: Demographic scale for in-service teachers (English version)	145
Appendix H: Demographic scale for pre-service teachers (original version)	146
Appendix I: Demographic scale for pre-service teachers (English version)	147
Appendix J: Socioeconomic Status Inventory (original version)	148
Appendix K: Socioeconomic Status Inventory (English version)	150

ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA : Analysis of Variance

BALLI : Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory

COMU : Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ESL : English as a Second Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

PTPCETS: Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers Survey

RQ : Research Question

SPSS : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

WTSEB : Witcher-Travers Survey of Educational Beliefs

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Changed versions of the items 17 and 33	52
Figure 2: Changed versions of the items 13 and 25	53
Figure 3: Changed version of the item 5	53
Figure 4: Changed versions of the items 26 and 29	54
Figure 5: Changed versions of the items 11, 17 and 22	54
Figure 6: Pre and in-service teacher versions of the items 5, 26, 29 and 33	55

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Profile of the in-service participants in the pilot study	57
Table 2: Profile of the pre-service participants in the pilot study	59
Table 3: Alpha values of the instrument	60
Table 4: Profile of the in-service participants in the main study	62
Table 5: Profile of the pre-service participants in the main study	64
Table 6: Mean scores for each factor	67
Table 7: Descriptive statistics of self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers	69
Table 8: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and communication strategies	70
Table 9: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding foreign language aptitude	71
Table 10: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding language teacher roles	72
Table 11: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding nature of language learning	74
Table 12: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning	75
Table 13: Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning	75
Table 14: Pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language teaching	76
Table 15: Pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of the language they are going to teach	76
Table 16: Results of Independent Samples T-test on gender differences in regard to different belief factors	78
Table 17: Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning self-efficacy in relation to gender difference	79
Table 18a. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to gender difference (Items 3, 23 and 27)	80
Table 18b. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to gender difference (Items 32 and 33)	81
Table 19: Differences in factors in relation to grade	82
Table 20: One-way ANOVA analysis results according to grade	83
Table 21a. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to grade difference (Items 3, 23 and 27)	84
Table 21b. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to grade difference (Items 32 and 33)	85
Table 22. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning nature of language learning in relation to grade difference	87
Table 23. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning learning and communication strategies in relation to grade difference	88
Table 24. Differences in factors in relation to high school graduation	89

Table 25. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to high school graduation	91
Table 26. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning nature of language learning in relation to high school graduation	93
Table 27. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to the socioeconomic status of the pre-service teachers	94
Table 28. Mean scores for each factor	95
Table 29. Descriptive statistics of self-efficacy beliefs of in-service teachers	96
Table 30. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and communication strategies	97
Table 31. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding foreign language aptitude	98
Table 32. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding language teacher roles	99
Table 33. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding nature of language learning	101
Table 34a. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning (items 32 and 33)	102
Table 34b. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning (items 3, 23 and 27)	102
Table 35. Results of Independent Samples T-test on gender differences in regard to different belief factors	103
Table 36. In-service teachers' beliefs concerning foreign language aptitude in relation to gender difference	105
Table 37. In-service teachers' beliefs concerning learning and communication strategies in relation to gender difference	106
Table 38. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to faculty graduation	107
Table 39. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to teaching experience	108
Table 40. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to the school types the participants currently work in	109
Table 41. Results of Independent Samples T-test on pre-service – in-service teachers' belief differences in regard to different belief factors	110
Table 42. Teachers' beliefs concerning self-efficacy in relation to group difference	111

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with some information about the background of the study. Then the purpose of the study and the research questions are described and the significance, limitations and assumptions of the study are presented. The chapter ends with the organisation of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the study

Beliefs are thought to be one of the most effective indicators of individuals' decisions, choices and behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Pajares 1992; Borg 2001; Deryakulu 2004). For this reason, many disciplines such as sociology, social psychology, anthropology, philosophy, and educational sciences have showed interest in beliefs.

Although there are a variety of definitions, there seems to be an expansion of the term through the years as they centre on similar notions. For example, Borg (2001) states that "a belief is a proposition which is consciously or unconsciously held and accepted as true by the individual". According to Yero (2002) beliefs are "judgments and evaluations that we make about ourselves, about others, and about the world around us". Similarly, Richardson (2003) defines beliefs as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world around us". Another definition is that a belief is an understanding held by individual that guides individual's

intentions for action (Hancock and Gallard 2004). In this study, beliefs are accepted as generalizations on events and things which have their roots in experiences and knowledge, and guide individuals' decisions and actions.

However, when the related literature is reviewed, it is seen that there is a conceptual confusion over the terms beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, facts and dispositions. The relationship and distinction of these concepts have led arguments among the researchers (Borg 2003). Due to the definitional problems, poor conceptualizations and differing understandings of the concept (Pajares 1992), defining and eliciting beliefs have been found problematic. The confusion generally centres on the distinction between 'belief' and 'knowledge' (Pajares 1992). While some experts use these terms interchangeably (Rokeach 1965; Alexander, Schallert ve Hare 1991; Nisbet and Ross 1991 cited in Deryakulu 2004; Hativa et al. 2001; Kagan 1990 cited in Richardson 2003) the others emphasize the distinction strongly (Abelson 1979 cited in Woods 1996: 72; Richardson 2003; Deryakulu 2004).

With regard to teachers' belief formation, three major sources are offered; 1) experience with schooling and instruction, 2) experience with formal knowledge - both school subjects and pedagogical knowledge and 3) personal experience (Richardson 2003:5). The first one deals with the fact that individuals spend thousands of hours observing their teachers and developing beliefs about learning and teaching subconsciously. This *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie 1975 cited in Bailey et al 1996) has been found influential on teachers' beliefs. The second source mentioned above refers to teachers' personal learning experiences, as they develop several beliefs about learning and particularly learning the subject matter they currently teach. The last one, teachers' personal experience, consists of several sources such as teaching experiences, student feedback, trial and errors, and interaction with the colleagues which lead them to form and/or reform beliefs concerning learning and teaching (Richards et al. 2001; Sato and Kleinsasser 2004; Arıoğul 2007).

There are several studies in educational literature which attempt to find out the effective variables on teacher beliefs. According to Borg (2003) context has considerable influence on teacher cognition. As members of the society, teachers are inevitably affected by the characteristics of the context in which they have grown up

and/or work. Experience also has been examined as a variable by various researchers (Crookes and Arakaki 1999 cited in Borg 2003; Watzke 2007; Muchmore 2001; Richards et al. 2001). For instance, Crookes and Arakaki (1999) found that accumulated teaching experience was the source cited most often by the teachers in their study. Similarly, the findings of the study held by Richards et al. (1999) show that there is a considerable difference between the beliefs of novice and expert teachers. Individual differences such as gender, self-efficacy, cultural background, personality, age and motivation have also been questioned in order to explain the variation in beliefs (Fukami 2005; Tercanlioglu 2005; Liab 2006; Bernat and Lloyd 2007; Cheung and Wong 2002; Snider and Roehl 2007). Most of these studies have reported significant relationship between participants' beliefs and these variables.

In brief, while interpreting teacher beliefs, teacher's personal/ cognitive characteristics, socio-cultural background, experiences with schooling and instruction, experiences with formal teacher preparation programme, teaching experiences, knowledge and experiences gained from in-service teacher education programmes should be taken into consideration.

What makes beliefs so important is their impact on individuals' decisions and behaviour. With regard to teacher beliefs, there are a number of reasons for investigation. First of all, teachers undertake the responsibility of planning, practice and evaluation in teaching process and it is inevitable for them to be influenced by their beliefs. It is claimed that teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge play an important role in how s/he interprets events related to teaching (Woods 2006). Furthermore beliefs, understandings and expectations usually determine the classroom practice as they influence teachers in their choices of approaches, methods, techniques, activities and materials (Woods 1996; Cohen and Fass 2001; Davis 2003; Yero 2002; Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006; Bai and Ertmer 2004). It is also claimed that the quality and quantity of teaching strategies they use in their classrooms are determined by teachers' epistemological beliefs (Deryakulu 2004). Moreover, beliefs have effects on pre-service and in-service teacher development since they influence the acceptance of new methods, techniques and activities (Chan 1999; Velez-Rendon 2002; Donaghue 2003; Mattheoudakis 2007; Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006). To conclude, it is possible to say that beliefs have a crucial effect on teachers' decisions and practice in all stages of teaching.

Whether beliefs change or not has been another issue of debate. Although they are thought to be deeply-rooted psychological constructs which are difficult to change (Pajares 1992), several researchers have reported significant changes in teacher beliefs owing to various sources, such as pre-service teacher education programmes, staff development courses, seminars, conferences, networking, collaboration, new curriculum, trial and error, student feedback (Peterman 1991; Harrington and Hertel 2000; Bowman et al. 1998; Ackley et al. 1999; Cohen and Fass 2001; Peacock 2001; Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld 2008).

Considering the critical role of teacher beliefs in learning and teaching process, establishing the right beliefs is a must in teacher education. Both pre-service and in-service teachers should be supported by the system as they develop reasonable and evidentiary beliefs. However, it is not possible to prevent undesirable teacher beliefs without understanding the present situation and the factors that shape them. This study might be the first step to investigate language teachers' cognition.

1.2 Purpose of the study and research questions

This study aims to find out the beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers of English concerning language and language learning. Additionally, whether there is a relationship between these beliefs and variables such as gender, graduation, experience and socioeconomic status will be sought.

Therefore, the following research questions will be under investigation;

***RQ 1:** What are the beliefs of pre-service teachers related to language and language learning?*

***RQ 2:** Is there a relationship between the beliefs of pre-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and different variables such as gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic background?*

***RQ 3:** What are the beliefs of in-service teachers related to language and language learning?*

***RQ 4:** Is there a relationship between the beliefs of in-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and different variables such as gender, graduation and teaching experience and the school type they work in?*

***RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference between pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs in regard to language and language learning?*

1.3 Significance of the study

The studies mentioned in the literature review reveal how effective the beliefs on teachers' decision-making process, classroom performance, professional development. However, none of these studies was carried out for investigating the beliefs of pre-service and in-service English teachers in the Turkish context.

Finding out and examining language teachers' beliefs in Turkey could be beneficial for several reasons. First of all, such a study might give clues to teachers' performance in language classrooms since there is a link between beliefs and actions. Furthermore, some mistaken beliefs, if there are any, could be determined and worked on both in pre-service teacher training programmes and in-service teacher development courses. This study may also shed light on the organization of in-service and pre-service English language teacher education and some conclusions could be drawn about their effectiveness. Finally, the findings of this study may serve researchers as a basis for further research regarding teacher beliefs.

1.4 Limitations of the study

This study has a number of limitations. First of all, it was carried out with the students of English Language Teaching Department in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart

University and the teachers of English who work in Çanakkale city centre. The main reason for choosing the sample group was their proximity to the researcher. For the data collected in the study is limited to the size of the sample group, the findings cannot be generalized for all pre and in-service teachers of English.

The second limitation is that the instrument was modified and reorganised by the researcher and data was collected once in 2008/2009 academic year. Time and the instrument also limit the study in many ways.

Finally, this study is one of the few studies, probably the first, in which both pre-service and in-service foreign language teachers' beliefs are compared. For this reason, the "Literature Review" of this thesis is also limited.

1.5 Assumptions of the study

This study was carried out under a number of assumptions;

First of all, all the pre-service and in-service teachers who took part in the study are assumed to participate willingly and respond all the questions in survey honestly and frankly.

The instrument used in the study included two parts; a self report questionnaire which was modified and redesigned by using existing instruments and a small scale prepared by the researcher which seeks for demographic information of the participants. Another assumption is related to the instrument that it is valid, reliable and the best choice for data collection.

1.6 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis has been organised into five chapters.

Chapter One involves the introduction and it starts with the background of the study, then it presents the purpose of the study and research questions. Additionally, significance, assumptions and limitations of the study are included.

Chapter Two establishes a theoretical framework for the study. The first part of this chapter attempts to define belief as a term in relation to its place in teacher cognition. The chapter continues with the presentation of possible belief sources and their impact on teachers' decision-making processes and classroom performance. After the discussions about the effects of pre-service and in-service teacher education on belief change, it ends with the revision of the studies done on teacher beliefs in Turkey and the world.

Chapter Three presents the methodology of the research. The design of the study and research questions are followed by the information about the pilot study. Furthermore, the main study is described by referring to the subjects and setting, instruments and procedures and data analysis.

In Chapter Four, the findings of the study are reported in detail. They are also discussed according to research questions.

Chapter Five involves the interpretations of the study. It draws some conclusions and present significant implications. It ends the thesis by giving suggestions for further research.

1.7 Chapter summary

This chapter was an introduction to the thesis. It reviewed the background of the study. The purpose of the study and the research questions were presented; the significance, limitations and assumptions of the study were highlighted. Finally, the organisation of the thesis was outlined.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The following chapter starts with the definition of the term “belief” and its place in teacher cognition. The information about sources of beliefs is followed by their impact on teacher decision-making process and classroom practice. After the discussions about the effects of teacher education and experience on change in beliefs, the chapter ends with the studies done in Turkey and the world.

2.1 Teacher cognition and teacher beliefs

Teacher thinking should be under investigation since the role of the teacher is a peripheral component of language teaching. In order to interpret language teachers’ beliefs about language and language learning it is necessary to clarify the ideas about teacher cognition.

Teacher cognition is a broad concept which includes several mental constructs such as beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, perspectives and theories. With respect to the definition of teacher cognition mainstream studies reveal a great diversity. Borg (2003) uses the term teacher cognition as the unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching-what teachers know, believe and think. In his review article 64 studies published between 1976 and 2002 were reviewed and discussed in many aspects. However, there seems to be an ambiguity on the terminology. According to Borg (2003) this could be the result of the attempts of researchers who define similar concepts in different ways.

Defining belief as a term is not easy. Current literature shows that several concepts have been used to describe it and there is yet no consensus on the definition. Beliefs disguise themselves as “attitudes, perceptions, values, judgements, axioms, opinions, ideology, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit and explicit theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, and repertoires of understanding” (Pajares 1992:309) Similarly they are defined as “suppositions, commitments, and ideologies which can be interchangeable with terms such as attitudes, opinions, ideologies, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual system, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, personal theories, and perspectives” (Calderhead 1996 cited in Chan 1999:2).

Richardson (2003) describes beliefs as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world around us”. Yero (2002) offers a similar one; beliefs are judgments and evaluations that we make about ourselves, about others, and about the world around us.

Revising the literature, Borg (2001:186) figures out some common features of the definition; the truth element, the relationship between beliefs and behaviour, conscious and unconscious beliefs and beliefs as value commitments. She concludes that “a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is Therefore, imbued with emotive commitment, further; it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour” (Borg, 2001:186). Hancock and Gallard (2004) also underline the impact of beliefs and describe belief as an understanding held by an individual that guides individual’s intentions for action.

When all these definitions are taken into consideration, it could be concluded that, belief is a generalization on events and things which have its roots in experiences and knowledge and guide individual’s decisions and actions.

2.1.1 Beliefs and related terms

As mentioned before there are several terms used instead of beliefs in the literature, such as knowledge, fact, attitude and disposition. Now each term will be studied in relation to beliefs and their similarities and differences will be displayed.

Among the others knowledge is the most discussed notion in relation to beliefs. Relationship between *beliefs* and *knowledge* appears on Fenstermacher's definition (1994 cited in Borg 2001:188) in which knowledge is accepted as "justified true beliefs". This definition shows how these two concepts are closely linked to each other and difficult to identify. However, there is a disagreement on the definition and several contradictory explanations appear on the relationship between 'belief' and 'knowledge'.

The major distinction between beliefs and knowledge is that knowledge depends on a truth condition whereas beliefs do not (Richardson 2003). Basically, knowledge refers to the facts which have been proved by the experts and accepted by everyone as they are provable and observable. They have a high degree of validity due to their objectivity. Contrarily, beliefs are personal as they are based on individual's emotions, evaluations and judgements; they refer to "individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a preposition" (Pajares 1992: 316). For this reason they should be considered as subjective elements although some of them may associate with knowledge. In addition, there is no consensus on beliefs; there might be alternative beliefs around the same issue. Thus, everybody does not have to agree on a particular belief.

Source of beliefs and knowledge is also different because knowledge is acquired by establishing relations with the knowledge which already exists whereas beliefs are shaped by the effects of personal factors such as previous experiences, cultural differences, and character (Deryakulu 2004). Belief systems are constructed with episodic (anecdotal) material and they are based on evaluation, when beliefs are

formed, states are considered as being good or bad (Woods 1996: 72). Beliefs differ from knowledge in their episodic nature. Previous episodes or events function as a filter which new information passes through before it is acquired whereas knowledge system information is semantically stored (Nespor 1987; Goodman 1988 cited in Pajares 1992).

Another difference is about the strength of beliefs as they may vary in degree; people may hold strong or weak beliefs whereas knowledge is unique and is accepted by almost everyone.

With respect to teachers' knowledge some researchers, moving from the idea that teachers' knowledge is like beliefs since both of them are subjective, have made no distinction between these two terms (Alexander, Schallert ve Hare 1991; Nisbet ve Ross 1991 cited in Deryakulu 2004; Rokeach 1965; Kagan 1990 cited in Richardson 2003, Hativa et al. 2001). However, some insist on the distinction for several reasons (Abelson 1979 cited in Woods 1996: 72; Richardson 2003; Deryakulu 2004). For example, teachers may have inappropriate or untrue beliefs despite the years they have spent preparing for their profession and this supports the idea that knowledge is not always the source for beliefs. On the other hand, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether the interpretations of the events are based on what the teacher knows, what the teacher believes, or what the teacher believes he knows (Woods 1996:194). It can be concluded that these two concepts are so entwined that it is almost impossible to pinpoint where knowledge ends and belief begins (Pajares 1992).

When the literature is reviewed lots of terms appear in relations to teachers' knowledge, such as conceptual knowledge / abstract wisdom and perceptual knowledge / practical wisdom (Johnson 1996 cited in Mattheoudakis 2007: 1273); "declarative knowledge" and "procedural knowledge" (Woods 1996; Anderson 1983). Basically teachers' knowledge could be classified in two groups; 1) declarative knowledge which consists of the subject matter knowledge and knowledge about teaching; it is "the knowledge of what", 2) procedural knowledge which consists of classroom procedures; "the knowledge of how things or systems work." (Pajares 1992) Teachers need both types of knowledge in their profession (Woods 1996: 191).

In this particular study, another definition for teacher knowledge is accepted with reference to teacher beliefs: “teachers’ practical knowledge”. It refers to the beliefs and habits that teachers acquire from experience rather than from empirically based principles and practices acquired through education and training” (Snieder and Roehl 2007). It is the knowledge of teachers which is different from formal knowledge and has been derived from experiences and reflections (Fenstermacher 1994) and is considered as teachers’ general knowledge, beliefs and thinking (Borg 2003). Teachers’ practical knowledge is thought to be personal, contextual, tacit and content related (Meijer et al. 1999 cited in Arioğul) and it includes five aspects; knowledge of self, the milieu of teaching, subject matter, curriculum development and instruction (Elbaz 1983 cited in Fives and Buehl 2008).

There is a correspondence between *knowledge* and *facts* since the term knowledge is defined as the things which are conventionally accepted facts (Woods 1996). These facts should be demonstrable or have been demonstrated before. Although *beliefs* and *facts* are seen as related concepts, there is a distinction between them. Basically, some statements, such as “The Earth is round”, are facts. There is no doubt about facts as they are statements that are part of consensus reality. Similarly, some statements used in education are facts. For example, everybody agrees that motivation is a factor which affects learning. However, some teachers believe that motivation is the most effective factor that influences learner achievement while the others offer more effective ones than motivation. In this case the teachers in the first group might spend much time and energy to motivate their students while the latter group has different priorities. Thus beliefs are questionable, personal and subjective statements and they directly influence human behaviour.

Another term *conception* is sometimes used instead of beliefs. For example Lam and Kember (2006), highlight Pratt’s definition (1992); “conceptions are specific meanings attached to phenomena which then mediate our response to situations involving those phenomena” and they conclude that conceptions of teaching are beliefs about teaching because they guide a teacher while perceiving situations and as a result shape his/her actions.

Attitude is another element in teacher cognition which has become a popular area for enquiry. Many studies have been carried to describe the attitudes teachers and learners hold towards educational issues and their impact on teaching and learning process (Krashen 1982 cited in Chastain 1988; Bai and Ertmer 2004; Karabenick and Noda 2004; Kirazlar 2007). Although it has been interchangeably used with beliefs, the distinction is obvious that attitude refers to a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object whereas beliefs represent the information he has about the object (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). The information about a particular “object” forms the beliefs and the set of such beliefs indicates the attitude towards that object (Deryakulu 2004). As a result of observations and received information from outside sources or inference processes beliefs are formed about an object, people or an event. The totality of these beliefs determines individual’s attitudes, intentions and behaviours. (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Deryakulu 2004) Thus in order to measure attitudes researchers tend to assess beliefs (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975:131). As Rokeach’s definition summarises “an attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner” (Rokeach 1965:550)

Relationship between *beliefs* and *dispositions* has also been taken into consideration by researchers studying the topic. A disposition can be defined as an attribution which summarises the trend of an individual’s actions across similar contexts (Katz and Rath 1986). Likewise, reviewing the related literature Villegas (2007) offers a similar definition: “dispositions are tendencies for individuals to act in a particular manner under particular circumstances, based on their beliefs”. She argues the place of dispositions, particularly the dispositions related to social justice, in pre-service teacher education, and concludes that dispositions should be taken into account while determining the goals of public education, the role of the teachers, teaching and learning to teach.

As seen above, there have been arguments on how beliefs are defined, how they are related to and also differ from other similar concepts, this study accepts teacher beliefs as teachers’ generalizations on the issues about their profession; in detail how they evaluate the language they teach; the language learning process and their roles in practice.

2.1.2. Sources of beliefs

Individuals' belief systems are derived from a number of different sources such as their personal experiences and information they receive throughout their lives (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Richardson 2003; Lortie 1975 cited in Bailey et al. 1996) Moreover several factors including personality, gender, age and cultural context are found influential in the process of belief formation (Cheung and Wong 2002; Tercanlioglu 2005; Bernat and Lloyd 2007).

Belief formation can be explained by describing three phases in the process. Individuals form "descriptive beliefs" about an object as a result of direct observation. Such beliefs can be considered concrete and valid since personal factors do not have an impact on them. Some beliefs are formed on the basis of the information provided from outside sources such as books, media, lecturers and co-workers. These beliefs are called "informational beliefs" and they usually lead to the formation of descriptive beliefs. Individuals generally produce inferences about qualities of an object by corresponding prior descriptive beliefs. In other words, descriptive beliefs serve as a basis for "inferential beliefs" which go beyond directly observable events (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975).

With respect to teacher beliefs, three major sources are suggested; 1) experience with schooling and instruction, 2) experience with formal knowledge - both school subjects and pedagogical knowledge and 3) personal experience (Richardson 2003:5)

From primary school to university graduation, individuals spend thousands of hours observing their teachers. Due to this observation, they develop several beliefs about teaching including what teaching is, what it consists of and how teachers behave in the classroom. When it is considered that today's language teacher was a student once, the influence of this "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie 1975 cited in Bailey et al.) becomes evident. In other words, teachers inevitably internalize their teachers' behaviour. Learning experiences of teachers as language learners influence them as language teachers; their judgements about language teaching process are mostly

constructed in school years. Therefore, the apprenticeship of observation has a significant influence on the way they teach (Bailey et al. 1996).

Besides the influence of past teachers, language teachers' experiences as language learners are one of the most significant sources for their present beliefs. By the time they become teachers, they develop conceptions about the content of language and language learning process. They all have experienced how a language is learnt and their teaching generally shows correspondences with the beliefs they have formed previously.

Teachers not only develop beliefs as learners, but also go on forming and sometimes reforming beliefs in their teaching career. It is mainly based on the episodic nature of beliefs. It begins with the initial teaching experiences, particularly university practicum experience (Sato and Kleinsasser 2004) and continues with the professional coursework in in-service education (Arıoğul 2007). Furthermore student feedback, trial and errors, and collaboration are effective sources for formation of new beliefs (Richards et al. 2001).

As mentioned before, beliefs are personal psychological constructs. For this reason individual differences have been taken into account as variables for belief formation. For instance, some studies have focused on gender, personality, self-efficacy, cultural background, age, and motivation as an explanation for variation in beliefs (Tercanlioglu 2005; Liab 2006; Bernat and Lloyd 2007; Cheung and Wong 2002; Snider and Roehl 2007) and in most cases some significant differences have been found between these variables and beliefs.

Gender especially is assumed to be the most effective variable but results emerged from studies show inconsistency. While some studies report no difference (Cheung and Wong 2002; Tercanlioglu 2005; Bernat and Lloyd 2007) some revealed significant differences. For example, in a study (Peacock 1999) the correlation between tested and self-rated proficiency showed that females were more skilled and more honest than the males. Similarly, Siebert (2003 cited in Bernat 2006; 2007) reports gender differences in learner beliefs. It is reported that the difference mainly appears in their assessments of beliefs related to ability; the male students tend to rate their abilities higher than the

females and more strongly believed that they have a special ability for language learning and they were more optimistic than the females about the length of time needed for leaning a language.

Additionally, the social and institutional contexts the teachers work in, “culture of teaching”, has an effect on their goals, values and beliefs (Richards and Lockhart 1996). There is an entwined relationship between language teacher’s beliefs concerning teaching, students and working environment and the social / cultural contexts they have faced as learners and teachers (Fukami 2005). Similar conclusions have been reached for pre-service teachers’ beliefs. For instance, Yang (2000) investigated beliefs of Taiwanese student teachers about language learning and teaching and compared the findings with two other studies (Horwitz 1985 and Kern 1995) held in the USA. The results showed that American and Taiwanese student teachers do not hold similar beliefs about the same issues, especially difficulty of the language, teaching culture, and error correction.

To summarise, various sources are influential in formation of beliefs and most of these sources have been a focus for educational research. In this thesis, demographic information about the participants will also be assessed in relation to Turkish language teachers’ belief sources.

2.2. Impact of teacher beliefs

It is clear that teacher is one of the fundamentals in education. Although the content of the courses are designed by the government or institutions, as practitioners, teachers decide how the learning will take place. In most cases beliefs influence teacher’s style, attitudes, decisions and practice both before and after the classroom. The teaching process involves teachers’ thought processes (Woods 1996) and teachers’ actions and their observable effects (Richardson 2002). Teachers’ thought processes include the educational decisions they make throughout their professional lives. First of all, teachers need to decide what to teach both during the course and in a particular class and then they need to organize the environment, the materials and activities in a way

which they think proper for successful teaching. Moreover interaction with the learners requires developed decision-making skills for teachers for they need to make instant decisions while managing the classroom or reorganizing the tasks and activities in order to adopt them to changing needs of the learners. Teachers also reach some conclusions about what works best by trying out their plans and taking feedback from learners. In brief, teachers use their beliefs consciously and/or subconsciously in all aspects of their work as a source.

“When information is not available, teachers will rely on beliefs to guide them” (Shavelson and Stern 1981 cited in Woods 1996), and even when information is available the impact of beliefs could be found more effective in teachers’ decisions and practice. Since “beliefs are far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behaviour.” (Nespor 1987 cited in Pajares 1992), it is not surprising that teachers with similar knowledge, the same textbooks, context, and time limitation and similar teaching materials teach in different ways (Ernst 1989; Yero 2002). This could be the reason why recent studies on teacher thinking attempt to figure out and interpret the beliefs held by teachers (Woods 1996; Hativa et al 2001; Borg 2001; Cheung and Wong 2002; Richardson 1994, 2002; Yero 2002; Snieder and Roehl 2007). All these studies provide evidence for the impact of teacher beliefs in several aspects of teaching. Teacher beliefs might be influential on their classroom practice, expectations for success, and even public policy (Snider and Roehl 2007:873). With respect to curriculum design, powerful effect of beliefs could be seen on how teachers design the school curriculum, as well as the time and energy they commit to any curricular reform (Cheung and Wong 2002). In other words, without establishing new beliefs, it is impossible to implement any educational reforms (Tatto and Coupland 2003). Moreover, teachers’ beliefs play an important part in teacher development as they influence the acceptance and uptake of new approaches, techniques and activities (Donaghue 2003). About daily routines, teachers are always under the influence of their beliefs; beliefs strongly affect the materials and activities they choose for the classroom (Richards 1994).

To summarise, beliefs are one of the strongest factors which influence teachers' in planning and practice processes. For this reason, teacher beliefs cannot be ignored while examining language learning and teaching.

2.2.1. Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice

Classroom practice of a teacher could illustrate the beliefs underlying those decisions and actions. For that reason, researchers should look beyond the teachers' behaviour, their classroom practice, to the beliefs hidden underneath their actions (Fukami 2005).

Basically, two key aspects of language learning and teaching process have been found to be worth investigating with regard to impact of beliefs on teachers' decision; the planning process of teachers and teachers perceptions and interpretations of the classroom events (Woods 1996).

Teachers in practice need to make various decisions about their work all through their profession. These decisions could be examined in three groups; pre-active, interactive and post-active decisions (Richards 1994). Teachers' pre-active decisions involve the planning process in which they decide the goals and content of the class, the materials and activities to be used. Interactive decisions are the decisions teachers employ while they teach; as they generally need to make sudden decisions during the classes while they are interacting with learners. After the class teachers revise the planning decisions according to the reactions which come from learners and reach to post-active decisions. If "beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions individual make throughout their lives" (Nespor 1987 cited in Pajares 1992) the impact of teachers' beliefs on their educational decisions cannot be ignored. Teachers' beliefs concerning learning, teaching, learners and the subject matter have a vital impact on the decisions they make in planning lessons, giving instructions and interacting with children, knowing and expecting children's growth (Chan 1999).

Mainstream educational research supports the idea that there is a significant relationship between language teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice. Teachers adopt approaches and methods which are consistent with their beliefs. Accordingly, the activities and materials they choose and even the atmosphere of their classrooms are highly influenced by teachers' beliefs (Woods 1996; Cohen and Fass 2001; Davis, 2003; Yero 2002; Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006; Bai and Ertmer 2004).

The findings of a case study which explored English language teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge about learner centeredness and how they implement it in their classrooms support the strong effect of beliefs on practice. The teachers performed classes in the way they had defined learner-centeredness and they undertook the roles they had assigned themselves (Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006).

The activity choice of teachers also depends on their perceptions of learners they teach. For instance, since teachers find high critical-thinking activities to be inappropriate for low-achieving students they prefer not to place such activities into their lesson plans. As a result of this approach low-advantage students receive fewer critical thinking activities which may foster their development (Warburton and Torff 2005).

Furthermore, in-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have impact on their uses of technology in the classroom. The teachers who have constructivist beliefs are strong computer users; they use computers frequently and powerfully in their teaching than the teachers who have traditional beliefs about teaching and learning (Bai and Ertmer 2004).

When the beliefs of language teachers about corrective feedback are compared with their classroom practice, it becomes evident that behind teaching behaviour exist teachers' thoughts and beliefs, and their teaching is influenced by these (Mori 2002:64). Teachers' instructional beliefs determine their reactions to the student errors; purposes for correction and the type of the corrective feedback are always compatible with their beliefs (Mori 2002).

Even the atmosphere of the classroom is shaped by teachers' beliefs and values; via the interaction in the classroom, students receive positive or negative effects about respect, values, the nature of knowledge, self-worth and expectations (Yero 2002).

As seen above, beliefs strongly influence teachers' decisions and classroom practice. However, it should not be overlooked that although teachers choose approaches to teaching which suit their beliefs about teaching, strong contextual factors such as examination syllabi, can lead to a complete divorce between conceptions and approaches; in other words they may cause inconsistency on teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice (Lam and Kember 2006; Karaağaç and Threllfall 2004) Work setting of the teachers, their teaching goals or examination syllabus may influence and sometimes even force the teachers ignore their beliefs in practice.

2.2.2. Relationship between learner and teacher beliefs

When teachers and learners come together with their strong beliefs in the learning/teaching process, the need for an overlap between their beliefs becomes essential. As learner beliefs indicate their expectations for learning, they also shape their expectations for their teachers.

Language learners hold several beliefs about issues related to language learning and these beliefs are assumed to be an influential variable by several researchers (Ellis 2002; Mori 1999; McGregor 2006, Lam and Kember 2006, Bernat 2006). Furthermore, a link between these beliefs and other variables has been found; for instance it is informed that beliefs dictate learners' approach to learning and choice of specific learning strategies (Ellis 1994:479). Likewise, certain beliefs affect learner motivation to learn the target language (Lam and Kember 2006:81).

Language learners tend to bring both positive and negative beliefs about the learning in general, language learning and also the target language. Learners with positive beliefs about foreign language learning are generally highly motivated to learn and less anxious; use more strategies and are more successful (Bernat 2006; 2007).

Especially in formal learning contexts, learners' attitudes towards success in general, which refers to the totality of their beliefs, are effective in their success in language learning. In other words, most good language learners are also good at other subjects (Cook 2001). Most learners think that some people are born with a special aptitude for learning foreign languages and when they believe they do not have such an aptitude, it may lessen their motivation and result in failure. These kind of beliefs are defined as "mistaken", "erroneous", "uninformed" or "detrimental" by researchers (Bernat and Gvozdenko 2005; Peacock 1998). Learners' detrimental beliefs about language learning affect their success negatively. In a study, learners proficiency and their beliefs were compared and results indicated that learners who believed that they should not say anything in the foreign language until they could say it correctly were significantly less proficient than learners who did not and also the students who agreed that "Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules" were less proficient than those who disagreed. Learners with those detrimental beliefs are expected to avoid practicing language orally or spend most of their time studying grammar rules (Peacock 1999).

Similarly perceptions about the target language and the culture could determine the way learner approaches the language learning process. For example beliefs about the difficulty of the target language influence learners' motivation; when they believe that it is too difficult to learn they may give up studying it at the very beginning of the process. Furthermore if they hold negative beliefs about the native speakers of the target language they may refuse learning it even though they are not aware of those tacit beliefs.

For successful learning outcomes, learner training becomes essential; correcting the misplaced learner beliefs should be implemented into language teaching (Peacock 1999). Recognizing and responding to individual differences including beliefs is very important since only the teachers who could see their students from a variety of perspectives are able to offer teaching approaches suited to the needs of different types of learners (Horwitz 2000). Studies on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and student achievement in African American urban schools show that successful teachers share similar beliefs such as "all students can succeed", "students' identities should be

viewed as rich with colour and culture” and “every student is successful at something” (Willis 1995 1998 and Ladson-Billings 1994 cited in Love 2003; Love 2003).

Consequently, it is obvious that overlap between teacher and learners’ beliefs is essential for language teaching, consequently the success of both learners and teachers. Teachers should be aware of their learners’ expectations, needs and beliefs; as Kuntz (1996) indicates “knowledge of student beliefs makes it possible for teachers to create a mode of instruction in which students’ needs and goals are satisfied.” Additionally when students hold unrealistic beliefs, teacher is the only source that can assist them in building correct and proper ones. Both pre-service teacher education and in-service professional development programmes should provide the necessary support for them.

2.3. Belief change

Pre-service teacher education programmes, staff development courses, seminars, conferences, networking, collaboration, new curriculum, trial and error, student feedback have been reported as some possible reasons for belief change by several researchers (Peterman 1991; Richards et al. 2001, Sato and Kleinsasser 2004; Mattheoudakis 2007).

However, probability of change in teacher beliefs has been questioned as they are thought to be strong psychological constructs which are stable and difficult to change. There are various studies which attempt to find out whether change in beliefs is possible or not (Harrington 2000; Peacock 2001; Kern 1995) and contradictory conclusions have been reached. It is commonly reported that beliefs do not change once they have been formed. As mentioned in the previous chapter, teachers’ personal experience, both as learners and teachers, form their beliefs about learning and teaching. People grow comfortable with their beliefs, and these beliefs become their self (Pajares 1992). Thus these beliefs are so deep-rooted that it is not easy for anyone to reform them. In the field of foreign language teaching the issue becomes more problematic. Woods (1996) emphasises the complexity of the nature of beliefs held by language teacher as follows;

“People unconsciously internalize beliefs about language throughout their lives, and so the beliefs about what language is, what proper language is, and so on, vary from individual to individual and are often deeply held. Language teachers have also been influenced by the many theoretical claims which have been made in the second language literature about what language is, what it consists of and how it works.” (Woods, 1996:186)

In other words, teachers construct strong beliefs concerning both the target language itself and language learning methodology. The former seems to be more difficult to change as it refers to teachers' own language learning experiences. It is noted that “early experiences strongly influence final judgements, which become theories highly resistant to change” (Pajares 1992). This factor lessens the impact of teacher preparation programmes and also in-service development courses. It is assumed that trainees generally do not gain new beliefs during certification programmes; they tend to focus on their existing beliefs to confirm whether they are true or not. Student teachers' early experiences of teaching practice lead them to become critical of the instruction they receive in teacher education programmes and refuse to change their beliefs. Student teachers in front of a real class feel insecure of themselves and they prefer to teach as they have been taught before; they feel more comfortable with the methods and techniques which are familiar to them from their own language learning period (Mattheoudakis 2007).

Similarly, changing beliefs is not easy for in-service teachers (Bullough and Bauhman 1997). Many of them avoid participating in professional development courses such as workshops for various reasons. Although they claim that they do not feel any practical need or advantage to attend workshops because such ideas gained from attending them are not useful in their classrooms (Sato and Kleinsasser 2004), the underlying reason could be the feeling of insecurity and uncertainty which is caused by the innovations they find unrelated to their familiar routines (Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006). It could be concluded that meeting new methods and approaches does not always provide positive changes in teachers' cognition.

Additionally, another source of change, peer observation, is not accessible for many teachers. Most of them do not have the opportunity for observing colleagues to analyze alternative classroom practices. For that reason, they have to rely on their own beliefs which have been previously formed both as learners and teachers.

Although it is assumed that “beliefs cannot be easily and quickly modified since they are formed in a long period” (Mori 1999), some significant changes have been reported from some studies (Peterman 1991; Harrington and Hertel 2000; Bowman et al. 1998; Ackley et al. 1999; Cohen and Fass 2001; Peacock 2001; Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld 2008). For example, Bowman et al. (1998) examined the changes in Maths teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning during the first two years of implementation of cognitively guided instruction (CGI) and noted that by the help of the multi-day workshops, regular team meetings to discuss progress and monthly visits of university educators, positive change in their beliefs concerning CGI was found. It can be concluded that changing in beliefs requires a long period and intensive care.

Consequently, if “beliefs are developed and learned, not genetically endowed” (Yang 2000), it is possible to replace erroneous and mistaken beliefs with newer ones although it takes much time and effort. In the field of language teaching, eliciting teacher beliefs in Turkey and investigating the factors that influence language teachers from the faculty level in which they acquire the necessary formation to the in-service professional development programmes could be the first step to achieve this.

2.3.1. Pre-service teacher education and beliefs

Since beliefs are thought to be a kind of filter that individuals use while understanding, interpreting and processing the new information, finding out what beliefs student teachers bring to initial teacher training has been considered to be a good start for reinforcing the impact of the programmes. Therefore, beliefs of entering pre-service teachers have been a focus for educational research and literature shows that by the time teacher candidates start pre-service courses, they develop many beliefs about learning and teaching (Horwitz 1985; Pajares 1992; Brookhart and Freeman

1992; Almarza 1994; Chan 1999; Bailey et al. 1996; Chou 2003; Chan 1999; Tercanlioğlu 2005; Joram and Gabriele 1998). These beliefs may have their roots in past experiences as learners. Lortie (1975) defines the period students spend watching their teachers in formal education as ‘apprenticeship of observation’. In this long period individuals construct many beliefs about teaching and learning; they subconsciously internalize their teachers’ behaviours. For teacher candidates it becomes much more influential because they develop ideas about the characteristics of a teacher. Teachers become impressive figures in student teachers’ memories (Chan 1999); good teachers serve as a role model in teaching. In other words, by judging their own teachers, students reach to conclusions about appropriate qualities and behaviours teachers need to have. Accordingly, a study revealed that “prior learning experiences have more impact on what teacher candidates do in the classroom than they learned in their education programmes” (Velez-Rendon 2002). It is understandable for thousands of hours are spent while experiencing learning, observing teachers and consequently building beliefs in formal educational settings. This is exactly much longer than the time spent during teacher preparation programmes. For this reason, these programmes should include something more effective if they stand for preparing future teachers with high qualities.

In the field of language teaching, studies reveal that pre-service language teachers hold several strong beliefs concerning the nature of language learning, teaching strategies and techniques, child development, self-efficacy and expectations. For example, most pre-service teachers believe that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language, and it is necessary to teach about the foreign culture, taking part in the activities help children learn a language; at the beginning level teachers should not focus on spelling and grammar, and acquisition occurs when people are exposed to the language which is little beyond their current level of competence. They generally have strong self-efficacy beliefs, and high expectations for becoming good English teachers. (Chan 1999; Yang 2000; Mattheoudakis 2007; Harrington 2000; Nietfeld and Enders 2003; Saraç- Süzer 2007; Tercanlioğlu 2001-2005; Richardson 2003; Cabaroğlu 2000; Angelova 2002)

Additionally the interplay of several biographical, personal, cognitive, educational, and contextual factors forges pre-service teachers’ initiation and socialization into the

foreign language teaching profession (Velez-Rendon 2002). In all studies which attempted to illustrate the characteristic of entering teaching candidates, demographic information which includes gender, socioeconomic status and high school background was gathered as variables at least to describe the sample. For instance, the grade point averages, academic background, involvement in extracurricular activities and experiences with children (e.g. babysitting, experiences with handicapped children) were investigated to indicate their high school background. To portray socioeconomic status of the candidates, educational levels and occupations of parents and their income were generally surveyed. The reasons for their decisions to enrol in teacher preparation programmes were also recorded in some of these studies which reveal the most popular reasons as desire to work with children and adolescents; to impart knowledge; the opportunity to continue one's own education and service to society. With regard to student teachers perceptions of the roles and responsibilities of teachers' pedagogy, subject matter knowledge and concern for children were regarded as essential qualities for effective teachers to have.

Although there is a consensus on the existence of unrealistic and inappropriate beliefs about teaching and learning held by student teachers, contradictory evidence has been found about changes in those beliefs during the course of teacher education (Brookhart and Freeman 1992). What makes belief change difficult is that pre-service teacher education starts when teacher candidates are at least 18 years old and accepted as adults. Early experiences become more powerful in adult life (Pajares 1992) and these experiences which form their beliefs generally indicate how much they will benefit from teacher preparation programmes. On the other hand, teacher candidates should be seen as learners and if previous experiences with schooling and formal knowledge are influential in belief formation, newer experiences with teacher preparation programmes could be influential in reformation of their beliefs. When the literature is reviewed it is seen that some researchers have showed interest in the effect of formal knowledge on student teacher beliefs. For instance, a study which measured student teachers' beliefs at the beginning and the end of the two foreign language methods courses at different universities revealed that some teacher candidates were affected by the information and ideas presented in the class and significantly changed beliefs (Harrington and Hertel 2000). In another one pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs

during a 3-year teacher education programme were questioned and the results indicated that during the programme majority of the student teachers' beliefs gradually changed and the change occurred due to the courses in which they were exposed to recent research findings and theories regarding the teaching and learning (Mattheoudakis 2007). As a result, it could be concluded that reformation of beliefs is possible during the pre-service education and formal knowledge presented in these programmes is a source for change.

Field experience could be regarded as another factor for teacher candidates to change beliefs. It is proved that field experiences both reinforce and challenge the beliefs held by pre-service teachers (Hancock and Gallard 2004). In field experience courses, candidates are generally required to observe experienced teachers for several hours and teach lessons in real schools. Although the effect of prior observations cannot be ignored, the experience they gain during this period could be more powerful since the candidates undertake a different role. As future teachers candidates consciously examine and criticise the teacher they observe and draw conclusions about learning and teaching by the help of the theoretical background they receive in pre-service education. Moreover teaching practice functions as a source for change in teacher candidates' beliefs since they take the responsibility of teaching in real classroom settings; planning and presenting the lessons, interacting with the students and organizing the whole teaching and learning process.

To summarise, several factors lead belief change in pre-service teacher education such as formal knowledge, observations and personal teaching experiences. From this point of view, the necessity of taking beliefs into account in pre-service teacher education becomes essential. There should be a systematic assessment of teacher candidates' beliefs (Horwitz 1985) and any mistaken trainee beliefs should be worked on because they could influence their teaching and their future students' learning for decades (Peacock 2001).

2.3.2. In-service teacher development and beliefs

As mentioned in previous section (see 2.1.2), teachers go on forming and sometimes reforming beliefs in their teaching career. Several studies have showed that teachers change their beliefs due to the effects of reflection, staff-development courses, seminars, conferences, student feedback, self-discovery, trial and error, collaboration, new curriculum, contact with others, research, being tired of doing the same thing, teaching experience, interaction with colleagues and networking (Peterman 1991; Muchmore 2001; Richards et al. 2001; Crookes and Arakaki 1999 cited in Borg, 2003; Sato and Kleinsasser 2004; Kirazlar 2007; August 1995 cited in Kuo 2008).

In recent years, the parallelism between the interest in teacher beliefs and reflective teaching has appeared and it is assumed that reflection makes teachers challenge their personal beliefs about teaching (Kirazlar 2007). Teachers may benefit from reflecting on their beliefs (Yero 2002) since it might give opportunity to the teachers to re-examine what they think about learning, teaching and educational issues and what they do in practice. Change in beliefs and practice is only possible when teachers are willing to criticise themselves and open to new ideas.

Staff development courses could be a way to help teachers reflect upon their beliefs yet it is undeniable that the effectiveness of these courses depends on the degree that participants benefit from them. There is often a gap between input, uptake and output in such courses. The most significant reason for this is that participant teachers consider many innovations impractical because they are unrelated to their familiar routines (Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006). They fail to allow new ideas to be assimilated into their personal theory and to have the creativity and adoptability to transfer new knowledge into teaching practice (Donaghue 2003). As a starting point for adaptation professional development should engage teachers in a direct exploration of their beliefs and principles and provide the opportunity for greater self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning (Richards et al. 2001). In short, beliefs should not be ignored while organizing the staff development courses.

Nevertheless changing beliefs is not easy. Peterman (1991) reporting from Guskey (1986) describes the belief change process; teachers first participate in staff development, then they change their classroom practice, and when they see the positive effects of the innovations on student learning outcome, they change their attitudes and beliefs. Findings of his longitudinal case study were also consistent with Guskey's model; the participant teacher's conceptions and beliefs about teaching was gradually evolved after she had received the new information in a staff-development programme and implemented these new ideas in her classroom practice. In other words, change in her beliefs followed changes in practice.

Besides staff development courses, several sources for belief change were reported by in-service language teachers in a study, such as seminars and conferences, student feedback, self-discovery, trial and error, collaboration, new curriculum, contact with others, research, being tired of doing the same thing, and teaching journal (Richards et al. 2001). In seminars and conferences, like staff development courses, teachers meet new ideas and strategies and are encouraged to try out new teaching methods. Via student feedback, self-discovery and trial and error teachers decide what works best and may gradually change their beliefs. Additionally when there is a change in curriculum, they are required to make some changes in their practice as new teaching methods, techniques and materials are offered. Research and teaching journals are also helpful for teachers who are open-minded and tired of doing the same thing.

Teaching experience is one of the strongest factors which affect teacher beliefs (Crookes and Arakaki 1999 cited in Borg 2003). During the beginning years, teachers struggle with many issues in their practice such as classroom management, meeting learner needs, accommodating preferences of all students (Watzke 2007). Although they have received the necessary formation in the preparation programmes, they generally stick to the traditional approaches and techniques as they are under the effect of their beliefs which take their roots from experience as learners. Over time their beliefs and practises evolve from teacher -controlled to learner-centred (Muchmore 2001). During this period teachers should be supported in terms of building correct beliefs about learning and teaching since the more experience teachers have, the more reliant on their core principles they have become, and less conscious they are of doing so (Richards et al. 2001:2)

Classroom experience and interaction with colleagues is more influential for novice teachers. In their beginning year, novice teachers tend to imitate experienced teachers (Sato and Kleinsasser 2004). For this reason, teaching cultures are thought to be effective in belief change. Learning-enriched school culture offers teachers opportunities to collaborate with each other, set goals with principles and become enthusiastic to learn more in order to meet the students' diverse learning needs whereas in learning-impooverished schools teachers are generally uncertain about their instruction, isolated from colleagues and stuck on routine practices and procedures (Rosenholtz 1989 cited in Sato and Kleinsasser 2004). Positive belief change occurs in the former settings. Although individual beliefs and practices take a backseat to the community's culture, the schools culture influences individual's beliefs to a greater extent. Teachers should be encouraged to take part in staff meetings, collaborative communities, team teaching, workshops, and casual social functions for professional collaboration (Aston and Hyle 1997). Teacher development entails not only the renewal of teachers but also the institutional development (Sato and Murphey 1998)

In addition to collaboration in school settings, networking could be named as another opportunity for professional teacher development. It provides a platform for people all around the world to share information and communicate with others instantly (August 1995 cited in Kuo 2008). In recent years the internet has become a popular tool among teachers for exchanging information, materials, ideas and experiences. Thousands of sites serve countless ideas and materials on language learning and teaching, and teachers from all over the world influence each others' conceptions and practice.

It can be concluded that learning is a life-long process and teachers continue learning to teach until they get retired. In their professional life they are affected by several factors and change their practice and change in behaviour proceeds change in beliefs (Pajares 1992:321).

2.4. Studies on teacher beliefs

There has been a move in language teaching research from a focus on the product of teaching to the process of teaching. Determining the classroom processes that lead to successful language learning has become the vital purpose for educational research recently. After spending years focusing on language, language acquisition, teaching methodologies, learner variables, testing and related topics, researchers have recognised that the role of the teacher is not only to follow the instructions to teach the subject matter in language education (Woods 1996). Teachers do not teach in the same way although they are obliged to follow a particular curriculum or offered similar materials or asked to use particular techniques. Hence, there is not a formula for success in teaching. Teachers interpret and organise the learning situations and perform classes in their own way. What creates the variety is that teachers are individuals with their own beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, personalities and values. As indicated in previous chapters, beliefs have the central role in teachers' decisions and practice. Consequently, successful teaching could occur only when the correct beliefs are established. For this reason, exploring teacher beliefs has been thought to be a good way to understand and interpret what is happening in language classes and what precautions should be taken to prevent failure. In the present chapter, an overview of recent studies which have been mentioned up to now is presented by giving some details.

In addition to other individual differences such as age, gender, motivations, learning strategies and styles, beliefs have been discussed as an effective variable in language learning recently. Learner beliefs have been studied and discussed by several researchers (Horwitz 1999; Peacock 1999; Ellis 2002; Bernat and Gvozdenko 2005; Bernat 2006; Liab 2006; Huang 2006; Bernat and Lloyd 2007) rather than teacher beliefs. The potential influence of beliefs on learning has raised interest and some evidence about the nature and origin of beliefs and their impact on learners have been sought.

As mentioned before, there is a variation in beliefs and what creates this variation has been a focus for research. About the effect of contextual settings on beliefs, Bernat

(2006) compared the result of her study in Australia with Siebert's (2003) from the USA and found them similar in all categories. A small number of inter-group differences were interpreted as the results of individuals' personal backgrounds which were affected by several factors. The study shows that contextual setting is not the only source for belief formation, individuals' complex metacognitive structure, as affected by a number of social, cultural, affective, and personal factors, is responsible for their beliefs.

Additionally, significant differences in beliefs were reported related to gender and language medium background (Diab 2006). Similarly, another study revealed that males and females hold similar beliefs except the ones about the relationship between intelligence and language learning and practicing language; females believe that multilinguals are very intelligent and males enjoy practicing with native speakers (Bernat and Lloyd 2007). However, a quantitative study from Turkey explored the beliefs about learning a foreign language of pre-service teachers in a university and in relations to gender but no significant difference was found (Tercanlioğlu 2007). Thus, belief studies related to gender differences have contradictory conclusions.

Horwitz, (1985) who designed a popular research tool BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory), investigated the impact of beliefs on language learning and her study showed that learners may have incorrect beliefs about language learning and those beliefs generally result in failure. The results of Mantle-Bromley's study (1995) were similar to those found by Horwitz. 208 seventh grade students learning French and Spanish in Kansas filled out BALLI and their responses showed consistency with the university students' beliefs in the former study. The researcher reached a similar conclusion; "realistic beliefs have links to proficiency" (Huang 2006:64).

Studies on teacher beliefs have been organized to investigate similar research questions; What are the beliefs of teachers related the issues about learning and teaching? Where do those beliefs come from? And how is their work influenced by those beliefs?

Several issues about education have been questioned besides teachers' beliefs concerning language learning and teaching. Some of them are beliefs about technology uses (Albion and Ertmer 2002); the role of epistemological beliefs in learning with hypermedia (Hartley and Bendixen 2000); teacher educators' beliefs (Bai and Ertmer 2004); science teachers' beliefs about curriculum (Cheung and Ng 2000); curriculum orientations (Cheung and Wong 2002) and beliefs about ethics (Aksoy 1999).

Some studies have examined teachers' beliefs regarding curricula and they provided the groundwork for teacher educators and policy-makers. For example, following quantitative methods, Cheung and Ng (2000) explored the beliefs of science, chemistry, physics and biology teachers about curriculum design in Hong Kong. Their SCOI (Science Curriculum Orientation Inventory) was designed to measure distinct orientations to curriculum: academic, humanistic, and technological. Moreover, the relationships between 648 Hong Kong teachers' curriculum orientations and demographic characteristics (gender, subject matter, work setting, and experience) were investigated by Cheung and Wong (2002). The inventory was designed to measure five curriculum orientations: academic, cognitive process, social reconstruction, humanistic and technological. No significant difference was reported about gender and school type the teachers work in. Both primary and secondary teachers held similar beliefs. English language teachers were found more humanistic than science teachers. Experienced teachers valued the academic orientation more.

For it is inevitable for teachers to face ethical issues in their professional life, teacher beliefs concerning ethics have also been a focus of recent research. Aksoy (1999) for example, aimed to understand elementary school teachers' beliefs about ethical dilemmas in teaching. Reviewing the literature, she points out the agreement among the investigators and educators that human interactions in teaching should be guided by some normative principles such as respect, for autonomy of others, fairness and equity, fidelity and honesty, dignity and doing one's best.

Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is another issue on which the researchers studied. Simply, self-efficacy is a belief that reflects individuals' belief in their capabilities to execute a specific task (Bandura 1997 cited in Pajares 1992). It has been proved that there is a significant relationship among epistemic beliefs, hope and self-efficacy;

teachers with high levels of hope have higher levels of self-efficacy (Nietfeld and Enders 2003). Additionally teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy have better academic performance (Bembenutty 2006).

With respect to origin of teacher beliefs contextual settings (YANG Fukami 2005); educational backgrounds of the teachers; climate of the school; organization of the schools in which they teach; the external examination syllabi (Lam and Kember 2006); background experiences Chan (1999); demographic variables such as age and gender (Snieder and Roehl 2007) have been reported as effective factors. For instance, Yang (2000) investigated beliefs of Taiwanese student teachers about language learning and teaching and compared the findings with two other studies (Horwitz 1985 and Kern 1995) held in the USA. The results showed that American and Taiwanese student teachers do not hold similar beliefs about some issues, especially difficulty of the language, teaching culture, and error correction. As this study proves, contextual factors have an impact on pre-service teachers' beliefs.

In her case study Arıoğul (2007) discusses how language teachers are influenced by the background sources. During the data collection, three participant teachers, who were working in the same university, were observed, interviewed and their lessons were video-taped. Results revealed that the participants' practical knowledge had been drawn from their language learning experience, prior teaching experience and professional coursework in pre- and in-service education.

In another study, participant language teachers reported that their beliefs about teaching were highly influenced by their initial teaching experiences, particularly their university practicum experience and they also emphasized the effects of peer-observation (Sato and Kleinsasser 2004)

Various researchers have showed interest in the strong relationship between learner and teacher beliefs (Peacock 1998 a-b; Cohen and Fass 2001; Davis 2003). Studies exploring the gap between teacher and learners' beliefs generally focus on three main questions; "What are the teachers' and learners' beliefs about learning of languages?", "Is there a gap between these beliefs?" and "What implications do these beliefs have for language learning?"

The gap between learner and teachers' beliefs about language learning was investigated by Davis (2003) in Chinese context. Theoretical framework of the study was constructed on ten dimensions of language learning which were drawn from Lightbown and Prada (1993).

The results show that teachers and learners shared similar beliefs about the following items;

- Languages are learned mainly through imitation.
- Students with high IQs are good language learners.
- The most important factor in second language acquisition success is motivation.
- Teachers should use materials that expose students only to those language structures that have already been thought.

However, inconsistent responses were given for the rest of the items. Learners agreed much more strongly with the following statements than did teachers;

- Students' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.
- When students are allowed to interact freely, they learn each other's mistakes.
- Teachers should correct students when they make grammatical errors.
- The earlier a second language is introduced in schools, the greater the likelihood of success in learning that language.
- Most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from their first language.
- Teachers should present grammatical rules one at a time, with students practicing examples of each one before going onto another.

Similarly, Peacock (1999) aimed to consider whether there is a difference between the beliefs of teachers and learners and if so whether this gap affects language learning. The study was held in Hong Kong with the participation of 45 EFL teachers and 202 EFL students from a city university. Results of the self-report questionnaire (BALLI) indicated that on some aspects of language learning the teachers and learners disagreed;

these mismatched beliefs led failure. For instance, learners valued good accent much more than their teachers did. Furthermore most of the learners believed that learning a foreign language is a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary whereas only a few of the teachers agreed with that. In this manner, teachers are not expected to focus on pronunciation or organise classroom tasks on the basis of vocabulary teaching. Learners also have beliefs about good and bad language teaching and they define several roles required of a teacher (Prodromou 1989) which may not overlap the reality. Peacock reports that this gap between learner and teacher beliefs results in students' frustration and dissatisfaction and suggests that teachers need to care about their students' beliefs and try to reduce the misunderstanding.

In another study, Peacock (1998) explored a gap between teachers' and learners' beliefs about useful activities for EFL. In the study, 158 university students and 30 EFL teachers took part and filled out a questionnaire on classroom activities and both groups were interviewed. Findings revealed that there is a considerable mismatch between learner and teacher beliefs concerning usefulness of activities; learners preferred error correction and grammar exercises whereas teachers found pair and group work more effective. In other words teachers valued communicative type activities while learners rated traditional ones instead (Nunan 1998 cited in Peacock 1998). The researcher suggests that teachers should reduce learners' misunderstanding and dissatisfaction by explaining them the rationale behind the relatively unpopular activities.

There is a bulk of research in the literature which serves as a basis for the discussion about belief change in terms of pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher development and teaching experience. The effectiveness of teacher education programmes was argued on teacher beliefs. For example, some detrimental beliefs of trainee teachers in Peacock's study (2001) were very slow to change despite the 3-year instruction of TESOL. It is concluded that some significant changes on those detrimental beliefs were observed only when they received an instructional package and class observations. During the implementation of the project trainees were informed about their incorrect beliefs determined in the study; they were required to read the selected readings in which the benefits of communicative approaches were discussed; small group discussions were held and they were shown videotapes of

exemplary ESL (English as a Second Language) classes. This study shows that there is a need for re-examination of pre-service teacher education programme. Another study by Onwuegbuzie (2002) investigated the change in student teachers' beliefs over time. On the first day of the academic year student teachers were administered the WTSEB (Witcher-Travers Survey of Educational Beliefs) and PTPCETS (Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers Survey). The responses showed that participants' tendency toward transmissivism (the traditional conservative approach in which the role of the teacher is to transmit the knowledge they have to the students). However, at the end of the semester, after they had taken a course which included introduction to the concepts, practises and issues of teaching profession, they tended to hold a more progressive philosophy. The study also underlies the need for a focus on teacher beliefs in the curriculum of teacher education programmes.

An interesting and effective way to change beliefs was experienced in Angelova's (2002) study. 10 Bulgarian mini-lessons were given to teacher trainees during a semester by the researcher, and these lessons helped trainees understand language learning theories, concepts and processes as they themselves experienced the foreign language learning. Using mini-lessons was offered as a pedagogical tool for learning to teach.

The influence of teacher educators' beliefs on pre-service teachers' beliefs was discussed by Bai and Ertmer (2004) in their study related to technology uses. They proposed that teachers' pedagogical beliefs may play an important role in the ways in which technology gets used in classrooms. Kuo (2008) also carried out a study to explore EFL student teachers' perceptions about their learning experiences, beliefs and self-efficacy on internet-assisted language learning and teaching in Taiwan. According to the results of the questionnaire administered for data collection, most of the senior student teachers expressed confidence for using internet as an effective source in their future practice. Their positive attitude towards the internet-assisted language instruction was based on their positive experiences they had as language learners. However, some of the participants were not sure whether they could integrate technology into their teaching practice. These two studies reveal that teacher educators shoulder the responsibility for educating pre-service teachers about technology-using. The guidance of teacher educators who can assist student teachers build positive beliefs

about technology by constructing rich technology environments, providing more learning opportunities and offering professional technology trainings seems to be essential.

With regards to in-service teachers' belief change, studies have sought evidence for the influence of several sources such as seminars and conferences, published research, staff development courses and experience. Borg (2007) informs about studies from Everton et al. (2002) and Mc Namara (2002) and notes that teachers acknowledged the potential positive impact of research and also they highlighted the need for published educational research to be more accessible and applicable to their work.

Effectiveness of in-service teacher education depends on the quality of the staff development courses. Only "mediated, constructivist and collective professional development courses" have been found successful (Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld 2008). In a study, researchers aimed to sensitise teachers to individual differences and record any differences on their beliefs about "weak students". For that reason teachers were exposed to a professional development course on individual learner differences. In the course they learned about themselves and their colleagues as learners. The findings of pre and post test applied to the participants showed that there was a significant increase in interventionist beliefs due to experience of a well-organized staff development course (Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld 2008).

Long-term effectiveness of in-service teacher training courses for EFL teachers was argued by Nicolaidis and Mattheudakis (2008) in the Greek context. A year after 60 hour courses, teachers' beliefs and practice were assessed by questionnaire and reached some important conclusions. According to the results, long-term change necessitates a change in teachers' deep-seated beliefs and it becomes possible when knowledge is adapted applied according to context-specific requirements (Nicolaidis and Mattheudakis 2008:289).

Researchers showed interest in the characteristics of beginning and experienced teachers. For instance, Richards (1994) compared experienced and novice teachers' planning processes. Both groups were given a task to perform; preparing a plan for a reading class. While novice teachers focused on the linguistic content of the text and

used a modal format studied in a methodology class, including pre-reading, reading and post reading activities; the experienced teachers offered a great variety of activities including prediction, discussions, rewriting. By the help of such activities they aimed to move quickly beyond the text. This study shows that the way the experienced teachers think, understand and overcome educational problems differ from the novice teachers. Richards (1994:3) concludes that “the cognitive schemata of experts typically are more complex, more interconnected, and more easily accessible than those of novices”.

Watzke’s longitudinal study (2007) aimed to explore how pedagogical content knowledge of beginning high school language teachers develops and changes over time by using several techniques such as reflective journal entries, classroom observations and interviews. The results revealed that as beginning foreign language teachers gained classroom teaching experience, their foreign language pedagogical knowledge gradually changed; their prior knowledge about language learning which they had experienced as learners shifted away from themselves to their students.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter attempted to define beliefs by comparing and contrasting it with related concepts, explaining how they are formed. Next, the impact of beliefs on teachers’ decisions and practice was presented. It continued with discussions about belief change and ended with the revision of the studies done on the issue in Turkey and the world.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology applied in the study. Firstly, the purpose of the study and the research questions are presented, then the rationale for the research design is explained. The description of the pilot study is followed by the description of the main study which involves the subjects and setting; instruments and procedures; and finally the procedures for data analysis.

3.1 Purpose of the study and research questions

The purpose of this study is to find out the pre and in-service English teachers' beliefs about language and language learning. Besides exploring these beliefs, this study also tries to reach some conclusions about the variance in these beliefs by finding answers to the following research questions;

***RQ 1:** What are the beliefs of pre-service teachers related to language and language learning?*

***RQ 2:** Is there a relationship between the beliefs of pre-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and different variables such as gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic background?*

***RQ 3:** What are the beliefs of in-service teachers related to language and language learning?*

***RQ 4:** Is there a relationship between the beliefs of in-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and different variables such as gender, graduation and teaching experience and the school type they work in?*

***RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference between pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs in regard to language and language learning?*

3.2 Rationale for the study

Research is defined as “a systematic process of formulating questions, problems or hypothesis; collecting data or evidence relevant to these questions/ problems/ hypothesis; and analysing or interpreting these data (Nunan 1992:3). Research studies can be categorized in terms of the characteristics of components mentioned in the definition; in other words the purpose of the study, the way the data is obtained, and how the data is analysed or interpreted indicate the category to which any research study belongs.

Traditionally, two broad categories of research have been mentioned; qualitative and quantitative. A qualitative approach to research includes qualitative methods and techniques in which non-numerical data are collected. In such studies real, rich and deep data helps the researcher to understand and discover human behaviour but they are generally found subjective since researchers are close to the data and evaluate the findings by their own perspective. On the other hand, quantitative approach to research can be described as an approach in which numerical data is collected via instruments such as surveys or questionnaires and generally analysed statistically (Nunan 1992; Brown 2004). This approach usually includes the description of the phenomenon as it specifies, delineates, and describes a naturally occurring phenomenon without experimental manipulation (Seliger and Shohamy 1989). For surveys and questionnaires are typical instruments used in such studies, descriptive research is also called survey research. From this point of view, it is possible to say that quantitative approach is applied in the present study since it has a non-experimental research design

and collects numerical (quantitative) data which is analysed statistically in order to describe a phenomenon.

When the literature about beliefs is reviewed, it is seen that both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been followed in studies. While in some of them combined quantitative and qualitative research tools and procedures have been used such as diary keeping, metaphor analysis, essays, observations, class video-taping, stimulus recall procedures, interviews and reflective journal entries (Ellis 2002; Mori 2002; Velez-Rendon 2002; Karaağaç and Threlfall 2004; Warburton and Torff 2005; Louden and Rohl 2006; Watzke 2007), most of them have collected quantitative data via surveys and questionnaires (Bowman et al. 1998; Aksoy 1999; Cheung and Ng 2000; Siwatu 2000; Peacock 2001; Ramanathan 2001; Love 2002; 2003; Davis 2003; Mattheudakis 2005; Tercanlıoğlu 2005; Bembenutty 2006; Diab 2006; Bernat and Lloyd 2007; Kuo 2008).

As for this particular study, during the planning stage, several studies were evaluated and the factors which will be explained below led the researcher to choose a quantitative approach, using the survey methodology.

First of all, survey studies focus on a group's views, attitudes, opinions, and/or characteristics (Brown 1995:3). Hence they are very suitable for investigating beliefs of language teachers.

Secondly, for data collection using a self-report questionnaire as the instrument was preferred since it was aimed to reach a high number of respondents. For a study which questions pre and in-service teachers' beliefs does not exist in Turkish context, the object of this study is to reach a large number of teachers to find out the panorama. Moreover questionnaires are easy to construct, extremely versatile, economic, and time consuming. One can easily collect a large amount of information in a short time that is ready to process (Dörnyei 2003). Another advantage of questionnaires is that when anonymity is assured participants tend to share information of a sensitive nature more easily (Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 172).

In conclusion, it was decided to carry out a survey research and use a questionnaire as the research tool. Therefore, a popular self-report questionnaire BALLI was

modified and reconstructed according to the research questions. It was piloted before the main study. The following sections describe the phases of the study; the pilot and the main studies.

3.3 Pilot study

The pilot study was carried out both with pre-service and in-service teachers in order to avoid difficulties and mistakes that might be faced in the main study. Since the instrument was translated into Turkish, one of the reasons for a pilot study was to find out whether there were any problems with wording or any misunderstandings or ambiguous items. Furthermore, it was beneficial for testing the validity and reliability of the instrument once more.

3.3.1 Subjects and setting

The data for the pilot study was gathered from Çanakkale and some of its districts. The in-service teacher version of the questionnaire was administered to 25 in-service teachers from Gelibolu, Biga, Gökçeada and Çan districts. For the pre-service teacher version of the questionnaire, 32 pre-service teachers from English Language Teaching Department in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University participated in the pilot study.

3.3.2 Instruments and procedure

To investigate beliefs quantitative research tools, especially questionnaires, have been widely used. BALLI, which was designed by Horwitz in 1988, appears to be the most popular one. It is a Likert type inventory of different belief statements which consisted response options representing the degree of agreement. It involves 34 items in five major areas; the difficulty of language learning, aptitude for language learning,

the nature of language learning process, learning and communication strategies, motivations and expectations for language learning.

Horwitz (1985 cited in Horwitz, 1999) used this inventory for the first time in order to elicit the beliefs about language learning of her students in a teacher-training course. In 1987, she conducted another study involving 32 ESL students from different backgrounds which revealed popular beliefs of language learners. Another study of her (1988) underlines the tension between learner and teacher beliefs. Data was gathered by the means of BALLI again from 241 first semester American university students of French, German and Spanish. It was followed by two important American studies by Kern and Mantle-Bromley (1995 cited in Peacock 1995; Kuntz 1996; Huang 2006). As it is obvious, the questionnaire has been used in different settings and with different samples to describe beliefs about language learning. For example, it was used with learners (Peacock 1999; Diab 2006;); teachers and student teachers (Peacock 1999; Tercanlioğlu 2001; Mattheoudakis 2005;) in several different settings. (Harrington and Hertel 2000; Bernat and Lloyd 2007).

BALLI also served as a basis for this study since it includes general beliefs about language and language learning and could be regarded as a good starting point for studying English language teachers' beliefs in Turkey.

However, BALLI was originally developed for language learners and there was a need for change in some of the items. First, the items listed below were omitted as they were found irrelevant or completely related to learners (For original version of the inventory see Appendix A).

Item 5. The language I am trying to learn is structured in the same way as English.

Item 6. I believe that I will ultimately learn this language very well.

Item 12. If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.

Item 15. I have a foreign language aptitude.

Item 18. I feel self-conscious speaking the foreign language in front of other people.

Item 23. If I speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.

Item 27. If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job.

Item 30. Americans think that it is important to speak a foreign language.

Item 31. I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better.

Second, the instrument was translated into Turkish and while forming the teacher version, two of the items were slightly changed (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Changed versions of items 17 and 33

ITEM	ORIGINAL VERSION	CHANGED VERSION
17	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Öğrencilerin başlangıçta hata yapmasına izin verilirse daha sonraları bu hatalardan kurtulmaları zor olacaktır.
33	The language I am trying to learn is <input type="checkbox"/> very difficult <input type="checkbox"/> difficult <input type="checkbox"/> medium difficulty <input type="checkbox"/> easy <input type="checkbox"/> very easy	Öğretmeye çalıştığım dil <input type="checkbox"/> çok zordur <input type="checkbox"/> zordur. <input type="checkbox"/> orta zorluktadır. <input type="checkbox"/> kolaydır. <input type="checkbox"/> çok kolaydır.

Contextual difference between was also taken into consideration since the study was held in Turkey; two items shown in Figure 2 were converted so that it could fit the participants' mother tongue.

Figure 2. Changed versions of items 13 and 25

Item	Original version	Changed version
13	Americans are good at learning foreign languages.	Türkler yabancı dil öğrenme konusunda iyidirler.
25	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.	Yabancı dil öğrenmek daha çok Türkçeden çeviri yapma meselesidir.

The number of the BALLI items was 25, However, the instrument used in this study consisted 33 items in total. 8 items were added in order to explore teachers' beliefs in two main areas; self-efficacy beliefs and beliefs related to language teacher roles.

For self-efficacy beliefs, one of the items was taken from a questionnaire which was developed by Yang (2000) who studied beliefs about teaching children English. It was slightly changed while translating into Turkish (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Changed version of item 5

Item	Original version	Turkish version
5	I think I can teach (children) English very well.	İngilizceyi çok iyi öğretebildiğime inanıyorum.

Another two items were taken from Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale and modified as shown in the following figure.

Figure 4. Changed versions of the items 26 and 29

Item	Original version	Modified/ Turkish version
26	My teacher training program and/or experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher	Öğretmen eğitim programım etkin bir öğretmen olmam için gereken becerileri kazandırmaktadır.
29	If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.	Derse az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri güdülemeyi başarabilirim.

The remained three were about teacher roles in language teaching, and taken from a study by Mattheoudakis (2005) who studied pre-service teachers' beliefs about language learning in Greek context. When the cultural proximity and the similarity of the sample groups were considered, it was found beneficial to implement 3 items from the questionnaire modified by Matheoudakis. They were slightly changed again while translating into Turkish (See Figure 5).

Figure 5. Changed versions of items 11, 17 and 22

Item	Original version	Turkish version
11	<i>The role of a language teacher is to control the students.</i>	Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencileri kontrol etmektir.
17	<i>The role of a language teacher is to teach students how to learn.</i>	Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencilere nasıl öğrenebileceklerini öğretmektir.
22	<i>The role of a language teacher is to share his/her knowledge.</i>	Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi İngilizce'ye ilişkin bilgisini paylaşmaktır.

Since the questionnaire was applied to both ELT Students and in-service teachers, some changes on wording became inevitable (Figure 5).

Figure 6. Pre and in-service teacher versions of the items 5, 26, 29 and 33

Item	For in-service teachers	For pre-service teachers
5	İngilizceyi çok iyi öğretebildiğime inanıyorum.	İngilizceyi çok iyi öğretebileceğime inanıyorum.
26	Öğretmen eğitim programım ve deneyimim etkin bir öğretmen olmam için gereken becerileri kazandırmıştır.	Öğretmen eğitim programım etkin bir öğretmen olmam için gereken becerileri kazandırmaktadır.
29	Derse az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri güdülemeyi başarabilirim.	Derse az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri güdülemeyi başarabileceğime inanıyorum.
33	Öğretmeye çalıştığım dil () çok zordur () zordur. () orta zorluktadır. () kolaydır. () çok kolaydır.	Öğreteceğim dil () çok zordur () zordur. () orta zorluktadır. () kolaydır. () çok kolaydır.

As a consequence, the final version of the inventory included 33 items in 6 major areas as shown below;

1. Foreign Language Aptitude (items:1, 2, 4, 9, 13, 21, 28, 31)
2. The difficulty of language learning (items: 3, 23, 27, 32, 33)
3. The nature of language learning (items: 7, 10, 15, 19, 24, 25)
4. Learning and communication strategies (items: 6, 8, 12, 16, 18, 20)
5. Self-efficacy and expectations (items: 5, 14, 26, 29, 30)
6. Teacher roles (items: 11, 17, 22)

In addition to the main questionnaire, there was a short questionnaire at the end which was designed to collect demographic information about the participants. The in-service teachers were asked about their gender, teaching experience, graduation, the school type they currently teach, the sources they often use and attendance to staff-

development courses (Appendix B). For pre-service teachers, a similar one was attached to elicit the information about their gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic status. With regard to socioeconomic status, three main factors were evaluated; their parents' occupation, educational background and family income (Appendix C).

Prior to the pilot study, expert ideas about the content, wording and face validity of the questionnaire were taken from the lecturers at the ELT department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and in the light of the critics obtained from them, some changes were made on the instrument (For the final version of the instrument see Appendix D and E).

The instrument was copied and distributed to the sample groups; the pre-service teachers from ELT Department in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and in-service teachers from Gelibolu, Biga, Gökçeada and Çan districts of Çanakkale. Totally 57 questionnaires were returned from the participants and entered onto the computer.

3.3.3 Analysis

The findings were assessed statistically by using SPSS 17.00 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows. Frequencies and percentages were calculated and for the reliability of the instrument, the reliability coefficient was carried out.

3.3.4 Findings

The data were gained from both pre and in-service teachers in the pilot study. For this reason, the findings are analyzed and described separately in the following sections.

3.3.4.1 Findings related to in-service teacher sample

17 female, 8 male totally 25 in-service teachers, whose characteristics are given in Table 1, participated in the pilot study. Since the main study includes 68 teachers; it could be concluded that the pilot sample represents nearly 40% of the main study which indicates that the findings drawn out of the pilot study can be taken in reference to the main study.

Table 1. Profile of the in-service participants in the pilot study

CATEGORY		<i>f</i>	%
Gender	<i>Male</i>	8	32
	<i>Female</i>	17	68
Experience	<i>Less than a year</i>	1	4
	<i>1-4 years</i>	4	16
	<i>5-8 years</i>	11	44
	<i>9-12 years</i>	3	12
	<i>13-16 years</i>	2	8
	<i>More than 17 years</i>	4	16
Graduation	<i>ELT</i>	21	84
	<i>English Lang. and Literature</i>	3	12
	<i>Science</i>	1	4
School Type	<i>Primary School</i>	10	40
	<i>Vocational High School</i>	2	8
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	13	52
Seminar	<i>Yes</i>	15	62.5
	<i>No</i>	9	37.5

Among the participants only 1 (4 %) was a novice teacher and had less than a year teaching experience. 15 of the participants were in the 1-8th and 5 of them were in the 9-16th year of their teaching career. 4 of them reported to have more than 17 years of teaching experience.

The majority of the participants in the study (84 %) were graduated from ELT department of universities while 3 (12%) reported to have graduated from English Language and Literature Department and only 1 (4%) of the participants was a graduate of science department.

The sample included 13 teachers from Anatolian High Schools (52%) and 10 teachers from Primary Schools (40%). Only 2 of them (8%) reported to work in Vocational Schools. More than half of the sample group (62.5%) had participated in a seminar related to their profession in the last 3 years.

3.3.4.2 Findings related to the pre-service teacher sample

The pilot study includes 32 pre-service language teachers from ELT department at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University whose characteristics are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Profile of the pre-service participants in the pilot study

CATEGORY		<i>f</i>	%
Gender	<i>Male</i>	9	28.1
	<i>Female</i>	23	71.9
Grade	<i>Preparatory Class</i>	7	21.9
	<i>First Grade</i>	5	15.6
	<i>Second Grade</i>	6	18.8
	<i>Third Grade</i>	6	18.8
	<i>Fourth Grade</i>	8	25
Graduation	<i>Regular High School</i>	1	3.1
	<i>Super High School</i>	18	56.3
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	6	18.8
	<i>Anatolian Teacher Training H.S.</i>	5	6.3
	<i>Private High School</i>	1	3.1
	<i>Other</i>	1	3.1

8 male 24 female pre-service teachers from different grades participated in the pilot study. Since the English Language Teaching Programme in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University starts with a preparatory class and continues 4 years, the sample consisted of five groups. Additionally, the number of the respondents was almost equal for each grade as Table 2 displays.

For high school graduation the sample showed variety. 18 (56.3 %) of the participants were graduated from Super High Schools whereas 11 (34.4) of them had finished Anatolian High Schools. It was surprising that only 2 of them (6.3 %) were graduates of Anatolian Teacher Training High School.

While analysing the data obtained from the pre-service teachers in the pilot study, it was found difficult to determine the socioeconomic status of the participants. As mentioned before, some significant information was sought in that part of the questionnaire. The participants were asked to inform about their family income, their parents' educational background and occupation. These three sources were assumed to give a final judgement; each participant was to be labelled as having a "low", "medium" or "high" socioeconomic status.

However, it was not easy to classify the data gathered and reach some conclusions as there were no clear-cuts. For that reason, the researcher found more objective and reliable to ask more teachers to indicate which occupations, graduations and family incomes belong to each socioeconomic status instead of doing that herself. As a result, it was planned to carry out a small scale study in order to evaluate the findings of the main study.

After the main study, a scale was developed according to the responses given by pre-service teachers (See Appendix J and K) and distributed to 24 teachers in two schools. One of them was an Anatolian High School in the city centre and the other was a primary school in a village near Çanakkale. The socio-economic statuses of the participant pre-service teachers were determined in the light of the findings of this study.

3.3.4.3 Reliability of the instruments

Carrying out a survey study and using a questionnaire for data collection seems to be the best way to investigate teacher beliefs. However the validity and reliability are the concepts which should be questioned in such studies. For that reason reliability of the questionnaire formed by the researcher was analysed before the main study by SPSS 17.00 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows.

Table 3. Alpha values of the instrument

<i>ALPHA</i>	<i>STANDARDIZED ITEM ALPHA</i>
.6965	.6382

According to Şencan (2005:253) any values between .60 to .80 indicates strong reliability. Although not too high, r .64 can be taken as a indicator of reliability of the questionnaire.

3.3.5 Implications for the main study

The procedures for data collection and analysis experienced in the pilot study revealed that the instrument was suitable for collecting the valid and reliable data concerning language and language learning beliefs of teachers.

The only problem in the pilot study was about the determination of the socioeconomic status of pre-service teachers. As a precaution, it was decided to prepare another mini scale study as mentioned before.

3.4 Main study

The main study consisted of filling out a questionnaire which included several belief statements about language and language learning in general by pre-service and in-service English language teachers. In the light of the findings of the pilot study, the main study was re-organised and carried out in 2008-2009 academic year.

3.4.1 Subjects and setting

The main study was conducted with the participation of 361 language teachers in total. 68 of the participants are in-service language teachers who work in schools in the city centre. The remaining 293 are pre-service language teachers from different grades, including the preparatory classes, at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (COMU), Education Faculty, ELT Department.

3.4.1.1 The in-service teacher sample

The characteristics of the in-service teachers who participated in the study are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Profile of the in-service participants in the main study

CATEGORY		F	%
Gender	Male	19	27.9
	Female	49	72.1
Experience	1-4 years	4	5.9
	5-8 years	13	19.1
	9-12 years	27	39.7
	13-16 years	7	10.3
	More than 17 years	17	25
Graduation	ELT	50	73.5
	English Lang. and Literature	13	19.1
	American Culture and Literature	3	4.4
	Science	2	2.9
School Type	Primary High School	24	35.3
	Vocational High School	13	19.1
	Regular High School	9	13.2
	Science/ Anatolian H.S.	22	32.4
Seminar	Yes	41	60.3
	No	27	39.7

There are 19 male (27.9%) and 49 female (72.1 %) in-service teachers from several school types in the city centre of Çanakkale. The majority of the participants currently teach in Primary ($r = 24$) and Science/ Anatolian High Schools ($r = 22$). When the distribution of the participants in the main study is interpreted, it could be said that teaching is considered as a female profession which means the study represents the social reality in the country. Additionally the high percentage of Primary and Anatolian High School teachers in the study is the result of national educational programme which includes relatively high number of English class hours per week.

Only 4 of the participant teachers have reported to have less than 5 years of teaching experience whereas the majority of them (69.1 %) are in 5-16th year of their teaching career which indicates that the sample group consists of experienced and presumably dynamic language teachers.

3.4.1.2 The pre-service teacher sample

Table 5 displays the characteristics of the pre-service teacher sample. The majority of the pre-service teachers in the main study are female (81.2 %) and graduates of Super High School. The second common school type is Anatolian High School (88%). Only 22 (7.5%) of the student teachers were graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools. Therefore, the majority of the pre-service teachers in the ELT Department had not received any training about language teaching before they entered the university. With regard to socioeconomic status 231 pre-service teachers (84.3%) were accepted as members of the low class, whereas 41 of them (15%) belonged to medium and only 2 of them (.7%) belonged to high socioeconomic class.

Table 5. Profile of the pre-service participants in the main study

CATEGORY		N	F	%
Gender	<i>Male</i>	293	55	18.8
	<i>Female</i>		238	81.2
Grade	<i>Preparatory Class</i>	293	45	15.4
	<i>First Grade</i>		66	22.5
	<i>Second Grade</i>		55	18.8
	<i>Third Grade</i>		50	17.1
	<i>Fourth Grade</i>		77	26.3
Graduation (N= 291)	<i>Regular High School</i>	291	6	2
	<i>Super High School</i>		173	59
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>		88	30
	<i>Anatolian Teacher Training H.S.</i>		22	7.5
	<i>Private High School</i>		2	.7
Socioeconomic Status	<i>Low</i>	274	231	84.3
	<i>Medium</i>		41	15
	<i>High</i>		2	.7

3.4.2 Instruments and procedures

In this survey study, data was collected by means of a questionnaire which was modified, translated and piloted before applying in the main study.

It was carried out with two groups of sample in the first term of 2008-2009 academic year in Çanakkale. The researcher herself distributed the questionnaire to the in-service English Language teachers who work in primary and high schools in the city centre. The second sample group consists of pre-service teachers who study ELT at COMU.

The participants were briefly informed about the objectives and content of the study before filling out the questionnaire. They were also reminded that the honesty was essential for a valid and reliable study and the object of the study was to obtain data related to research questions not to judge the participants. Especially for in-service teachers, the questionnaires were administered in envelopes in order to assure the respondents about the confidentiality.

The return rate was satisfactory for both sample groups. 68 of the 96 in-service teachers who work in the city-centre agreed to take part in the study. Likewise, totally 297 filled out questionnaires were returned from the ELT Department students although 4 of them were not used as they were not fully completed.

3.4.3 Procedures for data analysis

The data gathered from the study were entered onto the computer and analysed using SPSS 17.00 (Statistical Package for Social Studies). Frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were calculated. Several procedures, namely descriptive statistics, Independent Samples T-test, One-Way ANOVA and Crosstabulation analyses were also carried out to evaluate the data.

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter described the methodology applied in the study. It began with the purpose of the study and the research questions, and then the rationale for the study was given. In the following parts, the pilot and main studies were presented in detail.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the main study. These findings are also interpreted and discussed according to each research question.

4.1 Findings and discussion of the main study

The purpose of this study is to explore pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs with regard to language and language learning. It also aims to find out whether there is a relationship between these beliefs and some significant variables; such as gender, experience, graduation and socioeconomic status. For this reason, using a quantitative technique, the data was collected from two groups of participants. Both pre and in-service teachers were asked to fill out a self-report questionnaire which was redesigned by the researcher in the light of the research questions.

In this part of the thesis, the findings of the main study is presented in detail and discussed with reference to the research questions.

4.1.1 RQ 1: What are the beliefs of pre-service teachers related to language and language learning?

The main part of the instrument used in this study includes 33 items which could be grouped in 6 main areas. In order to find out the beliefs of pre-service teachers related to language and language learning, the responses of 293 ELT students were analysed and mean values were computed on SPSS 17.00.

Table 6. Mean scores for each factor

FACTOR	MEAN	SD
<i>Self-efficacy beliefs</i>	4.45	.52
<i>Learning and communication strategies</i>	3.99	.48
<i>Foreign language learning aptitude</i>	3.90	.52
<i>Teacher roles</i>	3.89	.81
<i>Nature of language learning</i>	3.73	.68
<i>Difficulty of language learning</i>	3.48	.68

As it can be seen in Table 6, the descriptive statistics results show that the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs formed the factor with the highest mean (Mean= 4.45; SD= .52). With regard to learning and communication strategies, the mean value seems to be very high (Mean= 3.99; SD= .48). However, when the fact that 6 of the 7 items in this factor have a more or less behaviouristic stance, the finding here should be approached tentatively. For instance, the majority of the participants agreed or totally agreed with the importance of practicing in the language laboratory (f: 269; 91.8%). Similarly item 6 was highly rated which was about the necessity of perfect pronunciation.

Considering the mean values shown in Table 6, it can be concluded that the participants in the main sample have strong beliefs about language and language learning in varying degrees of strength. In the following part of this section, each factor is examined in terms the frequency and percentages of the related items. The findings are interpreted and discussed in order to describe the beliefs of the pre-service teachers in the study.

As mentioned before, the student teachers in this study hold high self-efficacy perceptions which confirm the findings of the previous studies (Yang 2000; Siwatu 2006). They believe that they can teach English very well (*f*: 275; 93.9 %) by using several teaching methods and techniques (*f*: 263; 89.8%); they are able to overcome motivational problems (*f*: 269; 91.8%). Considering that teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy have better academic performance (Bembenutty 2006), the pre-service teachers in the study are expected to be successful language teachers in the future.

Another significant point is that a very high number of the participants evaluate their teacher training program satisfactory and think that they have necessary skills to be an effective teacher (*f*: 232; 79.2%). Despite these positive self-efficacy beliefs, they are still undecided about the difficulty of teaching a language. Although 123 of the participants consider teaching as an easy job (42%), a quite high percentage of them (*f*: 87; 29.7%) are not sure, moreover 83 of them (28.3%) think that it is not easy to teach English. As mentioned in the literature review part, one of the most effective factors which shape beliefs is experience (Richardson 2003). Since the participant pre-service teachers in the study have no or very little experience concerning language teaching, what this finding points out can be found natural.

All in all, it could be concluded that the pre-service teachers feel that they are ready to start their career as language teachers. Table 7 is for the full records of the findings related to this factor.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers

ITEM	N	AGREE / TOTALLY AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>5. I believe that I can teach English very well.</i>	293	275	93.9	16	5.5	2	.7
<i>14. It is easy to teach English.</i>	293	123	42	87	29.7	83	28.3
<i>26. My teacher training program and experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher</i>	291	232	79.7	44	15.1	15	5.2
<i>29. I can motivate unmotivated students.</i>	293	269	91.8	21	7.2	3	1
<i>30. I can use different teaching methods</i>	291	263	90.4	25	8.6	3	1

Table 8 displays the responses to the items concerning learning and communication strategies. There seems to be a consensus on the importance of repetition and practice in language learning (*f*: 289; 98.6%). Similarly, the participant teachers' beliefs about guessing are nearly the same. Almost all of them believe that guessing the unknown word contributes to understanding (*f*: 258; 88.1%). However, conflicting responses appear when it comes to pronunciation; although they do not agree with item 8: "You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly" (*f*: 247; 84.3%); nearly the same number of the participants believe that it is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation (*f*: 257; 87.7%).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and communication strategies

ITEM	N	AGREE / TOTALLY AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.</i>	292	257	87.7	15	5.1	20	6.8
<i>8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.</i>	292	17	5.8	28	9.6	247	84.6
<i>12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.</i>	292	258	88.4	25	8.6	9	3.1
<i>16. It is important to repeat and practice often.</i>	293	289	98.6	3	1	1	.3
<i>18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.</i>	293	149	50.9	63	21.5	81	27.6
<i>20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.</i>	292	269	92.1	14	4.8	9	3.1

The next factor consists of statements about foreign language aptitude. It questions both beliefs about the existence of aptitude and the qualities of the individuals who possess it (See Table 9). The participant teachers in the study agree that there is a special ability, called foreign language aptitude, which enables individuals to learn a language easily (*f*: 224; 76.5%). Moreover, the superiority of the children over adults (*f*: 282; 96.2%); and women over men (*f*: 146; 49.8%) were highly rated. However, they also believe that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language (*f*: 240; 81.9%).

It is also noteworthy that a great number of participants (*f*: 128; 44%) are not sure whether Turks are good at learning foreign languages. Moreover 30 participants totally disagreed with the same item (10.3 %). The responses given to item 13 can be seen as a reflection of a detrimental belief which should be focused on during the teacher training programme.

Table 9. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding foreign language aptitude

ITEM	N	AGREE / TOTALLY AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</i>	293	282	96.2	9	3.1	2	.7
<i>2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.</i>	292	224	76.7	39	13.4	29	9.9
<i>4. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</i>	293	240	81.9	33	11.3	20	6.8
<i>9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</i>	289	262	90.7	25	8.7	2	.7
<i>13. Turks are good at learning foreign languages.</i>	291	133	45.7	128	44	30	10.3
<i>21. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</i>	292	146	50	64	21.9	82	28.1
<i>28. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.</i>	292	85	29.1	81	27.7	126	43.2
<i>31. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.</i>	293	93	31.7	74	25.3	126	43

With regard to language teacher roles, more than half of the student teachers disagree with the statement that “the role of a language teacher is to control the students” (*f*: 155; 52.9 %). Item 22 could be regarded as a representative of a teacher centred approach to language teaching in which the responsibility of learning is mostly undertaken by the teacher who plans, organises, performs the learning/ teaching task. Contrastingly, the statement in item 17 represents a more modern approach which focuses on learner. In such an approach teacher is assigned to teach learner how to learn. Surprisingly, the participant teachers in the study rated these two statements in a similar range (for item 17 *f*: 272; 92.8 %, for item 22 *f*: 228; 77.8). This might be due to the effect of past experiences with schooling on the responses for item 22, and formal pedagogical knowledge they currently receive in their ELT programme for item 17 (See Table 10).

Table 10. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding language teacher roles

ITEM	N	AGREE / TOTALLY AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>11. The role of a language teacher is to control the students.</i>	293	76	25.9	62	21.2	155	52.9
<i>17. The role of a language teacher is to teach students how to learn.</i>	293	272	92.8	11	3.8	10	3.4
<i>22. The role of a language teacher is to share his/her knowledge.</i>	289	228	78.9	42	14.5	19	6.6

The pre-service teachers in the study also hold strong beliefs about the nature of language learning (See Table 11). When language learning is compared with other academic subjects, the majority of the participants share the same belief; they think that learning a foreign language is different from other school subjects (*f*: 278; 94.9%). With respect to place of grammar in language learning, there seems to be a disagreement among the pre-service teachers. Frequency of positive and negative responses to primacy of grammar study in language learning might give clues about future teachers' practice; 125 of them (42.7%) will probably design their lesson plans including grammatical structures whereas 121 of them will not (41.3%). However, a very high percentage of positive responses for item 15 (*f*: 194; 66.2%) reveal that there is a common belief among the pre-service teachers that learning a lot of new vocabulary words is a must in foreign language learning. Translation from the mother tongue is thought to be the least effective strategy which might indicate that future teachers will tend to use the target language all through their classes.

The remaining two items in this factor are about the place of the foreign culture in language learning. The participants believe that it is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country (*f*: 281; 95.9%) and it is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language (*f*: 184; 62.8%). These two beliefs need to be

worked on since the participants are expected to be the future teachers of the country who are going to teach English as a foreign language. If they believe that learning a foreign language is difficult without living in the foreign country, they would probably have difficulties also in teaching English in their own country. Moreover, teaching culture has recently been questioned by authors. Alptekin (2000) for example, emphasizes the *lingua franca* status of English and states that much communication in English involves non-native speaker non-native speaker interactions. Therefore,, he claims that there is a need for a rethink of the place of teaching culture in language teaching. In this manner, it could be concluded that pre-service teachers' beliefs could be seen detrimental and/or uninformed ones and needed to be changed.

Table 11. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding nature of language learning

ITEM	N	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.	293	184	62.8	57	19.5	52	17.7
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.	291	281	96.6	8	2.7	2	.7
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	292	194	66.4	37	12.7	61	20.9
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.	293	125	42.7	46	15.7	121	41.3
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.	292	278	95.2	4	1.4	10	3.4
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish.	290	34	11.7	40	13.8	216	74.5

The last set of belief statements which appears in Table 6 relates to beliefs about difficulty of language learning. Most of the participants in the study are able to speak at least two languages since the new teacher education programme includes compulsory second language (in this context German) courses for ELT Departments (see www.yok.gov.tr). In other words, the pre-service teachers themselves are language learners. For that reason, the responses given for the items in this factor might reflect their first-hand experience in foreign language learning (see Table 12).

Table 12. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning

ITEM	N	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>3. Some languages are easier than others.</i>	291	255	87.6	23	7.9	13	4.5
<i>23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.</i>	292	58	19.9	60	20.5	174	59.6
<i>27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.</i>	290	183	63.1	47	16.2	60	20.7

The majority of the participant teachers in the study believe that some languages are easier than others (*f*: 255; 87%) and they consider English as a language of medium difficulty (*f*: 40; 58.8%). With respect to estimate of time it will take to learn a language, the distribution of the agreement shows inconsistency as it can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13. Descriptive statistics of pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning

ITEM	LESS THAN A YEAR		1-2 YEARS		3-5 YEARS		5-10 YEARS		YOU CAN'T LEARN A LANGUAGE IN 1 HOUR A DAY.	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
32. <i>If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent? (N=291)</i>	54	18.4	25	8.5	66	22.5	113	38.6	33	11.3
Item	very easy		easy		medium difficulty		difficult		very difficult	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
33. <i>The language I am going to teach is (N=293)</i>	2	.7	35	11.9	183	62.5	70	23.9	3	1

What is interesting about the responses for item 32 and 33 that although the majority of the participants (*f*: 256; 75.1%) believe that the language they are going to teach has at most medium difficulty, only 145 of them (49.4 %) think that it could be learnt less than 5 years. This could be the result of the perspective which they looked from as they filled out the questionnaire. They might have responded the 32nd item from the learner perspective while the 33rd from the teachers.

Moreover, a similarity reveals between items 14 and 33; the majority of the pre-service teachers in this study find both the target language and the language teaching easy (see Tables 14 and 15).

Table 14 . Pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language teaching

ITEM	N	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
14. It is easy to teach English.	293	123	42	87	29.7	83	28.3

Table 15. Pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of the language they are going to teach

ITEM	VERY EASY		EASY		MEDIUM DIFFICULTY		DIFFICULT		VERY DIFFICULT	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
33. The language I am going to teach is (N=293)	2	.7	35	11.9	183	62.5	70	23.9	3	1

4.1.2 RQ 2: Is there a relationship between the beliefs of pre-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic background?

It is true that males and females differ in many areas and the language learning literature is full of studies which explore and examine gender differences in relation to several variables such as academic achievement (Erten 2009), motivation (Gardner and Lambert 1972 cited in Ellis 2004), and beliefs (Tercanlioğlu 2001; Diab 2005; Bernat and Lloyd 2007). For this study, it is expected that there should be some gender differences in pre-service teachers' beliefs since gender is a social variable rather than biological (Ellis 1994; Ozyurt 1994), like beliefs.

In order to investigate the possible relationship between pre-service teachers' beliefs and gender, Independent Samples T-Test was done (see Table 16).

Table 16. Results of Independent Samples T-test on gender differences in regard to different belief factors

FACTOR	GENDER	N	MEAN	SD	T	DF	SIG.
<i>Foreign Language Aptitude</i>	Female	238	3.92	.53	1.65	291	.10
	Male	55	3.79	.49			
<i>Difficulty of Language Learning</i>	Female	238	3.44	.68	-2.17	291	.03
	Male	55	3.66	.65			
<i>Nature of Language Learning</i>	Female	238	3.72	.67	-.83	291	.40
	Male	55	3.80	.72			
<i>Language and Communication Strategies</i>	Female	238	3.98	.48	-1.38	291	.16
	Male	55	4.07	.44			
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	Female	238	4.42	.54	-1.99	291	.04
	Male	55	4.57	.39			
<i>Teacher Roles</i>	Female	238	3.86	.83	-1.50	291	.13
	Male	55	4.04	.72			

A significant change in the male and female participants' beliefs was investigated in two factors concerning difficulty of language learning and teaching self-efficacy beliefs ($p < .05$). It contradicts with the findings of a study by Tercanlioğlu (2001) in which no significant differences were reported with regard to gender effect on pre-service language teachers' beliefs.

As shown in Table 17, for all items except one (item 30) the male pre-service teachers feel more efficient than the females. Since gender is a social variable (Ellis 1994; Ozyurt 1994), the findings might be regarded as representative of socio-cultural effect on pre-service teachers' self-conceptions; the males tend to rate their abilities higher than the females, as it was reported by Siebert (2003 cited in Bernat 2006; 2007) from a study concerning learner beliefs.

Table 17. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning self-efficacy in relation to gender difference

ITEM	GENDE R	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
5. I believe that I can teach English very well.	Female	222	93.3	15	6.3	1	.4
	Male	53	96.4	1	1.8	1	1.8
14. It is easy to teach English.	Female	94	39.5	72	30.3	72	30.3
	Male	29	52.7	15	27.3	11	20
26. My teacher training program and experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher	Female	185	78.4	38	16.1	13	5.5
	Male	47	85.5	6	10.9	2	3.6
29. I can motivate unmotivated students.	Female	216	90.8	19	8	3	1.3
	Male	53	96.4	2	3.0	0	0
30. I can use different teaching methods	Female	214	90.7	20	8.5	2	.8
	Male	49	89.1	5	9.1	1	1.8

Some significant differences were found in all items related to difficulty of language learning (see Table 18 a-b). First, almost all male participants believe that some languages are easier than others (f : 52; 94.5%) whereas 21 % of the females are not sure about it (f : 21). The second difference appears about the language skills. Although 60.8 % of the female participants believe that reading and writing are easier than speaking the target language, a very high number of them responded the item negatively; 53 of them disagreed or totally disagreed (22.4 %). The male participants supported the same statement more strongly than the females (f : 39; 73.6%). Taking into consideration that speaking needs not only the knowledge of the target language but also some social abilities, the finding here could indicate the influence of gender on individuals' beliefs. That is, oral participation is a kind of risk-taking activity (Chastain 1988) and requires positive self-conception which is improved in the social environment. The finding is also in line with Gass and Varonis' (1986 cited in Ellis 1994) research findings which showed that the males use the opportunities to interact to produce more output.

Table 18a. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to gender difference (Items 3, 23 and 27)

ITEM	GENDER	TOTALLY AGREE /		NOT SURE		DISAGREE /	
		AGREE				TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
3. Some languages are easier than others.	Female	203	86	21	8.9	12	5.1
	Male	52	94.5	2	3.6	1	1.8
23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	Female	43	18.1	48	20.3	146	61.6
	Male	15	27.3	12	21.8	28	50.9
27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.	Female	144	60.8	40	16.9	53	22.4
	Male	39	73.6	7	13.2	7	13.2

As Table 18b displays, the females are more optimistic about the time needed for becoming fluent in the target language; a very high number of the females report that a foreign language could be learned in less than a year ($f: 47; 19.8\%$) whereas only 7 of the males (13%) do. Furthermore, the percentage of the male participants who believe that it would take 5-10 years ($f: 23; 42.6\%$) is higher than the females ($f: 90; 38\%$). However, both groups agree on the difficulty of the language they are going to teach.

Table 18b. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to gender difference (Items 32 and 33)

ITEM	GENDER	LESS THAN A YEAR		1-2 YEARS		3-5 YEARS		5-10 YEARS		YOU CAN'T LEARN A LANGUAGE IN 1 HOUR A DAY.	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
32. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent?(N=291)	Female	47	19.8	18	7.6	57	24.1	90	38	25	10.5
	Male	7	13	7	13	9	16.7	23	42.6	8	14.8
Item	Gender	very easy		easy		medium difficulty		difficult		very difficult	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
33. The language I am going to teach is..... (N=293)	Female	1	.4	27	11.3	149	62.6	60	25.2	1	.4
	Male	1	1.8	8	14.5	34	61.8	10	18.2	2	3.6

Considering the possible influence of pedagogical and subject area teaching knowledge on teacher beliefs; while designing the study, grade was planned to be questioned as a variable in pre-service teachers' beliefs. In order to interpret the findings, firstly, the mean scores were calculated (see Table 16).

When the descriptive statistics results of the participants are examined, it is seen that the participants from all grades agreed with the items related to self-efficacy beliefs (see Table 19). On the other hand, it is surprising that the mean scores are

nearly the same for the responses of the prep class (f: 45; 4.49%) and the fourth class students. Moreover, the self-efficacy beliefs of the first, second and third grade students are relatively low. This could indicate that at the beginning of their teacher training programme, the pre-service teachers hold unrealistic or uninformed beliefs about language teaching. When they receive the content area teaching knowledge in the first grade, they start examining their efficacy in language teaching and at the end of the programme, they feel that they are ready to teach as they have taken the necessary courses and developed teaching skills.

Table 19. Differences in factors in relation to grade

FACTOR	GRADE	N	MEAN	SD
<i>Foreign Language Aptitude</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	3.74	.51
	<i>First grade</i>	66	3.99	.52
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	3.82	.55
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	3.87	.43
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	3.98	.55
<i>Difficulty of Language Learning</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	3.47	.69
	<i>First grade</i>	66	3.74	.65
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	3.40	.71
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	3.30	.50
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	3.44	.73
<i>Nature of Language Learning</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	3.98	.57
	<i>First grade</i>	66	3.84	.73
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	3.71	.61
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	3.50	.71
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	3.65	.65
<i>Language and Communication Strategies</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	4.04	.44
	<i>First grade</i>	66	4.11	.45
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	4.01	.44
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	3.92	.48
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	3.89	.52
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	4.49	.41
	<i>First grade</i>	66	4.41	.60
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	4.40	.57
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	4.40	.51
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	4.50	.47
<i>Teacher Roles</i>	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	3.89	.78
	<i>First grade</i>	66	3.88	.79
	<i>Second grade</i>	55	4.00	.91
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	3.97	.78
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	3.78	.80

In order to investigate possible differences in pre-service teachers' beliefs in relation to grade, the findings were calculated via One-way ANOVA and some significant changes were found in three factors; difficulty and nature of language learning and learning and communication strategies (See Table 20).

Post HOC Tukey HSD analysis was carried out to find out which beliefs differ within beliefs. According to the results, with regard to the difficulty of language learning, there is a difference between the first class students' beliefs (Mean=3.74) and second (Mean= 3.40) and third classes (Mean=3.30). About the nature of language learning, the prep class students (Mean=Prep. 3.98) differ from the third class students (Mean= 3.50). Lastly, in the factor related to language and communication strategies, a statistical difference was investigated; first class students (Mean=4.12) hold stronger beliefs than fourth class students (Mean=3.85). Fortunately, the findings here contradict with the findings of Peacock's study as there were no significant changes in pre-service ESL teachers' mistaken beliefs during their preparation programme.

Table 20. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to grade

FACTOR		SUM OF SQUAR ES	DF	MEAN SQUA RE	F	SIG	GROUP DIFFERE NCES
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	6.650	4	.1662	3.735	.006	1 st > 2 nd 1 st > 3 rd
	<i>Within groups</i>	128.185	288	.445			
	<i>Total</i>	134.834	292				
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	6.565	4	1.641	3.728	.006	Prep>3 rd
	<i>Within groups</i>	126.790	288	.440			
	<i>Total</i>	133.354	292				
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Between groups</i>	2.197	4	.549	2.466	.045	1 st > 4 th
	<i>Within groups</i>	64.152	288	.223			
	<i>Total</i>	66.349	292				

A significant difference can be detected especially in three items of the factor concerning difficulty of language learning; there are items 23, 27 and 33.

The responses given to the 23rd and 27th items reveal that the pre-service teacher beliefs related to difficulty of speaking gradually change from the first grade through the third (see Table 21a). The first grade students more strongly believe that it is easier to speak than understand a language ($f: 21; 32.3\%$) than the second grade ($f: 9; 16.4\%$)

and the third grade students (f : 1; 2%). Furthermore, the first grade students consider reading and writing the language easier than speaking and understanding it (f : 47; 72.3%). Agreement rates for the same item are 49.1% (f : 27) for second grade students and 58% (f : 29) for the third grade students.

Table 21a. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to grade difference

ITEM	GRADE	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
3. Some languages are easier than others. ($N=291$)	<i>Preparatory</i>	42	93.3	0	0	3	6.7
	<i>First grade</i>	59	89.4	5	7.6	2	3
	<i>Second grade</i>	46	83.6	6	10.9	3	5.5
	<i>Third grade</i>	45	90	4	8	1	2
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	63	84	8	10.7	4	5.3
23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language ($N=292$)	<i>Preparatory</i>	11	24.4	8	17.8	26	57.8
	<i>First grade</i>	21	32.3	16	24.6	28	43.1
	<i>Second grade</i>	9	16.4	16	29.1	30	54.5
	<i>Third grade</i>	1	2	8	16	41	82
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	16	20.8	12	15.6	49	63.6
27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it. ($N=290$)	<i>Preparatory</i>	34	77.3	4	9.1	6	13.6
	<i>First grade</i>	47	72.3	11	16.9	7	10.8
	<i>Second grade</i>	27	49.1	11	20	17	30.9
	<i>Third grade</i>	29	58	7	14	14	28
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	46	60.5	14	18.4	16	21.1

Despite their positive beliefs reported for items 23 and 27, only 6.1 % of the first grade students think that English is an easy language (f : 4). They believe that it is a language of medium difficulty (f : 45; 68.2%) or a difficult language (f : 15; 22.7%). (see Table 21b)

Table 21b. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning difficulty of language learning in relation to grade difference

ITEM	GRADE	LESS THAN A YEAR		1-2 YEARS		3-5 YEARS		5-10 YEARS		YOU CAN'T LEARN A LANGUAGE IN 1 HOUR A DAY.	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
32. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent?(N=291)	<i>Preparatory</i>	14	31.8	3	6.8	11	25	11	25	5	11.4
	<i>First grade</i>	8	12.1	7	10.6	17	25.8	23	34.8	11	16.7
	<i>Second grade</i>	7	13	3	5.6	12	22.2	24	44.4	8	14.8
	<i>Third grade</i>	9	18	5	10	12	24	21	42	3	6
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	16	20.8	7	9.1	14	18.2	34	44.2	6	7.8
Item	Grade	very easy		easy		medium difficulty		difficult		very difficult	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
33. The language I am going to teach is (N=293)	<i>Preparatory</i>	1	2.2	6	13.3	29	64.4	9	20	0	0
	<i>First grade</i>	0	0	4	6.1	45	68.2	15	22.7	2	3
	<i>Second grade</i>	0	0	10	18.2	34	61.8	10	18.2	1	1.8
	<i>Third grade</i>	0	0	5	10	32	64	13	26	0	0
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	1	1.3	10	13	43	55.8	23	29.9	0	0

The analysis of the responses indicates that the pre-service teachers in the preparatory and third classes do not share the same beliefs with regard to nature of language learning. The difference becomes apparent especially in the responses given to 7th, 15th, 19th and 25th items. Third class students more strongly believe that knowing the target culture is necessary for foreign language learners (*f*: 36; 72%). Contrarily, their beliefs were weaker about the primacy of vocabulary (*f*: 20; 40%); grammar (*f*: 16; 32%); and translation (*f*: 3; 6%) than the preparatory class students' (See Table 22). This may indicate that since the preparatory class students have recently prepared for the university entrance examination which might have forced them to memorise a great amount of vocabulary, practice grammar points and translate into their mother tongue, they are under the influence of their *personal language learning experience*

(Richardson 2003) whereas the third class students consider language learning as a whole. Furthermore, avoiding translation and grammar-orientation could be interpreted as the effects of the main methodology courses which they have taken in the third year. In other words, it could be said that the third class pre-service teachers' beliefs have evolved due to their *experience with formal knowledge* at the faculty level (Richardson 2003). It is also in line with the findings of the study by Mattheoudakis (2007) in which a gradual change in pre-service teachers beliefs were investigated during a 3-year teacher education programme.

A significant difference between the first and fourth class students' beliefs was investigated in almost all items concerning learning and communication strategies (See Table 23). For example, the importance of excellent pronunciation decreases while using the language from the beginning is supported by more participants in the fourth year.

Table 22. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning nature of language learning in relation to grade difference

FACTOR	GRADE	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language. (N= 293)	<i>Preparatory</i>	24	53.3	10	22.2	11	24.4
	<i>First grade</i>	42	63.6	11	16.7	13	19.7
	<i>Second grade</i>	26	47.3	20	36.4	9	16.4
	<i>Third grade</i>	36	72	9	18	5	10
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	56	72.7	7	9.1	14	18.2
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country. (N=291)	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>First grade</i>	61	95.3	3	4.7	0	0
	<i>Second grade</i>	51	92.7	2	3.6	2	3.6
	<i>Third grade</i>	50	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	74	96.1	3	3.9	0	0
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	38	84.4	2	4.4	5	11.1
	<i>First grade</i>	45	68.2	8	12.1	13	19.7
	<i>Second grade</i>	40	72.7	7	12.7	8	14.5
	<i>Third grade</i>	20	40	8	16	22	44
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	51	67.1	12	15.8	13	17.1
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules. (N=293)	<i>Preparatory</i>	29	64.4	1	2.2	15	33.3
	<i>First grade</i>	32	48.5	13	19.7	21	31.8
	<i>Second grade</i>	24	43.6	14	25.5	17	30.9
	<i>Third grade</i>	16	32	4	8	30	60
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	24	31.2	14	18.2	39	50.6
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	43	95.6	0	0	2	4.4
	<i>First grade</i>	64	98.5	0	0	1	1.5
	<i>Second grade</i>	50	90.9	2	3.6	3	5.5
	<i>Third grade</i>	48	96	1	2	1	2
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	73	94.8	1	1.3	3	3.9
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish. (N=290)	<i>Preparatory</i>	9	20	8	17.8	28	62.2
	<i>First grade</i>	11	16.9	10	15.4	44	67.7
	<i>Second grade</i>	5	9.3	9	16.7	40	74.1
	<i>Third grade</i>	3	6	7	14	40	80
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	6	7.9	6	7.9	64	84.2

Table 23. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning learning and communication strategies in relation to grade difference

FACTOR	GRADE	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	43	95.6	1	2.2	1	2.2
	<i>First grade</i>	61	92.4	1	1.5	4	6.1
	<i>Second grade</i>	48	87.3	2	3.6	5	9.1
	<i>Third grade</i>	42	84	3	6	5	10
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	63	82.9	8	10.5	5	6.6
8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	3	6.7	4	8.9	38	84.4
	<i>First grade</i>	8	12.3	8	12.3	49	75.4
	<i>Second grade</i>	4	7.3	6	10.9	45	81.1
	<i>Third grade</i>	1	2	3	6	46	92
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	1	1.3	7	9.1	69	89.6
12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	38	84.4	3	6.7	4	8.9
	<i>First grade</i>	54	83.1	11	16.9	0	0
	<i>Second grade</i>	45	81.8	7	12.7	3	5.5
	<i>Third grade</i>	47	94	2	4	1	2
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	74	96.1	2	2.6	1	1.3
16. It is important to repeat and practice often. (N=293)	<i>Preparatory</i>	45	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>First grade</i>	65	98.5	1	1.5	0	0
	<i>Second grade</i>	53	96.4	2	3.6	0	0
	<i>Third grade</i>	49	98	0	0	1	2
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	77	100	0	0	0	0
18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on. (N=293)	<i>Preparatory</i>	25	55.6	7	15.6	13	28.9
	<i>First grade</i>	36	54.5	14	21.2	16	24.2
	<i>Second grade</i>	30	54.5	15	27.3	10	18.2
	<i>Third grade</i>	23	46	13	26	14	28
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	35	45.5	14	18.2	28	36.4
20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory. (N=292)	<i>Preparatory</i>	43	95.6	2	4.4	0	0
	<i>First grade</i>	65	98.5	1	1.5	0	0
	<i>Second grade</i>	52	94.5	1	1.8	2	3.6
	<i>Third grade</i>	44	89.8	4	8.2	1	2
	<i>Fourth grade</i>	65	84.4	6	7.8	6	7.8

To investigate the possible differences in pre-service teachers' beliefs according to the high school programmes that they have graduated from, first the descriptive statistics analysis was done (See Table 24).

Table 24. Differences in factors in relation to high school graduation (N=291)

FACTOR	SCHOOL TYPE	N	MEAN	SD
Foreign Language Aptitude	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	3.71	.70
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	3.90	.54
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	3.90	.47
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.37	.17
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	3.94	.57
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	4.00	1.00
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	3.50	.66
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	3.43	.70
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.2	.57
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	3.36	.60
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	4.55	.40
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	3.74	.70
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	3.68	.66
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.67	.47
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	3.63	.72
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	4.27	.49
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	4.01	.47
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	3.96	.46
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.17	.71
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	3.98	.51
Self-efficacy Beliefs	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	4.67	.30
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	4.43	.52
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	4.49	.47
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.60	.00
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	4.36	.73
Teacher Roles	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	4.33	.84
	<i>Super High School</i>	173	3.91	.84
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	88	3.81	.76
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	4.33	.94
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	22	3.94	.86

As shown in the table, the participant student teachers are graduates of different types of high schools; Regular High School, Super High School, Anatolian High School and Anatolian High School. With regard to foreign language aptitude (Mean= 4.37), difficulty of language learning (Mean= 4.2), and nature of language learning (Mean= 4.67), the participants who have graduated from private high schools reported stronger beliefs than the others. Considering that there are only two private high school graduates in the sample group, it could be more reliable if the findings are discussed excluding them.

The regular high school graduates appear to have the highest mean scores in four main factors; nature of language learning (Mean= 4.55), language and communication strategies (Mean= 4.27), self-efficacy beliefs (Mean= 4.67) and language teacher roles (Mean= 4.33).

When One-way ANOVA analysis is carried out there seems to be no difference between the groups related to 5 factors, namely foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, learning and communication strategies, self-efficacy beliefs and teacher roles ($p > .05$). Of all the factors, for the one related to nature of language learning, there found a difference between the groups ($p < .05$) (see Table 25).

Table 25. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to high school graduation

FACTOR		SUM OF SQU ARES	DF	MEAN SQUA RE	F	SIG	GROUP DIFFERENCES
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	6.623	5	1.325	3000	.012	Regular H.S.G.> Anatolian H.S.G.> Anat. Teach. Tra. H.S.
	<i>Within groups</i>	126.7 31	287	.442			
	<i>Total</i>	133.3 54	292				

The pre-service teachers who graduated from regular high schools have the strongest mean value about the factor (Mean= 4.56) whereas the Anatolian Teacher Training High school graduates have the weakest (Mean= 3.63).

The first item of the factor is about the place of the target culture in language learning (see Table 26). The majority of the regular high school graduates strongly believe that it is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language (*f*: 5; 83.3%) while only 40.9% of the Anatolian teacher training high school graduates agreed with this statement (*f*: 9).

Another difference that was found between these groups is about the primacy of grammar in language learning. All of the regular high school graduates believe that “learning a language is a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules” (item 19) while 31.8 % of Anatolian teacher training high school graduates disagree (*f*: 7) and 22.7 % of them are not sure (*f*: 5).

Similarly, the regular high school graduates’ support for the belief that “learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words” (item 15) is stronger than the Anatolian teacher training high school graduates (*f*: 6; 100%; *f*: 16; 72.7% respectively).

Half of the regular high school graduates supported the primacy of translation (*f*: 3; 50%) whereas the same belief was shared only 2 of 22 Anatolian teacher training high school graduates (*f*: 2; 9.1%).

When all these findings are examined, it could be concluded that the pre-service teachers with different high school origins hold different beliefs about nature of language learning. In this case, the difference between the responses given to each item mentioned above could be explained when the sources of these beliefs are taken into consideration. The graduates of Anatolian teacher training high schools start pre-service teacher education programme with several beliefs about language learning and teaching which have its roots in their personal experiences with formal pedagogical knowledge at high school level. Contrastingly, the regular school graduates’ beliefs have been shaped under the influence of personal language learning experiences without any theoretical information. In other words, they probably agreed with the

statements which reflect their own history of language learning. This could explain why the primacy of translation, grammar and vocabulary were highly supported by the regular high school graduates. This finding also supports the fact that individuals' belief systems are shaped by their personal learning experiences and their experience with formal knowledge (Chan 1999; Matheoudakis 2006; Richardson 2003).

Table 26. Pre-service teachers' beliefs concerning nature of language learning in relation to high school graduation

ITEM	SCHOOL TYPE	TOTALLY AGREE/ AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE/ TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language. (N=293)	<i>Regular High School</i>	5	83.3	1	16.7	0	0
	<i>Super High School</i>	112	64.7	36	20.8	25	14.5
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	54	61.4	15	17.0	19	21.6
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	9	40.9	5	22.7	8	36.4
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country. (N=291)	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Super High School</i>	167	96.5	4	2.3	2	1.2
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	85	97.7	2	2.3	0	0
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	19	90.5	2	9.5	0	0
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words. (N=292)	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Super High School</i>	114	66.3	21	12.2	37	21.5
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	55	62.5	13	14.8	20	22.7
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	16	72.7	3	13.6	3	13.6
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules. (N=293)	<i>Regular High School</i>	6	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Super High School</i>	72	41.6	27	15.6	74	42.8
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	36	40.9	13	14.8	39	44.3
	<i>Private High School</i>	1	50	1	50	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	10	45.5	5	22.7	7	31.8
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects. (N=292)	<i>Regular High School</i>	5	83.3	0	0	1	16.7
	<i>Super High School</i>	166	96.5	2	1.2	4	2.3
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	82	93.2	2	2.3	4	4.5
	<i>Private High School</i>	2	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	21	95.5	0	0	1	4.5
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish. (N=290)	<i>Regular High School</i>	3	50	1	16.7	2	33.3
	<i>Super High School</i>	18	10.5	20	11.7	133	77.8
	<i>Anatolian High School</i>	10	11.5	14	16.1	63	72.4
	<i>Private High School</i>	1	50	1	50	0	0
	<i>Anat. Teacher- Training H.S.</i>	2	9.1	4	18.2	16	72.7

A parallelism between individuals' social class and language development has been reported in the literature (Preston 1989 cited in Ellis 1994). In this particular study, any correspondence was sought between the socioeconomic status and beliefs about language and language learning. After distinguishing three socioeconomic groups, findings were analysed statistically. As Table 27 displays no significant differences have been found related to socioeconomic status.

Table 27. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to the socioeconomic status of the pre-service teachers

FACTOR		SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIG
Foreign Language Aptitude	<i>Between groups</i>	.305	2	.153	.553	.576
	<i>Within groups</i>	74.818	271	.276		
	<i>Total</i>	75.123	273			
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	1.281	2	.640	1.412	.245
	<i>Within groups</i>	122.867	271	.453		
	<i>Total</i>	124.148	273			
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	.535	2	.268	.573	.565
	<i>Within groups</i>	126.623	271	.467		
	<i>Total</i>	127.158	273			
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Between groups</i>	3.542E-03	2	1771E-03	.008	.992
	<i>Within groups</i>	62.673	271	.231		
	<i>Total</i>	62.677	273			
Self efficacy Beliefs	<i>Between groups</i>	1.544	2	.772	2.870	.058
	<i>Within groups</i>	72.915	271	.269		
	<i>Total</i>	74.459	273			
Teacher Roles	<i>Between groups</i>	1.684	2	.842	1.274	.281
	<i>Within groups</i>	179.041	271	.661		
	<i>Total</i>	180.725	273			

4.1.3 RQ 3: What are the beliefs of in-service teachers related to language and language learning?

Six factors of the instrument are listed in Table 28 according to the mean scores obtained from the data collected. As it can be clearly seen, self-efficacy beliefs appear in the first line which indicates that the participants agreed with the set of the statements in the factor (Mean= 4.59; SD= .57).

Table 28 . Mean scores for each factor

FACTOR	N	MEAN	SD
<i>Self-efficacy beliefs</i>	68	4.59	.57
<i>Learning and communication strategies</i>	68	3.85	.69
<i>Foreign language learning aptitude</i>	68	3.85	.93
<i>Teacher roles</i>	68	3.80	.64
<i>Nature of language learning</i>	68	3.72	.64
<i>Difficulty of language learning</i>	68	3.30	.68

None of the participant teachers in the study thinks that s/he cannot teach English well (f: 255; 87%). They have reported to believe that it is easy to teach English (f: 52; 76.5%); and they are able to use different teaching methods (f: 63; 92.6%) and they can get through to unmotivated students (f: 55; 80.9%). Additionally, the findings show that they think they owe the necessary skills of effective teachers to their teacher training programme and experience (f: 55; 80.9%).

Considering the strong effect of self-efficacy beliefs on success (Bıkmaz 2004), it can be said that high self-efficacy beliefs lead successful teaching. From this point of view, the general picture of the in-service teachers beliefs related to self-efficacy seems

positive (See Table 29). However, it should always be questioned that whether these beliefs are realistic or not. Moreover, teachers with very high self-efficacy beliefs may give up reading published materials, asking for more information, trying out new techniques or attending staff development courses. They may ignore student feedback or collaboration with colleagues. To sum up, when teachers view themselves as perfect professionals, they may stop trying to develop themselves. Certainly, there needs to be more studies in this issue.

Table 29 . Descriptive statistics of self- efficacy beliefs of in-service teachers

ITEM	N	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>5. I believe that I can teach English very well.</i>	68	62	91.2	6	8.8	0	0
<i>14. It is easy to teach English.</i>	68	52	76.5	8	11.8	8	11.8
<i>26. My teacher training program and experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.</i>	66	55	83.3	5	7.6	6	9.1
<i>29. I can motivate unmotivated students</i>	68	55	80.9	10	14.7	3	4.4
<i>30. I can use different teaching methods</i>	68	63	92.6	4	5.9	1	1.5

The second highest mean score is for the items related to communication strategies (see Table 30). All teachers agree that it is important to repeat and practice often while learning a foreign language. Similarly, guessing the unknown vocabulary (*f*: 57; 83.8%) and speaking the target language from the beginning (*f*: 48; 70.6) are highly accepted as useful learning and communication strategies.

Table 30. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding learning and communication strategies

ITEM	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.</i>	52	76.5	3	4.4	13	19.1
<i>8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly. (N=65)</i>	11	16.9	6	9.2	48	73.8
<i>12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language. (N=67)</i>	57	85.1	6	9	4	6
<i>16. It is important to repeat and practice often.</i>	68	100	0	0	0	0
<i>18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.</i>	32	47.1	8	11.8	28	41.2
<i>20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.</i>	53	77.9	6	8.8	9	13.2

With reference to foreign language aptitude, almost all of the participant teachers support the common belief that “it is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language” (*f*: 65; 95.6%). They also believe that it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one (*f*: 58; 85.3%).

Although they agree with the existence of foreign language aptitude (item 2: *f*: 58; 85.3%), they think that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language (*f*: 60; 88.2 %) which may indicate that they are optimistic about their students. The optimism also reveals in the 13th item which they agreed with the statement that Turks are good at learning foreign languages (*f*: 36; 52.9%).

It is also noteworthy that the participant teachers are uncertain about the relationship between language learning and intelligence and female superiority over male. The percentages of agreement and disagreement for both beliefs are very close to each other. 27 of 68 participants think that females are better than men at learning

foreign languages (39.7 %) whereas 29 do not (42.6%). Similarly, 32 in-service teachers agree with the belief that people who speak more than one language well are very intelligent (47.1%) while 24 of them disagree (35.3%). Table 31 displays the findings related to foreign language aptitude.

Table 31. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding foreign language aptitude

ITEM	TOTALLY / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</i>	65	95.6	0	0	3	4.4
<i>2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.</i>	58	85.3	4	5.9	6	8.8
<i>4. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</i>	60	88.2	2	2.9	6	8.8
<i>9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</i> (<i>N=66</i>)	58	87.9	5	7.6	3	4.5
<i>13. Turks are good at learning foreign languages.</i> (<i>N=66</i>)	36	54.5	20	30.3	10	15.2
<i>21. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</i>	27	39.7	12	17.6	29	42.6
<i>28. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.</i>	11	16.2	8	11.8	49	72.1
<i>31. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.</i>	32	47.1	12	17.6	24	35.3

The findings of the factor related to language teacher roles reveal that teachers tend to follow a learner-centred approach instead of teacher-centred one. When Table 32 is studied, it is seen that the majority of the participant teachers avoid being a controller (*f*: 37; 54.4%) and they prefer teaching their students how to learn (*f*: 61; 89.7%). What is interesting here is that they also support the transmission of teacher knowledge to the students at nearly the same range (*f*: 53; 77.9%). This may indicate that in-service teachers are still uncertain about the role of the teacher in a foreign language classroom. This may be because of the traditional approach to teaching due to their past language learning experiences or that teaching in Turkey do not challenge them to use

different methods. From another point of view, there could be tension between theory and practice of teachers since the curriculum has recently changed. The new curriculum follows a learner-centred approach which contradicts *teachers' familiar routines* (Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006) and they probably have difficulty in adaptation to their new roles in the language classroom.

Table 32. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding language teacher roles

ITEM	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
11. <i>The role of a language teacher is to control the students.</i> (<i>N=64</i>)	19	29.7	8	12.5	37	57.8
17. <i>The role of a language teacher is to teach students how to learn.</i>	61	89.7	2	2.9	5	7.4
22. <i>The role of a language teacher is to share his/her knowledge.</i>	53	77.9	7	10.3	8	11.8

The next factor consists of a group of items which addresses the beliefs regarding nature of language learning (see Table 33). When the responses to items 15, 19 and 25 are compared, some conclusions can be drawn about teachers' opinions with reference to beliefs about what language learning is. It can be seen that in-service language teachers in the study mostly believe that learning a lot of vocabulary is essential for language learning (*f*: 50; 73.5%); and again the majority of them think that translation from the mother tongue should be avoided (*f*: 55; 80.9%). Yet, there is no consensus on the place of grammar amongst the participant teachers; while 30 of them consider grammar as the main component in language learning (44.1%), 29 disagreed with the same statement. If beliefs have influence on practice (Woods 1996; Cohen and Fass 2001; Davis, 2003; Yero 2002; Hatipoğlu Kavanoz 2006; Bai and Ertmer 2004), all these findings may indicate that the participant teachers in this study spend most of their time teaching vocabulary; very seldom use Turkish to explain issues in the classroom and are not sure whether grammar rules should be taught or not.

There are some more worrying findings in this factor. For example, almost all of the participants strongly believe that it is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country (f : 65; 95.6%). For English is taught as a foreign language in Turkey, such a belief might represent the language teachers' feeling of desperation. Another detrimental belief appears on the item related to teaching culture. A very high number of the participants agreed with the statement that "it is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language" (f : 49; 72.1%). As mentioned before English is a lingua franca and it is spoken all around the world with several purposes. In other words, there is not a unique culture to be taught (Alptekin 2000). This traditional belief of language teachers should be studied on.

Table 33 . Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding nature of language learning

ITEM	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language. (N=67)	49	73.1	4	6	14	20.9
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.	65	95.6	1	1.5	2	2.9
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.	50	73.5	6	8.8	12	17.6
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.	30	44.1	9	13.2	29	42.6
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.	62	91.2	3	4.4	3	4.4
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish.	5	7.4	8	11.8	55	80.9

The last factor measures various beliefs about difficulty of language learning. The in-service teachers in the study consider English as a language of medium difficulty (f : 40; 58.8%) and the majority of them think that if an hour a day was spent learning a language, it would take 1-2 years (f : 22; 36.1%) or less than a year (f : 10; 26.4%) to

become fluent (see Table 34a). In general, it is possible to say that the sample group holds optimistic beliefs about the difficulty of the language they teach.

Table 34a. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning (items 32 and 33)

ITEM	LESS THAN A YEAR		1-2 YEARS		3-5 YEARS		5-10 YEARS		YOU CAN'T LEARN A LANGUAGE IN 1 HOUR A DAY.	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>32. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent? (N=61)</i>	10	16.4	22	36.1	11	18	5	8.2	13	21.3
Item	very easy		easy		medium difficulty		difficult		very difficult	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>33. The language I am trying to teach is.... (N= 68)</i>	4	5.9	19	27.9	40	58.8	5	7.4	0	0

Additionally, the findings of the 23rd and 27th items may indicate that speaking is considered as the most difficult skill in language learning by the participants (see Table 34b). They commonly believe that it is difficult to speak than understand a foreign language (*f*: 41; 60.3%) and it is easier to read and write the language than speak and understand it (*f*: 40; 59.7%).

Table 34b. Descriptive statistics of in-service teachers' beliefs regarding difficulty of language learning (items 3, 23 and 27)

ITEM	N	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>3. Some languages are easier than others.</i>	68	61	89.7	2	2.9	5	7.4
<i>23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.</i>	68	19	27.9	8	11.8	41	60.3
<i>27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.</i>	67	40	59.7	8	11.9	19	28.4

4.1.4 RQ 4: Is there a relationship between the beliefs of in-service teachers in regard to language and language learning and gender, graduation and teaching experience and the school type the participants work in?

Some statistical analyses were carried out to find out whether there is a relationship between the variables in the research question and the beliefs of in-service teachers in regard to language and language learning. First of all, any possible gender differences were sought via Independent Samples T-Test (see Table 35). The results reveal that male and female participants' beliefs differ in two main areas; beliefs about foreign language aptitude ($p > .05$) and learning and communication strategies ($p > .005$).

Table 35 . Results of Independent Samples T-test on gender differences in regard to different belief factors

FACTOR	GENDE R	N	MEA N	SD	T	DF	SIG.	GROUP DIFFER ENCES
<i>Foreign Language Aptitude</i>	Female	49	3.90	.60	2.02	66	.047	Females > males
	Male	19	3.55	.70				
<i>Difficulty of Language Learning</i>	Female	49	3.24	.72	-1.29	66	.199	
	Male	19	3.48	.53				
<i>Nature of Language Learning</i>	Female	49	3.80	.56	1.70	66	.094	
	Male	19	3.51	.79				
<i>Language and Communication Strategies</i>	Female	49	4.00	.66	2.98	66	.004	Females > males
	Male	19	3.47	.64				
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	Female	49	4.57	.59	-.622	66	.536	
	Male	19	4.66	.52				
<i>Teacher Roles</i>	Female	49	3.95	.87	1.42	66	.160	
	Male	19	3.60	1.06				

Table 36 displays the gender differences in teachers' beliefs regarding foreign language aptitude. The female teachers more strongly support the common beliefs that "some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign

languages” (f: 44; 89.8%) and “people who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages” (f: 10; 20.4%). It is not surprising that the females agree with item 21 more strongly which addresses women superiority over men in language learning (f: 21; 42.9%).

Another significant difference between these two groups appears in the responses given to the 9th item. Almost all of the females believe that “it is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one” (f: 43; 91.5%). None of them disagreed with the statement while the percentage of the same response was 15.8% for the males (f: 3).

The females also more strongly believe that Turks are good at learning foreign languages (f: 29; 60.4%) than the males (f: 7; 38.9%).

Table 36. In-service teachers' beliefs concerning foreign language aptitude in relation to gender difference

ITEM	GENDE R	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	Female	47	95.9	0	0	2	4.1
	Male	18	94.7	0	0	1	5.3
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.	Female	44	89.8	2	4.1	3	6.1
	Male	14	73.7	2	10.5	3	15.8
4. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	Female	43	87.8	2	4.1	4	8.2
	Male	17	89.5	0	0	2	10.5
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	Female	43	91.5	4	8.5	0	0
	Male	15	78.9	1	5.3	3	15.8
13. Turks are good at learning foreign languages.	Female	29	60.4	12	25	7	14.6
	Male	7	38.9	8	44.4	3	16.7
21. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	Female	21	42.9	9	18.4	19	38.8
	Male	6	31.6	3	15.8	10	52.6
28. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.	Female	10	20.4	5	10.2	34	69.4
	Male	1	5.3	3	15.8	15	78.9
31. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.	Female	23	46.9	10	20.4	16	32.7
	Male	9	47.4	2	10.5	8	42.1

With regard to learning and communication strategies, the female participants agreed with the belief statements in all items more strongly than the males, except 16 (see Table 37).

Table 37. In-service teachers' beliefs concerning learning and communication strategies in relation to gender difference

ITEM	GENDE R	TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.	<i>Female</i>	41	83.7	1	2	7	14.3
	<i>Male</i>	11	57.9	2	10.5	6	31.6
8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.	<i>Female</i>	9	19.6	5	10.9	32	69.6
	<i>Male</i>	2	10.5	1	5.3	16	84.2
12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.	<i>Female</i>	42	87.5	3	6.3	3	6.3
	<i>Male</i>	15	78.9	3	15.8	1	5.3
16. It is important to repeat and practice often.	<i>Female</i>	100	100	0	0	0	0
	<i>Male</i>	100	100	0	0	0	0
18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	<i>Female</i>	26	53.1	6	12.2	17	34.7
	<i>Male</i>	6	31.6	2	10.5	11	57.9
20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.	<i>Female</i>	41	83.7	3	6.1	5	10.2
	<i>Male</i>	12	63.2	3	15.8	4	21.1

To investigate the possible effects of faculty graduation, teaching experience and the school type the participants currently work in on their beliefs concerning language and language teaching, first mean scores were calculated and then ANOVA analysis was carried out. The findings are presented in tables for each variable below.

Table 38. One-way ANOVA analysis results according to faculty graduation

FACTOR		SUM OF SQUARE S	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIG
Foreign Language Aptitude	<i>Between groups</i>	.122	3	4.06E-02	.094	.963
	<i>Within groups</i>	27.698	64	.433		
	<i>Total</i>	27.820	67			
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	2.844	3	.948	2.180	.099
	<i>Within groups</i>	27.831	64	.435		
	<i>Total</i>	30.675	67			
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	.924	3	.308	.744	.530
	<i>Within groups</i>	26.473	64	.414	.	
	<i>Total</i>	27.397	67			
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Between groups</i>	.676	3	.225	.457	.713
	<i>Within groups</i>	31.566	64	.493		
	<i>Total</i>	32.242	67			
Self efficacy Beliefs	<i>Between groups</i>	.439	3	.146	.442	.724
	<i>Within groups</i>	21.159	64	.331		
	<i>Total</i>	21.598	67			
Teacher Roles	<i>Between groups</i>	2.285	3	.762	.867	.463
	<i>Within groups</i>	56.244	64	.879		
	<i>Total</i>	58.529	67			

Table 39 . One-way ANOVA analysis results according to teaching experience

FACTOR		SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIG
Foreign Language Aptitude	<i>Between groups</i>	1.618	4	.404	.972	.429
	<i>Within groups</i>	26.202	63	.416		
	<i>Total</i>	27.820	67			
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	2.611	4	.653	1.46 5	.223
	<i>Within groups</i>	28.064	63	.445		
	<i>Total</i>	30.675	67			
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	2.801	4	.700	1.79 3	.141
	<i>Within groups</i>	24.596	63	.390		
	<i>Total</i>	27.397	67			
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Between groups</i>	1.409	4	.352	.720	.582
	<i>Within groups</i>	30.833	63	.489		
	<i>Total</i>	32.242	67			
Self efficacy Beliefs	<i>Between groups</i>	.989	4	.247	.756	.558
	<i>Within groups</i>	20.609	63	.327		
	<i>Total</i>	21.598	67			
Teacher Roles	<i>Between groups</i>	2.825	4	.706	.799	.531
	<i>Within groups</i>	55.704	63	.884		
	<i>Total</i>	58.529	67			

Table 40 . One-way ANOVA analysis results according to the school types the participants currently work in

FACTOR		SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARE	F	SIG
Foreign Language Aptitude	<i>Between groups</i>	.810	3	.270	.640	.592
	<i>Within groups</i>	27.010	64	.422		
	<i>Total</i>	27.820	67			
Difficulty of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	1.797	3	.599	1.328	.273
	<i>Within groups</i>	28.878	64	.451		
	<i>Total</i>	30.675	67			
Nature of Language Learning	<i>Between groups</i>	.499	3	.166	.396	.757
	<i>Within groups</i>	26.898	64	.420		
	<i>Total</i>	27.397	67			
Language and Communication Strategies	<i>Between groups</i>	1.315	3	.438	.907	.443
	<i>Within groups</i>	30.927	64	.483		
	<i>Total</i>	32.242	67			
Self efficacy Beliefs	<i>Between groups</i>	.274	3	9.138E-02	.274	.844
	<i>Within groups</i>	21.323	64	.333		
	<i>Total</i>	21.598	67			
Teacher Roles	<i>Between groups</i>	4.605	3	1.355	1.592	.200
	<i>Within groups</i>	54.465	64	.851		
	<i>Total</i>	58.529	67			

As it can be clearly seen, no significant differences have been found between the variables and in-service teachers' beliefs ($p > .05$).

4.1.5 RQ 5: Is there a significant difference between pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs in regard to learning and language learning?

After teachers' beliefs about language and language learning were identified via descriptive statistics, an Independent Samples T-Test was carried out to compare in-service and pre-service sample groups. As shown in Table 41, the only difference was in the factor related to self-efficacy beliefs.

Table 41. Results of Independent Samples T-test on pre-service – in-service teachers' belief differences in regard to different belief factors

FACTOR		N	MEAN	SD	T	DF	SIG.	GROUP DIFFERENCES
<i>Foreign Language Aptitude</i>	in-service	67	3.80	.65	-1.4	35	.16	
	pre-service	293	3.90	.52				
<i>Difficulty of Language Learning</i>	in-service	67	3.31	.68	-1.8	36	.07	
	pre-service	293	3.48	.68				
<i>Nature of Language Learning</i>	in-service	67	3.72	.64	-.08	36	.93	
	pre-service	293	3.73	.68				
<i>Language and Communication Strategies</i>	in-service	67	3.86	.70	-1.9	36	.05	
	pre-service	293	3.99	.48				
<i>Self-efficacy Beliefs</i>	in-service	67	4.61	.55	2.3	36	.02	In-service > pre-service
	pre-service	293	4.45	.52				
<i>Teacher Roles</i>	in-service	67	3.85	.94	-.4	36	.67	
	pre-service	293	3.89	.81				

As it could be detected in Table 42, the most noticeable difference between the pre-service and in-service teachers' self-efficacy belief is the one concerning difficulty of language teaching (item 14). While the majority of in-service teachers believe that it is easy to teach English (f: 52; 76.5%), only 42 % of the pre-service teachers do so. When the percentages of the teachers who reported disagreement and who stated they

were not sure are considered, totally 58% of the pre-service teachers find English language teaching difficult. This finding confirms the idea that experience is influential in belief formation (Richardson 2003; Crookes and Arakaki 1999 cited in Borg 2003).

Table 42. Teachers' beliefs concerning self-efficacy in relation to group difference (N=361)

ITEM		TOTALLY AGREE / AGREE		NOT SURE		DISAGREE / TOTALLY DISAGREE	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
5. I believe that I can teach English very well.	<i>in-service</i>	62	91.2	6	8.8	0	0
	<i>pre-service</i>	275	93.9	16	5.5	2	.7
14. It is easy to teach English.	<i>in-service</i>	52	76.5	8	11.8	8	11.8
	<i>pre-service</i>	123	42	87	29.7	83	28.3
26. My teacher training program and experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.	<i>in-service</i> (N= 66)	55	80.9	5	7.4	6	8.8
	<i>pre-service</i> (N= 291)	232	79.2	44	15	15	5.1
29. I can motivate unmotivated students.	<i>in-service</i>	55	80.9	10	14.7	3	4.4
	<i>pre-service</i>	269	91.8	21	7.2	3	1
30. I can use different teaching methods.	<i>in-service</i>	63	92.6	4	5.9	1	1.5
	<i>pre-service</i> (N=291)	263	89.8	25	8.5	3	1

4.2 Chapter summary

In this chapter, findings of the statistical analyses were represented. They were also interpreted and discussed in terms of research questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with the conclusions of the study, and then the methodological and pedagogical implications are presented respectively. Finally, suggestions for further research are presented.

5.1 Conclusions

This study aimed to investigate pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs concerning language and language learning. It also questioned the possible differences in those beliefs in relation to independent variables. These variables were gender, grade, high school graduation and socioeconomic background for pre-service teachers; and gender, teaching experience, faculty graduation and school type they currently work in for in-service teachers.

The study was held with the pre-service teachers who study ELT at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and in-service teachers who work at primary and high schools in Çanakkale city centre.

5.1.1 Conclusions for pre-service teachers

The results show that the pre-service teachers in the study hold strong beliefs about language and language learning. Among the other factors, the one related to self-efficacy has the highest mean score (Mean= 4.45).

With regard to the effect of different variables, a strong relationship has been investigated in pre-service teachers' beliefs. For instance, a significant difference has been detected between the male and female participants in two factors, namely difficulty of language learning and self-efficacy beliefs ($p < .05$). The male pre-service teachers hold higher self-efficacy beliefs than the females (Mean= 4.57; Mean= 4.42 respectively). Similarly, they report stronger beliefs about the difficulty of language learning (Mean= 3.66; Mean= 3.44 respectively).

The pre-service teachers' beliefs also vary due to the grade differences; some significant changes have been found in three factors. According to the results, the beliefs of the first class students related to difficulty of language differ from the ones held by the second and third class students ($p < .05$) and in relation to language and communication strategies they hold stronger beliefs than the fourth class students ($p < .05$). The last difference has been found in the factor related to nature of language learning. That is, the third class students' beliefs are weaker than the prep class students' ($p < .05$). The findings could indicate that pre-service teachers' beliefs evolve during the preparation programme as they receive pedagogical and subject area teaching knowledge. Although it is not statistically significant, another difference is worth discussing; when the mean scores for the self-efficacy beliefs are examined, it is clearly seen that especially the second and third class students have relatively lower self-efficacy beliefs (Mean= 4.40). This could be the result of the main methodology courses they take in those grades.

The findings of the study also reveal that high school graduation is an effective variable in pre-service teachers' beliefs. The regular high school graduates reported stronger beliefs regarding nature of language learners than the Anatolian high school graduates and Anatolian teacher training high school graduates ($p < .05$). When the

items in this factor are considered it is possible to say that past learning experiences play an important role in formation of beliefs.

5.1.2 Conclusions for in-service teachers

When the mean scores for each factor are studied, the beliefs related to self-efficacy appear as the strongest one (Mean= 4.59). This shows that in-service teachers in the study believe that they have the necessary skills which they need for language teaching. Although the responses for the items in the factor are really satisfactory, it should be bare in mind that high self-efficacy beliefs could influence the teachers' motivation to develop themselves.

Surprisingly, no difference have been found in relation to variables except one related to gender. The male and female in-service teachers' beliefs differ in two factors; foreign language aptitude ($p < .05$) and language communication strategies ($p < .005$). In both factors, the females hold stronger beliefs than the males.

5.1.3 Conclusions with regard to differences between pre- and in-service teachers' beliefs

The results show that both pre-service and in-service teachers hold strong beliefs concerning language and language learning. The highest mean scores are the ones about self-efficacy in both groups. Disturbingly, the only statistically significant difference has been found in the same factor ($p < .05$) which may be due to the influence experience in in-service teachers' beliefs. If the in-service teachers share the same beliefs with the pre-service teachers which have been observed in the remaining five factors, the findings here contradict with the idea that teachers go on forming beliefs all through their professional life (Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004; Arıoğul 2007) and use student feedback, trial and errors, conferences, seminars and collaboration as sources for formation of new beliefs (Richards et al. 2001).

The findings also reveal that beliefs of teachers evolve during the pre-service teacher education and they start their career with set of beliefs which are stable and resistant to change (Pajares 1992).

5.2 Implications

The implications of this study are presented in two categories; implications for pre-service teacher education and implications for in-service teacher education.

5.2.1 Implications for pre-service teacher education

Teacher educators' views and definitions of the process of learning to teach generally indicate what will be presented to student teachers to receive during their pre-service education. However, the focus should be on student teachers' beliefs. When they are given the opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs, the teacher training courses would become more powerful. Student teachers should be seen as learners as they are learning to teach and teacher educators provide them opportunities to examine their tacit beliefs about language learning and teaching (Harrington and Hertel 2000). Additionally, pre-service language teachers' beliefs should be assessed systematically (Horwitz, 1985) so that the falsified beliefs could be determined and worked on. Moreover, a set of basic beliefs could be determined and embedded into the teacher preparation course content.

5.2.2 Implications for in-service teacher education

The results of the findings in this study point out that the mistaken or uninformed beliefs of the in-service teachers do not change over time even if they work in different

types of schools or experience teaching for several years. This may indicate that there is a need for reform in in-service teacher development. First of all, the beliefs of in-service teachers should be described and any mistaken or uninformed beliefs should be determined. Then “mediated, constructivist and collective professional development courses” (Rosenfeld and Rosenfeld, 2008) should be organised and teachers should be encouraged to take part in seminars and conferences. Additionally, controlled studies should be held systematically to find out if there is change in the detrimental beliefs of in-service teachers.

5.3 Suggestions for further research

This particular study was held with the participation of 361 pre-service and in-service teachers in Çanakkale. However, there are thousands of language teachers in the country. Hence, further studies which can reach larger number of participants could provide more evidence about what language teachers in Turkey believe.

A further research may focus on specific sets of beliefs. For example, beliefs about teaching vocabulary or beliefs concerning cooperative learning might be investigated.

Furthermore, a self-report questionnaire, BALLI, was modified and used in this study since there was not a more appropriate instrument for data collection. The next step could be the development of a foreign language teacher beliefs scale which suits the Turkish context and serve as a more reliable research tool.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter involved the interpretations of the study. It began with the conclusions and continued with the presentation of some implications. Finally, suggestions for further research were presented.

REFERENCES

ACKLEY, B. C., G. M. BALABAN, & J. T. PASCARELLI

1999 “The Efficacy of Teacher Education in an Alternative Program” *Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Mont Real, Quebec, Canada*

AKSOY, N.

1999 “Educators Beliefs About Ethical Dilemmas In Teaching: A Research Study Among Elementary School Teachers In Turkey”
American Association of Behavioural and Social Sciences Journal, vol. 2 ,
Fall: 1-8

ALBION, P.R. & P.A. ERTMER

2002 “Beyond the Foundations: The Role of Vision and Belief in Teachers’ Preparation for Integration of Technology”
TechTrends, vol. 46, issue 5: 34-38

ALMARZA G. G.

1996 “Student foreign language teacher’s knowledge growth” in Freeman D. and J. Richards (eds) Teacher Learning In Language Teaching . The UK: Cambridge University Press

ALPTEKİN, C.

1999 “Communicative Competence Revisited: Aiming at Intercultural Communicative Competence” ERTEN, İ.H. and D. KÖKSAL (Ed.) Challenges for language teachers towards the millennium: First International ELT Research Conference Proceedings,:1-5 Çanakkale : COMU Printing Centre

ANGELOVA, M.

2002 “Impact of the Use of Bulgarian Mini-Lessons in SLA Course on Teacher Beliefs”

Eric Digest: 462 868

ARIOĞUL, S.

2007 “Understanding foreign language teachers’ practical knowledge: What’s the role of prior language learning experience?”

Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, vol.3, No.1: 168- 181

ASTON, M. & A. E. HYLE

1997 “Teacher Beliefs and Change” *Paper Presented at the Annual Convention of the University Council of Educational Administration, Orlando*

BAI, H. & P. ERTMER

2004 “Teacher Educators Beliefs and Technology Uses in Relation to Pre-service Teachers’ Beliefs and Technology Attitudes”

ERIC DIGEST : 485020

BAILEY et al.

1996 “The language learners autobiography: Examining the “apprenticeship of observation” in Freeman D. and J. Richards (eds) Teacher Learning In Language Teaching . The UK: Cambridge University Press

BEMBENUTTY, Hefer

2006 “Teachers’ Self-efficacy Beliefs, Self-regulation of Learning, and Academic Performance” *Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, New Orleans, LA, August 12*

BELL, J.

1993 Doing Your Research Project.

Buckingham, Open University Press.

BERNAT, E. & I. GVOZDENKO

2005 “Beliefs about Language Learning: Current Knowledge, Pedagogical Implications, and New Research Directions”

TESL-EJ. IX, 1.

BERNAT, E.

2005 “Beliefs about Language Learning: Current Knowledge, Pedagogical Implications, and New Research Directions”

TESL- EJ, 9, (1)

2006 “Assessing EAP learners’ beliefs about language learning in the Australian context”

Asian EFL Journal. VIII, 2.

BERNAT, E. & LLOYD, R.

2007 “Exploring the gender effect on EFL learners’ beliefs about language learning”

Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology.VII: 79-91.

BIKMAZ, F. H.

2004 “Öz Yeterlilik İnançları” in Kuzgun Y. and D. Deryakulu (eds) Eğitimde Bireysel Farklılıklar . Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık

BORG, M.

2001 “Teachers’ beliefs”

ELT Journal, vol. 55/2: 186-188

BORG, S.

2003 “Teacher Cognition in language teaching: A Review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do”

Language Teaching 36 (2), 81-109

2007 Research engagement in English language teaching

Teaching and Teacher Education 23:731-747

BOWMAN, A., W. BRIGHT and N. N. VACC

1998 "Teachers' Beliefs across the First Two Years of Implementation fo Cognitively Guided Instruction" *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego*

BROOKHART, S & D. FREEMAN

1992 "Characteristics of entering teacher candidates"
Review of Educational Research, vol.62, Spring, 1: 37-60

BROWN, J. D.

1995 Understanding Research in Second Language Learning.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

BROWN, S. & T. RODGERS

2004 Doing Second Language Research
Oxford University Press

BULLOUGH, R. V. & BAUGHMAN, K.

1997 "First Year Teacher" Eight Years Later An Inquiry into Teacher Development.
Columbia: Teacher Collage Press

CABAROĞLU, N. & J. ROBERTS

2000. Development in student teachers' pre-existing beliefs during a 1-year PGCE programme.

System, 28(3):387-402.

CHAN, Jacqueline K. S.

1999 "Student Teachers' Beliefs- What They Have Brought to the Initial Teacher Training"

ERIC DIGEST 435 607

CHASTAIN, K.

1988 *Developing second language skills-Theory and practice*
The USA: HBJ Publishers

CHEUNG, D. & P.H. NG

2000 "Science teachers' beliefs about curriculum design"
Research in Science Education, 30(4): 357-375

CHEUNG, D. & H. WONG

2002 "Measuring teacher beliefs about alternative curriculum designs"
The Curriculum Journal: vol. 2: 225- 248

COOK, Vivian

2001 *Second language learning and language teaching.*
London: Oxford University Press

CHOU, Chiou- Hui Joyce

2003 "Exploring English Teachers' Beliefs and Practical Knowledge about
Communicative Language teaching in EFL Contexts"

Available at http://www.hiceducation.org/edu_proceedings/Joyce%20Chiou-hui%20Chou.pdf

COHEN, A.D. & L. FASS

2001 "Oral Language Instruction: Teacher and Learner Beliefs and the Reality in
EFL Classes at a Colombian University"

ERIC DIGEST :459 652

DAVIS, A.

2003 'Teachers' and students' beliefs regarding aspects of language learning'

Evaluation and Research in Education. XVII, 4: 207-220

DERYAKULU, Deniz

2004 “Epistemolojik İnançlar” in Kuzgun Y. and D. Deryakulu (eds) Eğitimde Bireysel Farklılıklar . Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık

DIAB,

2006 “University students’ beliefs about learning English and French in Lebanon”
System 34, 1: 80-96

DONAGHUE, H.

2003 An instrument to elicit teachers’ beliefs and assumptions
ELT Journal, vol 57/4: 344-351

DÖRNYEI, Zoltan

2003 Questionnaires in Second Language Research
London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers

ELLIS, R.

2002 “A metaphorical analysis of learner beliefs”
P. Burmeister , T. Pikse ve A. Rohde (ed), An Integrated view of Language Development: Paper in Honor of Henning Wode. Wissenschaftlicher Verlag: Trier

2004 The study of second language acquisition.
Oxford University Press

ERTEN, İ. H.

2009 “Gender differences in academic achievement among Turkish prospective teachers of English as a foreign language”
European Journal of Teacher Education vol. 32 no 1 75-91

FENSTERMACHER, G. D.

1994 “The knower and the known: the nature of knowledge in research on teaching”
Review of Research in Education, vol. 20: 3-56

FISHBEIN M. & I. AJZEN

1975 Belief, attitude, intention and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research.

Philippines: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company

FIVES, H. & M. M. BUEHL

2008 “What do teachers believe? Developing a framework for examining beliefs about teachers’ knowledge and ability”

Contemporary Educational Psychology 33: 134-176

FREEMAN, D.

1996 “The ‘Unstudied Problem’: Research on Teacher Learning in Language Teaching” in D. Freeman and J. C. Richards. (ed) *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

FUKAMI, R.

2005 “Teacher cognition in context: what’s on their mind?”

Essex Graduate Student Papers. vol. 7, 118:135.

GEORGIOU, S. N.

2008 “Beliefs of Experienced and Novice Teachers about Achievement”

Educational Psychology, vol. 28, no. 2: 119-131

GIBSON, S. & M. H. DEMBO

1984 “Teacher efficacy: A construct validation”

Journal of Educational Psychology, 76(4), 569-582 Available at:

<http://www.scribd.com/doc/6817513/Gibson-Dembo-Woolfolk>

GODDARD, R. D.

2003 “The impact of schools on teacher beliefs, influence, and student achievement: the role of collective efficacy beliefs” in Raths J. and A.C. McAninch (ed) Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Performance: The Impact of Teacher Education.

The USA: Information Age Publishing.

GÜLER, H.

- 2007 “Non-native EFL Teachers’ Beliefs about Reading.
(Unpublished MA Thesis) Eskişehir: Anadolu University.

HARRINGTON & HERTEL

- 2000 “Foreign Language Methods Students' Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching”

ERIC DIGEST: 468 310

HANCOCK, E. S. & A.J. GALLARD

- 2004 “Pre-service Science Teachers’ Beliefs about Teaching and Learning: The Influence of K-12 Field Experiences”

Journal of Science Teacher Education, 15(4): 281-291

HATİPOĞLU KAVANOZ, Suzan

- 2006 “An exploratory study of English language teachers’ beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about learner-centeredness”

TOJET, vol.5, issue 2, Article 1

HARTLEY, K. & L. BENDIXEN

- 2000 “Learning with Hypermedia: The Role of Epistemological Beliefs and Self-Regulation” *Proceedings of Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference*, San Diego

HATIVA, Nira

- 2000 “Teacher Thinking, Beliefs, and Knowledge in Higher Education”

International Science, 28: 311-334

HORWITZ, E.

- 1999 “Cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners’ beliefs about language learners: a review of BALLI studies”

System, vol. 27: 557-576

2000 “Teachers and Students, Students and Teachers: An Ever-Evolving Partnership”

The Modern Language Journal, IV, 84 .

HUANG, Z.

2006 “Learner beliefs of language learning revisited”

Sino- US Language Teaching. III, 3: 62-67.

JORAM, E. & A. J. GABRIELE

1998 “Pre-service teachers’ prior beliefs: transforming obstacles into opportunities”

Teaching and Teacher Education, vol.14, no 2: 175-191

KARAAĞAÇ, M.K. & THRELFALL J.

2004 “The Tension between Teacher Beliefs and Teacher Practice: The Impact of the Work Setting” *Proceedings of the 28th Conference of the international Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education*. vol. 3: 137-144.

KARABENICK, S. & P. A. C. NODA

2004 “Professional development implications of teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards English language learners”

Bilingual Research Journal, 28, 1: 55-75

KARASAR, N.

2004 Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi.

Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.

KATZ, L. G. & J. D. RATHS

1968 “Dispositional Goals for Teacher Education: Problems of Identification and Assessment” *A Paper Presented at the Thirty-third World Assembly of the International Council on Education for Teaching*, Kingston, Jamaica

KIRAZLAR, Çiğdem

2007 An Investigation into the professional development of primary school English language teachers : the effects of keeping diaries on teacher reflection and attitudes towards teaching

(Unpublished MA Thesis) Çanakkale: Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

KUO, M. M.

2008 “Learner to Teacher: EFL Student Teachers’ Perceptions on Internet-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching”

ERIC DIGEST: 502 217

KUNTZ, P.

1996 “Beliefs about Language Learning: The Horwitz Model”

ERIC DIGEST: 397 646

LAM, B. & D. KEMBER

2006 The Relationship between Conceptions of Teaching and Approaches to Teaching”

Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, vol. 12, no 6: 693-713

LOUDEN, W. & M. ROHL

2006 “Too Many Theories and not Enough Instruction: Perceptions of Pre-Service Teacher Preparation for Literacy Teaching in Australian Schools”

Literacy 40, 2: 66–78 UKLA

LOVE, Angela

2002 “The Relationship between Teachers’ Beliefs and Student Achievement in Two Primarily African American Urban Elementary Schools” *Paper Presented for the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association*. New Orleans, Louisiana.

2003 “The Measurement of Teachers’ Beliefs as Cultural Context for Successful Learning of African American Students” *Paper Presented for the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.*

MATTHEOUDAKIS, M

2007 Tracking Changes in pre-service EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study

Teaching and Teacher Education 23: 1272-1288

MCGREGOR, J. M.

2006 *Learner Beliefs and their Implications for Language Learning.*

(Unpublished MA Thesis) Canada: Waterloo University

MORI, R.

2002 “Teachers’ beliefs and corrective feedback”

JALT Journal 24, 1: 52-73

MORI, Y.

1999 “Epistemological beliefs and language learning beliefs: what do language learners believe about their learning?”

Language Learning. 49, 3: 377-415.

MUCHMORE, J.A.

2001 “The story of ‘Anna’: A life history study of the literacy beliefs and teaching practices of an urban high school English teacher” *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle*

NICOLAIDIS, K. and M. MATTHEOUDAKIS

2008 “Utopia vs. Reality: The Effectiveness of In-service Training Courses for EFL Teachers”

European Journal of Teacher Education, vol. 31, no. 3: 272-292

NIETFELD, J. L., & Enders, C. K.

2003 “An examination of student teacher beliefs: Interrelationships between hope, self-efficacy, goal-orientations, and beliefs about learning”

Current Issues in Education. vol. 6 (5) Available at:

<http://cie.ed.asu.edu/volume6/number5/>

NUNAN, David

1992 Research Methods in Language Learning

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

ONWUAGBUZIE, Anthony J.

2002 “Changes in Teacher Candidates’ Beliefs about Education”

Academic Exchange Quarterly, Fall: 1-7

OZYURT B. E.

1994 “Cinsiyet” in KUZGUN Y. and D. DERYAKULU (eds) Eğitimde Bireysel Farklılıklar . Ankara: Nobel Yayıncılık

PAJARES, F.

1992 “Teachers Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning Up a Messy Construct”

Review of Educational Research, 62, 3: 307-332

PEACOCK, M.

1998a “Exploring the gap between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about useful activities for EFL”

International Journal of Applied Linguistics. VIII, 2: 233-250.

1998b “The links between learner beliefs, teacher beliefs and EFL proficiency”

Perspectives X, 1: 155-159

PETERMAN, Francine P.

1991 “An Experienced Teacher’s Emerging Constructivist Beliefs about Teaching and Learning” *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.*

PRAWAT, R. S.

2003 “At the heart of teaching: the role of emotion in changing teachers’ beliefs”
J. Raths ve A.C. McAninch (ed), Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Performance: The Impact of Teacher Education. The USA: Information Age Publishing.

RAMANATHAN, H.

2001 “Assessment and testing in an English classroom in India”, *Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-western Educational Research Association, Chicago.*

RATHS, J.

2001 “Teachers’ beliefs and teaching beliefs”
Early Childhood Research and Practice, vol. 3: 385-391

RATHS & MCANINCH (eds)

2003 Teacher beliefs and classroom performance: The impact of Teacher Education.
Connecticut: Information Age Publishing.

RICHARDS, J. C.

1994 “Teacher thinking and foreign language teaching”
Available at: www.jaltpublications.org/tlt/files/94/aug/richards.html

1998 Beyond Training.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

RICHARDS J.C. & D. NUNAN

2000 Second Language Teacher Education.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

RICHARDS, J. C., P. B. Gallo, & W. A. Renandya

2001 “Exploring Teachers’ Beliefs and Processes of Change”

PAC Journal :1-17

RICHARDSON, V.

2003 “Pre-service teachers’ beliefs” in Raths J. and A.C. McAninch (ed), *Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Performance: The Impact of Teacher Education*.

The USA: Information Age Publishing.

ROKEACH, Milton

1965 “Attitude Change and Behavioural Change” *Paper presented at the meetings of the World Association for Public Opinion Research, Dublin.*

ROSENFELD, M. & S. ROSENFELD

2008 “Developing effective teacher beliefs about learners: the role of sensitizing teachers to individual learning differences”

Educational Psychology, 28, 3: 1469-5820

SARAÇ-SÜZER, S.

2007 “Pre-service teachers’ beliefs on efficiency of dialogues in the 8th grade ELT coursebook: socio-pragmatic problems”

Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi. XV, 1: 401-410.

SATO, K. & R.C. KLEINSASSER

2004 “Beliefs, practices and interactions of Japanese high school English department”

Teaching and Teacher Education, 20: 797- 816

SATO K. & K. MURPHEY

1998 “Teacher Beliefs and Teacher Development”

ERIC DIGEST: 436094

SCHOMMER-AIKINS, M., O. K. DUELL & R. HUTTER

2005 “Epistemological beliefs, mathematical problem-solving beliefs, and academic performance of middle school students”

The Elementary School Journal, 105, 3: 289-304.

SELIGER H. W. & E. SHOHAMY

1989 Second Language Research Methods.

Oxford: Oxford University Press

SIWATU, K. O.

2006 “Pre-service teachers’ culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs”

Teaching and Teacher Education, 23: 1086-1101

SNIDER, V.E. & R. ROEHL

2007 Teachers’ beliefs about pedagogy and related issues

Psychology in the Schools, vol. 44(8): 873-885

ŞENCAN, H.

2005 Sosyal ve Davranışsal Ölçümlerde Güvenirlilik ve Geçerlilik.

Ankara: Seçkin Yayınları

TATTO, M. T. & D. B. COUPLAND

2003 “Teacher education and teachers’ beliefs: theoretical and measurement concerns” in J. Raths ve A.C. Mcaninch (eds), Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Performance: The Impact of Teacher Education. The USA: Information Age Publishing.

TERCANLIOĞLU, L.

2001 “Pre-Service Teachers as Readers and Future Teachers of EFL Reading”

TESL-EJ. 5, 3, A2

2005 “Pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language learning and how they relate to gender.”

Electric Journal of Research in Educational Psychology. 5, 3, 1:145-162.

VELEZ-RENDON, Gloria

2002 “Learning to Teach Spanish: A Case Study” *Paper Presented at the TexFlec Conference*, Austin.

VILLEGAS, Ana Maria

2007 “Dispositions in Teacher Education”

Journal of Teacher Education, 58: 370-380

WARBURTON, E. and B. TORFF

2005 “The Effect of Perceived Learner Advantages on Teachers’ Beliefs about Critical-Thinking Activities”

Journal of Teacher Education, vol. 56, no. 1: 24-33

WATZKE, J. L.

2007 “Foreign language pedagogical knowledge: toward a developmental theory of beginning teacher practices”

The Modern Language Journal, 91, 1: 63-82

WOODS, D.

1996 Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

YANG, N.D.

2000 “Teachers Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching: A Cross-Cultural Comparison”

Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education. V, Fall: 39-52.

YERO, J. L.

2002a “Teaching in mind: How Teacher Thinking Shapes Education”

Available at: <http://www.Teachersmind.com>

2002b “Teacher Thinking” Available at: <http://www.Teachersmind.com>

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (1988 version)	134
Appendix B: BALLI (original in- service teacher version)	136
Appendix C: BALLI (in-service teacher version in English)	138
Appendix D: BALLI (original pre-service teacher version)	140
Appendix E: BALLI (pre-service teacher version in English)	142
Appendix F: Demographic scale for in-service teachers (original version)	144
Appendix G: Demographic scale for in-service teachers (English version)	145
Appendix H: Demographic scale for pre-service teachers (original version)	146
Appendix I: Demographic scale for pre-service teachers (English version)	147
Appendix J: Socioeconomic Status Inventory (original version)	148
Appendix K: Socioeconomic Status Inventory (English version)	150

APPENDIX A

BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY

(Horwitz, 1988)

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a second language.
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.
3. Some languages are easier than others.
4. The language I am trying to learn is
A= very difficult B= difficult C= medium difficulty D= easy E= very easy
5. The language I am trying to learn is structured in the same way as English.
6. I believe that I will ultimately learn this language very well.
7. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.
8. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.
9. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.
10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.
11. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.
12. If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.
13. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.
14. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent?
() Less than a year () 1 - 2 years () 3 - 5 years () 5 - 10 years
() You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.
15. I have a foreign language aptitude.
16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.
17. It is important to repeat and practice often.
18. I feel self-conscious speaking the foreign language in front of other people.
19. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.
20. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.

21. It is important to practice in the language laboratory.
22. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.
23. If I speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.
24. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.
25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.
26. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.
27. If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job.
28. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.
29. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.
30. Americans think that it is important to speak a foreign language.
31. I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better.
32. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.
33. Americans are good at learning foreign languages.
34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

APPENDIX B

Değerli Meslektaşımız,

Bu anket, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı, Yüksek Lisans Tezinde kullanılmak üzere, öğretmenlerin yabancı dil ve yabancı dil öğrenimine ilişkin inançlarını tespit etmek için hazırlanmıştır.

İfadelerin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Elde edilen veriler amacı dışında kullanılmayacak ve katılımcıların kimliği hiçbir biçimde ilan edilmeyecektir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Özlem ERDEM

İngilizceÖğretmeni/ ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanı X ile işaretleyiniz.

	tamamen katılıyorum	kısmen katılıyorum	kararsızım	katılmıyorum	kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1. Yetişkinlere nazaran yabancı dil öğrenmek çocuklar için daha kolaydır.					
2. Bazı insanlar onların yabancı dil öğrenmelerine yardımcı olan özel bir yetenekle doğar.					
3. Bazı diller diğerlerine göre daha kolay öğrenilir.					
4. Herkes yabancı bir dil konuşmayı öğrenebilir.					
5. İngilizceyi çok iyi öğretebildiğime inanıyorum.					
6. Yabancı dili mükemmel bir telaffuzla konuşmak önemlidir.					
7. Bir yabancı dili konuşmak için o dilin kültürünü bilmek gerekir.					
8. Doğru biçimde söyleyene kadar yabancı dilde hiç bir şey söylenmemelidir.					
9. Bir yabancı dil bilen kişi için bir başkasını öğrenmek daha kolaydır.					
10. Bir yabancı dili konuşulduğu ülkede öğrenmek daha iyidir.					
11. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencileri kontrol etmektir.					
12. Yabancı dildeki bir sözcüğü bilmediğinizde tahmin etmeniz uygundur.					
13. Türkler yabancı dil öğrenme konusunda iyidirler.					
14. İngilizce öğretmek kolaydır.					
15. Yabancı dil öğrenmek temel olarak çok sayıda yeni sözcük öğrenme meselesidir.					

	tamamen katılıyorum	kısmen katılıyorum	kararsızım	katılmıyorum	kesinlikle katılmıyorum
16. Dil öğrenirken çok sayıda tekrar ve pratik yapmak önemlidir.					
17. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencilere nasıl öğrenebileceklerini öğretmektir.					
18. Öğrencilerin başlangıçta hata yapmasına izin verilirse daha sonraları bu hatalardan kurtulmaları zor olacaktır.					
19. Yabancı dil öğrenmek temel olarak çok sayıda dilbilgisi kuralını öğrenmektir.					
20. Dil laboratuvarında pratik yapmak önemlidir.					
21. Dil öğrenme konusunda kızlar erkeklerden daha iyidir.					
22. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi İngilizceye ilişkin bilgisini paylaşmaktır.					
23. Bir dili konuşmak anlamaktan daha kolaydır.					
24. Yabancı dil öğrenmek diğer dersleri öğrenmekten farklıdır.					
25. Yabancı dil öğrenmek daha çok Türkçeden çeviri yapma meselesidir.					
26. Öğretmen eğitim programım ve deneyimim etkin bir öğretmen olmam için gereken becerileri kazandırmıştır.					
27. İngilizceyi okuyup yazmak konuşmak ve anlamaktan daha kolaydır.					
28. Matematik ve fen alanında başarılı olanlar dil öğrenme konusunda iyi değillerdir.					
29. Derse az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri güdülemeyi başarabilirim.					
30. Farklı öğretim metotlarını etkin biçimde kullanabilirim.					
31. Birden fazla yabancı dil bilenler çok zekidir.					
32. Yabancı dil öğrenmek için günde 1 saatini ayıran birinin akıcı bir şekilde konuşabilmesi ne kadar zamanını alır? () Bir yıldan az () 1-2 yıl () 3-5 yıl () 5-10 yıl () Günde 1 saat çalışarak bir yabancı dil öğrenilmez.					
33. Öğretmeye çalıştığım dil () Çok Zordur. () Zordur. () Orta Zorluktadır. () Kolaydır. () Çok Kolaydır.					

APPENDIX C

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire, which is a part of a Master thesis at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Department of Foreign Languages, English Language Teaching Programme, has been designed in order to find out teachers' beliefs about language and language learning Çanakkale. There are no "RIGHT" or "WRONG" responses to the statements. The data gathered will be used only for scientific purposes and no information identifying the participants will be disclosed under any circumstances. Thank you for your participation.

Özlem ERDEM

Teacher of English / ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

Please read the statements below carefully and mark the most appropriate choice according to you with (X) sign.

	Totally agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Totally disagree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.					
3. Some languages are easier than others.					
4. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.					
5. I believe that I can teach English very well.					
6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.					
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.					
8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.					
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.					
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.					
11. The role of a language teacher is to control the students.					
12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.					
13. Turks are good at learning foreign languages.					
14. It is easy to teach English.					
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.					

	Totally agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Totally disagree
16. It is important to repeat and practice often.					
17. The role of a language teacher is to teach students how to learn.					
18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.					
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.					
20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.					
21. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.					
22. The role of a language teacher is to share his/her knowledge.					
23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.					
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.					
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish.					
26. My teacher training program and experience has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.					
27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.					
28. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
29. I can motivate unmotivated students.					
30. I can use different teaching methods.					
31. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.					
32. 32. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent? <input type="checkbox"/> Less than a year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3-5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 years <input type="checkbox"/> You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.					
33. The language I am trying to teach is <input type="checkbox"/> very difficult <input type="checkbox"/> difficult <input type="checkbox"/> medium difficulty <input type="checkbox"/> easy <input type="checkbox"/> very easy					

APPENDIX D

Değerli Öğretmen Adayı,

Bu anket, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı, Yüksek Lisans Tezinde kullanılmak üzere, öğretmenlerin yabancı dil ve yabancı dil öğrenimine ilişkin inançlarını tespit etmek için hazırlanmıştır.

İfadelerin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Elde edilen veriler amacı dışında kullanılmayacak ve katılımcıların kimliği hiçbir biçimde ilan edilmeyecektir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Özlem ERDEM

İngilizce Öğretmeni/ ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanı X ile işaretleyiniz.

	tamamen katılıyorum	kısmen katılıyorum	kararsızım	katılmıyorum	kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1. Yetişkinlere nazaran yabancı dil öğrenmek çocuklar için daha kolaydır.					
2. Bazı insanlar onların yabancı dil öğrenmelerine yardımcı olan özel bir yetenekle doğar.					
3. Bazı diller diğerlerine göre daha kolay öğrenilir.					
4. Herkes yabancı bir dil konuşmayı öğrenebilir.					
5. İngilizceyi çok iyi öğretebileceğime inanıyorum.					
6. Yabancı dili mükemmel bir telaffuzla konuşmak önemlidir.					
7. Bir yabancı dili konuşmak için o dilin kültürünü bilmek gerekir.					
8. Doğru biçimde söyleyene kadar yabancı dilde hiç bir şey söylenmemelidir.					
9. Bir yabancı dil bilen kişi için bir başkasını öğrenmek daha kolaydır.					
10. Bir yabancı dili konuşulduğu ülkede öğrenmek daha iyidir.					
11. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencileri kontrol etmektir.					
12. Yabancı dildeki bir sözcüğü bilmediğinizde tahmin etmeniz uygundur.					
13. Türkler yabancı dil öğrenme konusunda iyidirler.					
14. İngilizce öğretmek kolaydır.					
15. Yabancı dil öğrenmek temel olarak çok sayıda yeni sözcük öğrenme meselesidir.					

	tamamen katlıyorum	kısmen katlıyorum	kararsızım	katılmıyorum	kesinlikle katılmıyorum
16. Dil öğrenirken çok sayıda tekrar ve pratik yapmak önemlidir.					
17. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi öğrencilere nasıl öğrenebileceklerini öğretmektir.					
18. Öğrencilerin başlangıçta hata yapmasına izin verilirse daha sonraları bu hatalardan kurtulmaları zor olacaktır.					
19. Yabancı dil öğrenmek temel olarak çok sayıda dilbilgisi kuralını öğrenmektir.					
20. Dil laboratuvarında pratik yapmak önemlidir.					
21. Dil öğrenme konusunda kızlar erkeklerden daha iyidir.					
22. Yabancı dil öğretmenin görevi İngilizceye ilişkin bilgisini paylaşmaktır.					
23. Bir dili konuşmak anlamaktan daha kolaydır.					
24. Yabancı dil öğrenmek diğer dersleri öğrenmekten farklıdır.					
25. Yabancı dil öğrenmek daha çok Türkçeden çeviri yapma meselesidir.					
26. Öğretmen eğitim programım etkin bir öğretmen olmam için gereken becerileri kazandırmaktadır.					
27. İngilizceyi okuyup yazmak konuşmak ve anlamaktan daha kolaydır.					
28. Matematik ve fen alanında başarılı olanlar dil öğrenme konusunda iyi değillerdir.					
29. Derse az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri güdülemeyi başarabileceğime inanıyorum.					
30. Farklı öğretim metotlarımı etkin biçimde kullanabilirim.					
31. Birden fazla yabancı dil bilenler çok zekidir.					
32. Yabancı dil öğrenmek için günde 1 saatini ayıran birinin akıcı bir şekilde konuşabilmesi ne kadar zamanını alır? () Bir yıldan az () 1-2 yıl () 3-5 yıl () 5-10 yıl () Günde 1 saat çalışarak bir yabancı dil öğrenilmez.					
33. Öğreteceğim dil () Çok Zordur. () Zordur. () Orta Zorluktur. () Kolaydır. () Çok Kolaydır.					

APPENDIX E

Dear student,

This questionnaire, which is a part of a Master thesis at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Department of Foreign Languages, English Language Teaching Programme, has been designed in order to find out teachers' beliefs about language and language learning Çanakkale. There are no "RIGHT" or "WRONG" responses to the statements. The data gathered will be used only for scientific purposes and no information identifying the participants will be disclosed under any circumstances. Thank you for your participation.

Özlem ERDEM

Teacher of English / ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

Please read the statements below carefully and mark the most appropriate choice according to you with (X) sign.

	Totally agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Totally disagree
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language.					
3. Some languages are easier than others.					
4. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.					
5. I believe that I can teach English very well.					
6. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation.					
7. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.					
8. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.					
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.					
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.					
11. The role of a language teacher is to control the students.					
12. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.					
13. Turks are good at learning foreign languages.					
14. It is easy to teach English.					
15. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.					

	Totally agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Totally disagree
16. It is important to repeat and practice often.					
17. The role of a language teacher is to teach students how to learn.					
18. If the students are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.					
19. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules.					
20. It's important to practice in the language laboratory.					
21. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.					
22. The role of a language teacher is to share his/her knowledge.					
23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.					
24. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.					
25. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Turkish.					
26. My teacher training program has given me the necessary skills to be an effective teacher.					
27. It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.					
28. People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
29. I can motivate unmotivated students.					
30. I can use different teaching methods.					
31. People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.					
32. 32. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take her/him to become fluent? <input type="checkbox"/> Less than a year <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 years <input type="checkbox"/> 3-5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 years <input type="checkbox"/> You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.					
33. The language I am going to teach is <input type="checkbox"/> very difficult <input type="checkbox"/> difficult <input type="checkbox"/> medium difficulty <input type="checkbox"/> easy <input type="checkbox"/> very easy					

APPENDIX F

Değerli Meslektaşımız,
Anketin bu bölümü kişisel bilgilerinizle ilgili veri toplama amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu bilgiler hiçbir şekilde amacı dışında kullanılmayacak ve katılımcıların kimliği ilan edilmeyecektir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanı X ile işaretleyiniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

Bayan Bay

2. Meslekteki deneyim süreniz:

a 1 yıldan az b 1-4 yıl c 5-8 yıl
d 9-12 yıl e 13-16 yıl f 17 yıl ve üstü

3. Mezun olduğunuz fakülte:

a İngilizce Öğretmenliği b İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı
c Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)

4. Çalıştığınız Kurum:

a İlköğretim Okulu b Genel Lise c Meslek ve And. Meslek Lisesi
d Fen/Anadolu Lisesi e Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)

5. Mesleki gelişim bağlamında ve/veya sınıf uygulamalarınızı geliştirmek amacıyla başvurduğunuz kaynakları en sık kullandığınızdan başlayarak en az kullandığınıza doğru (1, 2, 3...şeklinde) sıralayınız. Kullanmadığınız varsa boş bırakınız.

İnternet Öğrencilerden geribildirim
 Süreli yayınlar Konferans/ Seminerler
 Alanla ilgili çeşitli başvuru kaynakları Hiçbiri
 Meslektaşlarla görüşmeler Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)

6. Son 3 yılda herhangi bir seminer, konferans, hizmet içi eğitim programına katıldınız mı?

Evet Hayır

Adı / İçeriği	Yılı

APPENDIX G

Dear Colleague,

This part of the questionnaire has been designed to collect personal information about you. The data gathered will be used only for scientific purposes and no information identifying the participants will be disclosed under any circumstances. Thank you for your participation.

Please read the statements below carefully and mark the most appropriate choice according to you with (X) sign.

1. Gender:

Female Male

2. Teaching experience:

a Less than a year b 1-4 years c 5-8 years
d 9-12 years e 13-16 years f More than 17 years

3. Faculty Graduation:

a ELT Department b English Language and Literature
c Other (Please specify)

4. The school type you work in:

a Primary school b Regular High School c Vocational High School
d Science /Anatolian High School e Other (Please specify)

5. Please order the sources that you use for professional development and/or to improve your classroom practice starting from the most frequently used. Please ignore the one(s) that you do not use.

Internet Student feedback
 Periodicals Conferences / Seminars
 Reference books None
 Interaction with colleagues Other (Please specify)

6. Have you attended any seminars, conferences or in-service training courses for the last three years?

Yes No

Title / Content	Year

APPENDIX H

Değerli Öğretmen Adayı,
Anketin bu bölümü kişisel bilgilerinizle ilgili veri toplama amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu bilgiler hiçbir şekilde amacı dışında kullanılmayacak ve katılımcıların kimliği ilan edilmeyecektir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanı X ile işaretleyiniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

Bayan Bay

2. Devam ettiğiniz sınıf:

a Hazırlık sınıfı b 1. sınıf c 2. sınıf
d 3. sınıf e 4. sınıf

3. Mezun olduğunuz okul tipi:

a Genel Lise b Süper Lise c Anadolu Lisesi
d Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi e Özel Lise f Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)

4. Lütfen sizin için doğru olanı işaretleyiniz.

	Anne Mesleği	Baba Mesleği
Ev Hanımı		
Öğretmen		
Doktor		
Avukat		
Çiftçi		
İşçi		
İşsiz		
Diğer (Belirtiniz)		

5. Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri:

1000 TL'den az 1001- 1500 TL 1501- 2000 TL
 2001- 2500 TL 2500- 3000 TL 3000 TL üzeri

6. Lütfen sizin için doğru olanı işaretleyiniz.

	Annenin Eğitim Durumu	Babanın Eğitim Durumu
Okumaz-Yazmaz		
Okuryazar		
İlkokul		
Ortaokul		
Lise		
Lisans		
Yüksek Lisans		
Diğer (Belirtiniz)		

APPENDIX I

Dear student,

This part of the questionnaire has been designed to collect personal information about you. The data gathered will be used only for scientific purposes and no information identifying the participants will be disclosed under any circumstances. Thank you for your participation.

Please read the statements below carefully and mark the most appropriate choice according to you with (X) sign.

1. Gender:

Female Male

2. Grade:

a Preparatory Class b 1st Grade c 2nd Grade
d 3rd Grade e 4th Grade

3. High School Graduation:

a Regular H.S. b Super H.S. c Anatolian H.S.
d Anatolian Teacher Training H. S. e Private H.S.
f Other (Please specify)

4. Mark the most appropriate choice according to you.

	Mother's occupation	Father's occupation
Housewife		
Teacher		
Doctor		
Lawyer		
Farmer		
Worker		
Unemployed		
Other (Please specify)		

5. Total family income:

1000 TL and below 1001- 1500 TL 1501- 2000 TL
 2001- 2500 TL 2500- 3000 TL 3001 TL and above

6. Mark the most appropriate choice according to you.

	Mother's educational background	Father's educational background
Illiterate		
Literate		
Primary School graduate		
Secondary school graduate		
High school graduate		
University graduate		
Master's degree		
Other (Please specify)		

APPENDIX J

SOSYO-EKONOMİK STATÜ BELİRLEME ENVANTERİ

Değerli katılımcı, bu envanter Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı, Yüksek Lisans Tezinde kullanılmak üzere hazırlanmıştır. İfadelerin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Özlem ERDEM

İngilizce Öğretmeni/ ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

I- Lütfen aşağıdaki meslekleri **sosyal statülerine göre** “üst- orta- alt” biçiminde sınıflandırarak ilgili sütunda X ile işaretleyiniz.

Meslek Grubu	Üst	Orta	Alt	Meslek Grubu	Üst	Orta	Alt
İktisatçı				Emekli laborant			
Genel müdür				Aşçı			
Sayman				Büro elemanı			
Hemşire				Emekli polis			
Emekli öğretmen				Muhasebeci			
Çiçekçi				İnşaat ustası			
Berber				Turizmcisi			
Piliç yetiştiricisi				Marangoz			
Mühendis				Emekli memur			
Veteriner				İnşaat teknikeri			
Teknisyen				İmam			
Postacı				Mobilyacı			
Nakliyeci				İşletme müdürü			
Avukat				Matbaacı			
Serbest meslek				İşçi			
Polis				Memur			
Emekli subay/ astsubay				Öğretmen			
Şoför				Ev Hanımı			
Emekli hemşire				Çiftçi			
Müteahhit				Esnaf			
Doktor				Antrenör			
Hâkim				Subay/ Astsubay			

II- Lütfen aşağıdaki gelir gruplarının **her birini sosyal statülerine** göre “üst- orta- alt” biçiminde sınıflandırarak tabloyu doldurunuz.

Üst	
Orta	
Alt	

- 1000 TL'den az
- 1001- 1500 TL
- 1501- 2000 TL
- 2001- 2500 TL
- 2500- 3000 TL
- 3000 TL üzeri

III- Lütfen aşağıdaki eğitim durumlarının **her birini sosyal statülerine** göre “üst- orta- alt” biçiminde sınıflandırarak tabloyu doldurunuz.

Üst	
Orta	
Alt	

- Okumaz-yazmaz
- Okuryazar
- İlkokul
- Ortaokul
- Lise
- Yüksek okul
- Fakülte
- Yüksek Lisans

APPENDIX K

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS INVENTORY

Dear participant, this inventory has been designed as a part of a Master thesis at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Department of Foreign Languages, English Language Teaching Programme, There are no “RIGHT” or “WRONG” responses to the statements. Thank you for your participation.

Özlem ERDEM

Teacher of English / ozlemerdm@yahoo.com

I- Please mark the occupations below with (x) sign, as “high- medium-low” according to their social status.

Occupation	High	Medium	Low	Occupation	High	Medium	Low
Economist				Retired laborant			
Director general				Cook			
Government accountant				Office employee			
Nurse				Retired policeman			
Retired teacher				Accountant			
Florist				Builder			
Barber				Tourism manager			
Poultry farmer				Carpenter			
Engineer				Retired civil servant			
Vet.				Building technician			
Technician				Imam			
Postman				Furnisher			
Shipper				Operating manager			
Lawyer				Printer			
Self-employed				Worker			
Policeman				Civil servant			
Retired army officer				Teacher			
Driver				Housewife			
Retired nurse				Farmer			
Building contractor				Tradesman			
Doctor				Trainer			
Judge				Army officer			

II- Please fill in the table with each income rate below as classifying them as “high-medium-low” according to their social status.

High	
Medium	
Low	

- **1000 TL and below**
- **1001- 1500 TL**
- **1501- 2000 TL**
- **2001- 2500 TL**
- **2500- 3000 TL**
- **3001 TL and above**

III- Please fill in the table with each educational level below as classifying them “high-medium-low” according to their social status.

High	
Medium	
Low	

- **Illiterate**
- **Literate**
- **Primary school**
- **Secondary school**
- **High school**
- **Two-year degree**
- **Faculty**
- **MA**