



School of Education

**Non-Native Novice EFL Teachers' Beliefs about
Teaching and Learning**

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Abstract

This study investigated the beliefs about teaching and learning English of nine non-native novice teachers at a private university in Northern Cyprus, and the extent to which these beliefs changed in their first year of teaching. Data was collected over an academic year of nine months by means of semi-structured interviews, credos, classroom observations, post-lesson reflection forms, stimulated-recall interviews, diaries and a metaphor-elicitation task. The study found that novice teachers' prior learning experiences were influential in shaping their initial beliefs. By the end of the year, change in the content of the teachers' beliefs was limited. However, the findings also showed that the majority of the teachers' beliefs were re-structured and strengthened, suggesting that beliefs are dynamic. Analysis of the findings indicated that several factors stimulated change in beliefs; differences in individual experiences; contextual factors i.e. the syllabus, dissatisfaction with student behaviour, and students' expectations; and becoming aware of their beliefs and practices. Moreover, the study found that novice teachers' beliefs were not always reflected in their teaching. The analysis showed that inconsistency between beliefs and practices resulted mainly from differences in individual experiences and the restriction of the syllabus. Thus, teachers were not always able to do what they believed would be effective in their classes. Based on the findings, the study argues that novice teachers are involved in a learning period in their first year of teaching and that their beliefs are susceptible to change. Implications of the findings are discussed in relation to teacher education programmes and recommendations are made for further research.

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List of Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this thesis:

EFL: English as a foreign language

ELT: English language teaching

EMU: Eastern Mediterranean University

EMUSFL: Eastern Mediterranean University School of Foreign Languages

ESL: English as a second language

I1: First interview

I2: Second interview

L1 and L2: L1 of the participants in this study is Turkish, L2 is English.

NS: Native speaker

NNS: Non-native speaker

NT: Novice teacher

Pre-ICELT: Preparatory course for in-service certificate for English language teaching course

R: Researcher (me)

SCT: Stem completion task (metaphor elicitation task)

SRI: Stimulated recall interview

STT: Student talking time

T1: At the beginning of the study

T2: At the end of the study

TEFL: Teaching English as a foreign language

TTT: Teacher talking time

YÖK : Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (Council of Higher Education)

Conventions for Extracts from Interviews

... : indicates pauses

[...]: indicates omitted material

[]: indicates additions or explanations inserted in an extract by me

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study focuses on non-native novice EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning throughout their first year of teaching. The study also explores the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and teacher change; that is, change in teachers' beliefs and teaching. Studies in mainstream educational research in relation to teacher thinking have examined teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning, students, teachers' roles, classroom management, implementation of materials, methods to improve teaching and the influence of teacher education on teachers' beliefs and practices (see, for example, Olson, 1980; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Bullough, 1992; Katz, 1996; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Collins, Selinger, and Pratt, 2003; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 2003; Ng, Nicholas, and Williams, 2009). It would be wrong to claim that studies in general education are any different to studies in the area of TEFL. In addition to the issues that are investigated in mainstream education, TEFL studies are generally concerned with issues such as students' language acquisition, teachers' subject knowledge and skill, where the overall aim is to promote better language learning for students. In this respect, teachers' beliefs and how they make sense of their teaching is important because beliefs influence or guide teachers' instructional practices.

1.1 Motivations for conducting this research

I am Turkish Cypriot and I started learning English at the age of twelve in Pakistan. Although my language learning experience was difficult, I have

always admired my teachers as they were able to teach me English in English. I was fascinated about the language and decided to study English literature at the university. Upon my graduation from the English Literature and Humanities department of the Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU) in Northern Cyprus, I started working there as a language instructor at the School of Foreign Languages (EMUSFL). Unlike some of my colleagues, I did not have a teaching certificate. Fortunately, all newly recruited teachers at EMUSFL were required to attend a 15 day intensive training course prior to starting teaching. I believed that this training would introduce me to the teaching techniques I would need in my teaching. At the end of the intensive training course, I felt that I was partially equipped with certain teaching techniques and classroom management skills. I also believed that my learning experiences as a student would support my teaching. My pedagogical and practical knowledge was further developed with the help of the in-service teacher training course (which is now called the Pre-ICELT course) that all new teachers were required to attend in their first year of teaching. In my second year, I completed the COTE RSA which also contributed to my professional development. In my first two years of teaching, I was still learning what it was to be a teacher; I was in a state where I felt that I was learning something different in the classroom each day, just like my students. The only difference between me and my students was that I was learning to become a teacher and they were learning English. However, I still felt the need to improve my teaching and when I completed my third year of teaching, I decided to do an MA in ELT at Warwick University. The education I received during my MA degree filled some of the theoretical gaps in my teaching. I then had the opportunity to apply

my new knowledge in my classes. As the years passed, I realized that teaching became easier with experience and looking back I realized how important my first years of teaching were. During those years, I might have given up the job as there were days when I felt completely lost, trying to find the right way on a road that I had never walked before. I also realized that my beliefs about teaching and learning had changed partly because of the education and training I received and partly because of my classroom experiences. I also realized that the reason I had sometimes felt lost was because of the conflict between my beliefs and what I was experiencing in my classes. For example, I believed that English had to be taught using the target language. This belief developed when I first started learning English in Pakistan. As English was a second language there and as I had no Turkish teachers, I had to be taught in the target language. Later, during my in-service training, my belief was supported as there was great emphasis on teaching English in the target language. Similarly, EMUSFL required instruction in English. Therefore, I was certain that students would benefit and learn most effectively if instruction was delivered in English. However, when I was teaching beginner and elementary level students, I realized that teaching in English and expecting students to communicate in English was burdensome both for me and my students. My beliefs as to how to teach and the expectations of the school clashed with the experiences I had in my classes. This experience – and others – made me change my beliefs about teaching English. I now feel strongly that new teachers should be helped to understand what beliefs they hold at the start of their teaching career and how their beliefs are likely to influence their teaching. In this way, they will face fewer dilemmas in their first year of teaching and perhaps become more

reflective in ways that benefit their teaching. As a result, this study was inspired by my personal interest in understanding what beliefs new teachers at EMUSFL hold, how they influence their teaching and whether their beliefs change at the end of their first year teaching experience.

1.2 Background to the study

Until the mid-1970s, studies of teachers were concerned solely with teachers' behaviour, and not teachers' mental lives (Freeman, 2002). Dissatisfaction with these studies grew as it was realized that only examining teachers' behaviour in the classroom left certain questions unanswered. Therefore, in order to better understand teaching, studies have started to examine the ways teachers' beliefs influence their classroom practices in relation to teaching and learning (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Thus, the mid-70s can be seen as a landmark as the number of studies on teachers' cognition – that is what teachers know, believe and think (Borg, 2003) – gained prominence.

Since then teachers began to be seen as active agents who think and make decisions on the basis of their teaching experience and knowledge of teaching and learning (e.g. Clark and Yinger, 1977; Clark and Peterson, 1986; Elbaz, 1983; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Research in the general education field focused on examining the link between teachers' beliefs, thoughts and actions, which was hoped to provide a better understanding of teaching as well as teacher behaviour. Dan Lortie's pioneering book "School Teacher: A Sociological Study" (1975) is regarded as an important contribution to the literature as it revealed that teachers' prior learning experiences as students

have a powerful influence on the formation of their beliefs about teaching and learning (this is discussed further in Chapter 2). Other studies on teacher cognition (e.g. Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996; Flores, 2005; Phipps and Borg, 2009) also show that teachers' beliefs may, in some way, have an influence on teacher behaviour and the way teachers approach teaching. Thus, these researchers argue that teachers' practices should be understood in relation to their beliefs. They also suggest that teachers should be made aware of their beliefs as they help teachers to make sense of their teaching and better understand the complex nature of their classroom (Nespor, 1987).

Closely related to teachers' beliefs are the metaphors and images teachers form and use about teaching and learning. The metaphors and/or images novices use to describe their teaching primarily reflect beliefs, which derive from their experiences as students. We might, therefore, expect that novices' beliefs would change during the first year of teaching. Teachers' images have potential impact on teachers' actions and thoughts in the classroom; that is, they guide their thoughts and practices (Clandinin, 1985; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Ben-Peretz, Mendelson and Kron, 2003; Saban, 2004; Massengil, Mahlios and Barry, 2005; Mann, 2008). Therefore, the examination of teachers' metaphors is a way to uncover teachers' underlying beliefs related to teaching, learning, students, and their roles as teachers.

In research on novice teachers, much attention has been given to the problems encountered in the first year of teaching (see, for example, Veenman, 1984;

Olson and Osborne, 1991; Stanulis, Fallona and Pearson, 2002; Fottland, 2004). This has included problems related to classroom management, socializing with other teachers, adapting to the school context and curriculum requirements. Non-native speaking (NNS) teachers face similar problems (Farrell, 2003). However, they also encounter additional challenges in terms of language skills and (linguistic) competence (Liu, 1999; Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Tsui, 2007). Although novice teachers' problems are highly important, very little research has been conducted on novice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, even less so on non-native English language teachers' beliefs.

1.3 The context

English has always played an important role in Cyprus. Cyprus was a British Colony from 1878 to 1960. In 1935, English was introduced as a major subject in the national curriculum. When Cyprus gained its independence in 1960, English was still taught as a major subject and even used as a medium of instruction in some schools (e.g. the English School in Nicosia and the American Academy in Larnaca). In July 1974, the coup d'état by some Greek Cypriots and mainland Greek soldiers against the Greek Cypriot Government resulted in political and military turmoil. Following these events, Turkey as one of the guarantor powers (the other two guarantor powers are Greece and the United Kingdom) intervened to save Turkish Cypriots from annihilation. As a result, under the population exchange agreement, the Turkish Cypriots who were domiciled in the South of the island moved to the North and the Greek Cypriots living in the North of the island moved to the South. When

protracted negotiations to find a settlement failed, Turkish Cypriots declared their independence in 1983, calling their state the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus which is only recognized by Turkey. In spite of the problems on the island, English has not lost its importance on the island. Firstly, due to political relations with the United Kingdom, some government reports and official documents are still written in English. Secondly, English is used not only with international businesses but also with local businesses. English is the means of communication for trading with foreign countries. As for local businesses, English has become increasingly present in everyday life since the opening of the borders in 2003. For Turkish and Greek Cypriots, especially for the younger generation, the only way to communicate with each other is in English. Thirdly, many parents send their children to the UK or USA, believing that they will have better job opportunities if they receive education in English. Last but not least, English has an important place in academic life. As Northern Cyprus is not a recognized country, the five universities there are accredited by Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (Council of Higher Education) (YÖK) in Turkey. The medium of instruction in all these universities is English and the students entering the universities (except for those studying Turkish Language Teaching and Law) are expected to have an advanced level of proficiency in English.

The study described in this thesis took place at EMUSFL. The aim of EMUSFL is to equip students with the English they will need for the study of their majors. In order to meet the students' needs, EMUSFL encourages teachers to take professional development and training courses which are offered by the school itself. However, as mentioned earlier in section 1.1 all

new teachers who start working at EMUSFL are initially required to attend a two-week training programme (referred to as the pre-session course) in which the aim is to introduce the teachers to the school system, management and organization. In addition, the teachers are presented with different teaching techniques that may be helpful in the first weeks of their teaching. Once they start teaching, all new teachers attend the Pre-ICELT course. This course is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3, section 3.4.1.

1.4 Aims of the study

The aim of this study was to investigate the beliefs about teaching and learning of non-native novice English language teachers, and any change and development in their beliefs throughout their first year of teaching. Teachers' beliefs were elicited at the beginning of the academic year and were later analysed in relation to their classroom teaching and reflection on their teaching. As Nespor (1987) states, "to understand teaching from teachers' perspectives we have to understand the beliefs with which they define their work" (p.323). Therefore, in my study, I adopted an interpretive approach where the emphasis was on the understanding of my participants' worlds through an examination of their own interpretation of their worlds (Bryman, 2004).

The study was guided by the following five research questions:

1. What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English prior to their first teaching experience? Do the truly inexperienced teachers' beliefs differ from those of the slightly more experienced teachers?

2. What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English at the end of their first academic year?
3. Is there a relationship between novice teachers' beliefs and their teaching?
4. Is there stability or change in novice teachers' beliefs in their first year of teaching? Where there is evidence of change, what is the nature of this change? Do the beliefs of the truly inexperienced teachers and the slightly more experienced teachers change in the same way?
5. What are the factors that appear to cause or inhibit change in the beliefs and practices of novice teachers?

1.5 Significance of the study

There have been many studies on teacher cognition in general education. Of those that have dealt with foreign language teaching, the majority have been conducted in developed countries such as America and England and a few in mainland Turkey. No study concerned with English language teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning has been carried out in Northern Cyprus. This study will have theoretical and practical implications. On the theoretical side, firstly, the majority of studies on teacher cognition focus on primary or secondary teachers. This study was conducted with higher education non-native EFL teachers, and to my knowledge, no research has yet been conducted on non-native novice EFL teachers' beliefs in higher education. Thus, the uniqueness of the participants contributes to the significance of the study. This is a longitudinal study which investigated the relationship between novice teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Thus, the findings offer insights into

novice EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in their first year of teaching. The findings can be compared and contrasted with other studies to better understand the role of beliefs in the foreign language classrooms.

On the practical side, the majority of the studies of foreign language teaching conducted around the world and in Northern Cyprus (at EMUSFL or by the Ministry of Education) have related to the quality of the programmes offered to pre-service or in-service teachers. As mentioned above, no research has yet been conducted on non-native novice EFL teachers' beliefs in higher education. This study sheds new light on the beliefs of non-native novice teachers' beliefs. The findings of this study can inform teacher educators, policy makers and other stakeholders in teacher training courses about the kinds of beliefs teachers hold when they start teaching and the experiences they have in their first year of teaching. In this way, related bodies can assist novice language teachers during their initial years of teaching and maintain teacher retention. Additionally, the study aims to attract teacher educators' attention to the fact that beliefs are important in understanding how teachers approach their work. They can, therefore, build into their programmes tasks that encourage teachers to reveal and become more aware of their beliefs.

It is hoped that this study will stimulate similar work and offer insights to teacher training programmes in the present and similar contexts.

1.6 Definition of terms

The following terms will be used throughout this dissertation.

- **Teachers' beliefs:** refers to teachers' knowledge, beliefs, values, feelings, thinking, principles, implicit knowledge, personal theories, and images (see chapter 2 for a detailed definition of belief)
- **Foreign Language Teaching:** The term refers to a language learnt to be used with people outside one's own community. Students who learn a foreign language have limited exposure to the target language, compared to second language (L2) settings where language is learned after the first language or mother tongue (L1) and spoken by everyone in that country.
- **Native and non-native (English speaking) teachers:** English language teachers have been labelled as native and non-native teachers, and there has been intense debate about the native and non-native English speaking teacher dichotomy; specifically, the debate is around who is a native teacher and who teaches better (see for example, Clark and Paran, 2007; Nemetchinova, 2005; Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Liu, 1999; Medgyes, 1994; Reves and Medgyes, 1994). In the Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning (2000), a non-native speaker teacher is defined as a foreign language teacher "whose mother tongue is the same as that of their students" (p.444), and who teaches in monolingual classes. Therefore, it would not be wrong to claim that native-speakers of a language are those who learn that language in their early childhood.

Non-native speakers of a language are those who learn that language after acquiring a native command of their mother tongue.

- **Pre-service teachers:** The term refers to student teachers who are attending pre-service courses such as PGCE, CELTA or doing practice teaching/a practicum as part of an undergraduate degree.
- **Novice teachers:** The term refers to teachers who have entered the teaching profession for the first time or who have had little teaching experience (Tsui, 2003).
- **Teacher training and education:** Teacher education or training courses refers to pre-service and in-service training, including in-house tailored training courses.

1.7 Structure of the dissertation

Chapter 1 has introduced the background to the study, my position as a researcher, the context and the aim of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on teacher cognition and its influence on teaching practices. It discusses definitions of beliefs and knowledge, teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, teachers' beliefs and thought processes, elicitation of beliefs, formation and change of beliefs, and studies of beliefs and belief change in mainstream education and the EFL context. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology. It describes the two main philosophical positions: the positivistic and the interpretivist positions and the rationale for the methodology used. Additionally, the context, the research participants and the research design are described in detail. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The final chapter discusses the findings, the participants and my views on the

effectiveness of the instruments, lists the limitations of the study and offers recommendations for further studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. Section 2.2 explores definitions of beliefs and different terms that have been used to refer to beliefs. The section ends with my own definition of belief which will be used in this study. Section 2.3 examines the sources of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. The section focuses on how beliefs are formed. Section 2.4 looks at the types of beliefs teachers hold about teaching and learning. Section 2.5 reviews previous studies of first-year teachers with particular attention to their beliefs and experiences. In section 2.6, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices (decisions, planning and action) is examined. The section explores the extent to which teachers' beliefs and practices are aligned. Section 2.7 looks at change in teachers' beliefs. Although the focus of my study is on first-year teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, examining the kinds of beliefs student teachers hold before their first experience of teaching was relevant to the study. Therefore, studies of pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning are also reviewed. In section 2.8, I discuss why eliciting beliefs is important, elicitation methods and the difficulties that are inherent in researching them. The final section highlights gaps in the literature.

2.2 Defining teachers' beliefs

Rokeach (1968) defines belief as "any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being

preceded by the phrase “I believe that...” (p.113). Although this definition may seem simple and dates from 40 years ago, there has been no general agreement on an improved definition in the years since then. This lack of clear definition of the concept of belief is one problematic area that has caused confusion in research. The second related confusion relates to terminology. Pajares (1992:307) has labelled beliefs a “messy construct” because researchers have used different terms to refer to beliefs. He states that beliefs “travel in disguise and often under alias” (p.309). The aliases include:

attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding and social strategy (Pajares, 1992:309)

The last problem associated with the concept of beliefs is the difficulty of distinguishing beliefs from knowledge. The rest of this section reviews the terms that have been used to refer to beliefs, definitions that have been developed to define teachers’ beliefs, and distinction between beliefs and knowledge.

As stated above, the term “belief” is plagued with “definitional problems, poor conceptualisations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures” (p.307). Indeed, teachers’ beliefs have been referred to by various terms, such as, “implicit knowledge” (Richards, 1998), “constructs” (Kelly, 1955), “teachers’ implicit theories” (Clark and Yinger, 1977; Clark and Peterson, 1986), “personal practical knowledge” (Clandinin and Connelly, 1987), “maxims” (Richards, 1996), “teacher perspectives” (Tabachnick and Zeichner, 2003), personal theories (Olson, 1980; Sendan and Roberts, 1998),

“teacher cognitions” (Kagan, 1990, Borg, 2003), and BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) (Woods, 1996). Clandinin and Connelly (1987) seem to have foreseen the terminology problem and suggested that the terms are “simply different words naming the same thing” (op. cit. 488). However, an examination of the terms reveals that not all terms carry the same meaning. The reason for the proliferation of the terms could result from researchers who create new definitions which best defines their work (see table 2.1 below for the terms and their definitions). To overcome confusion about the terms, Pajares (1992) suggests that researchers should define clearly what the term they are using means and clarify what beliefs are investigated. For example, Tabachnick and Zeichner (2003) use the term ‘teacher perspectives’ to refer to beliefs. They define teacher perspectives as a set of ideas and actions used in teaching. In their study, they analyzed the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and behaviours in relation to knowledge and curriculum, the teacher’s role, teacher-pupil relationships, and student diversity. Based on their findings, they state that classroom behaviour expresses teachers’ beliefs about teaching. Sendan and Roberts (1998) use the term personal theories (see Table 2.1 for definition), which suggests that the teacher is involved in a process of hypothesis testing. They also argue that beliefs are dynamic and can change if they prove wrong. In their study, they focused on how a student teacher’s thinking about teaching effectiveness changes.

Table 2. 1 Terminology and description for the concept of belief

Source	Term	Definition
Clark and Peterson (1986)	Teachers' theories and beliefs	"the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258)
Richards and Lockhart (1996)	Beliefs	"the goals [and] values [that] that serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action" (p.30)
Woods (1996)	Beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK)	BAK is integrated sets of thoughts which guide teachers' action
Richards (1996)	Maxims	personal working principles which reflect teachers' individual philosophies of teaching, developed from their experience of teaching and learning, their teacher education experiences, and from their own personal beliefs and value systems (1996: 293).
Richards (1998)	Implicit theories/ knowledge	personal and subjective philosophy and their understanding of what constitutes good teaching (p.51)
Sendan and Roberts (1998)	Personal theories	an underlying system of constructs that student teachers draw upon in thinking about, evaluating, classifying and guiding pedagogic practice' (p.230)
Borg (2003)	Teacher cognitions	"the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think in relation to their work" (p.81).
Tabachnick and Zeichner (2003)	Teaching perspectives	A coordinated set of ideas and actions used in teaching

Pajares (1992) states that the problem with the terms revolves around the distinction between knowledge and belief. Calderhead (1996) defines beliefs as “suppositions, commitments and ideologies” and knowledge as “factual propositions and the understanding that inform skilful action” (p. 715). Richardson (1996) also states that knowledge requires a truth condition, while beliefs do not. Richards (1996) proposes what may appear to be a narrower model of teacher knowledge: subject matter knowledge and implicit knowledge/theories of teaching. Subject matter knowledge relates to “curricular goals, lesson plans, instructional activities, materials, tasks, and teaching techniques” (op. cit.:51). Implicit knowledge, on the other hand, refers to teachers’ “personal and subjective philosophy and their understanding of what constitutes good teaching” (ibid). It is this kind of knowledge that influences, guides, and changes teachers’ actions in the classroom.

The distinction between beliefs and knowledge is clarified by Nespor (1987), who developed a framework based on Abelson’s (1979) study. Eight teachers who had at least two years of teaching experience took part in the study, which lasted a semester. Two each in eighth grade were teaching the following subjects: Mathematics, English, American history, and Texas history. Four semi-structured interviews and repertory grid interviews were used to elicit teachers’ principles and beliefs about teaching, their students and their behaviours, and about the school. These were followed by stimulated recall interviews, where the teachers watched videotapes of their classrooms and reflected on their teaching. Nespor identified four major structural features that distinguish beliefs from knowledge:

- **Existential presumption:** The teacher has propositions or assumptions about the existence or non-existence of an entity. Nespor (1987) exemplifies this feature by referring to two teachers who perceived failure in learning mathematics from different perspectives. One of the teachers believed that students who failed to learn mathematics were those who were too ‘lazy’ to do the work. Thus, he believed that forcing the students to do more work would enable them to learn. The other teacher, on the other hand, believed that learning was related to ‘mental maturity’ and believed that forcing the students to learn would not be effective. Nespor concluded that such beliefs are ‘immutable’ and thus not open to persuasion.
- **Alternativity:** The teacher envisions an ideal classroom atmosphere which is different from reality. This is shown in his study by a teacher (Ms Skylark) who held the belief that her classes should be friendly and fun. However, in trying to put this into practise, her objectives were not achieved and lessons were never completed. Nespor concludes that “beliefs serve as means of defining goals and tasks, whereas knowledge systems come into play where goals and the paths to their attainment are well-defined” (op. cit. 319).
- **Affective and evaluative aspects:** This feature includes feelings, moods, and subjective evaluations based on personal preferences. Three of the teachers in the study believed that teaching the ‘facts’ and details of history should not be their primary goal as the students would not remember them in later grades. The teachers

developed other types of teaching goals, which they believed would have a lasting effect. Thus, affective and evaluative aspects of belief will determine how much energy the teacher is willing to spend on an activity.

- **Episodic storage:** Beliefs are stored as episodes derived from “personal experiences, episodes or events” (op. cit. 320), whereas knowledge is semantically stored, that is, it is composed of accepted facts and principles. In Nespor’s study, Ms. Skylark remembered her experiences as a student, and did not want her students to go through the same experience. Her memories (stored in her belief system) seemed to have more influence on her teaching practise than her knowledge system.

Nespor identified two other features – non-consensuality and unboundedness. These two features belong to belief systems as a whole. He proposed that belief systems are non-consensual in the sense that there is no dispute about their recognition or validity. Moreover, they are marked as being “less dynamic” and more static than knowledge systems. Knowledge is accumulative and can change in time according to well-supported arguments. Belief systems include affective feelings and personal experiences and are not open to outside evaluation or judgment, whereas knowledge systems can be argued over. Belief systems are also said to be unbounded as there are no logical rules, it would be difficult to determine the relevance of beliefs to real-world events. Knowledge-systems, on the other hand, have relatively well-defined domains of

application, and can be used in other phenomena through the application of strict rules of argument.

Given the differences that he has indicated between features of beliefs and knowledge, Nespor (1987) concludes that beliefs are based on personal experiences and are also more effective than knowledge in enabling teachers to define their problems and tasks, and make sense of their teaching contexts. For example, if a teacher has experienced in her/his school life being taught English grammar in his/her mother tongue and found this to be effective, it is probable that s/he will prefer to conduct grammar lessons in her/his mother tongue. Based on her/his experience as a student, s/he will believe that this way of teaching will be more beneficial for the students.

Contrary to Nespor (1987), Woods (1996), in his ethnographic study of eight ESL teachers teaching at university level in Canada, claims that the teachers' "use of knowledge in their decision-making did not seem to be qualitatively different from their use of beliefs" (p. 195). He states that it was difficult for him to differentiate between beliefs and knowledge:

In many cases it cannot be clearly determined whether the interpretations of the events are based on what the teacher knows, what the teacher believes, or what the teacher believes s/he knows (op. cit.: 194).

He exemplifies this difficulty by referring to a teacher who knows or believes that students groaning meant they did not like to work in groups. However, the reason for their groaning might have been students' "particular mood that day, or the effects of the class party the previous evening" (ibid). He defines *knowledge* as "things we know – conceptually accepted facts" (p. 195), as

defined in the section above; *assumption* refers to acceptance of a fact temporarily; and *beliefs* refer to an acceptance of a proposition which is not based on conventional knowledge, which cannot be proved, and which is open to disagreement. As he was analysing his interview data, he realized that the teachers' use of knowledge in their decision-making process could not be differentiated from their use of beliefs. He concludes that distinguishing between beliefs, assumptions and knowledge is a difficult task as they may overlap with each other. As a result, he combined teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge and proposed an inclusive concept: BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge).

Based on the definitions of beliefs in the existing literature, the definition that was used for this study is that beliefs are based on a person's knowledge (not necessarily scientific knowledge) or what s/he perceives to be facts. More specifically, beliefs have cognitive (implicit knowledge, factual or experiential knowledge), affective and evaluative (individual's personal experiences, feelings, moods) elements that are true for the individual. To sum up, I was interested in what beliefs teachers hold, and what they say and do (their experiences and actions in the classroom).

The next section discusses the sources of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

2.3 Sources of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning

Research in the field of teacher cognition has shown that prospective and novice teachers hold certain beliefs about teaching and learning long before they start their teaching profession (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Woods, 1996; Flores, 2001, 2002). The sources of teachers' beliefs which have been identified in research on teacher cognition include teachers' personal experiences as students, or "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975: 61) and teacher education. Other sources may include "teachers' personality factors, educational principles and research-based evidence" (Richards and Lockhart, 1996:30). Throughout the period of apprenticeship of observation, student teachers form images of their favourite and least favourite teachers and teaching methods, and with these images in their minds they develop beliefs about the best way of teaching and learning. The case would not be different in the field of foreign language teaching. During schooling, future foreign language teachers also form images of their favourite teachers and teaching styles that they might later adopt. They are likely to form anti- and pro-role models. Clearly, the influence can be so great that students whose favourite subject is English may decide to become English teachers themselves (Britten, 1988). Bailey, Bergthold, Braunstein, Fleischman, Holbrook, Tuman, Waissbluth, and Zamboo (1996) state that teachers "internalize specific behaviours as "good" and "bad" (p.15) and according to their learning experience they decide the kind of teacher they want to be in the future. Lortie (*ibid*) notes that this learning experience is influential yet incomplete:

What students learn about teaching, then, is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytic; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles. (op. cit:62)

Moreover, Kagan (1992) argues that student teachers' images of learners are usually inaccurate because they often assume that their learners will "possess learning styles, aptitudes, interests, and problems similar to their own" (145). Teachers of non-native speakers of English may also feel that their students are similar to them because they have had the experience of learning English as a second or foreign language.

Studies have used student teachers and teachers' images to examine the power of apprenticeship of observation on student teachers' teaching. There is convincing research evidence that images that are formed during schooling shape student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and how they approach their teacher training programmes and teaching practice (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Bailey et al. 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Brown, 2005). For example, Bailey et al. (1996) investigated the influence of learning experiences on teachers' teaching philosophies and practices through language learning autobiographies and journal entries of seven MA candidates in training and a teacher educator in the USA. The following factors were identified as successful language learning experiences: 1) teacher factor/personality; 2) teachers' expectations of their students; 3) reciprocal respect; 4) maintaining interest and motivation; 5) positive learning atmosphere. Although the relationship with their actual classroom practices and prior learning experiences were not compared, the teachers felt that apprenticeship of

observation shaped their teaching philosophies and influenced the way they taught.

In the field of TESOL, a good example that shows the power of apprenticeship of observation on teaching is Numrich's (1996) study of twenty-six teachers registered on a Master's degree programme in TESOL in the USA. The aim of the study was to identify common themes about language teaching and learning shared among the student teachers, who had less than six months' teaching experience. Data was collected in the fall semester during their practicum. The teachers were required to write (a) their language learning history before starting to teach, (b) a diary which had to be written according to given guidelines, and (c) their own diary analysis. The study revealed that the teachers were concerned with their own teaching rather than their students' needs or learning. They generally aimed to establish rapport with the students and wanted to be creative in their lessons. Making the classroom a safe and comfortable environment, and good management were mentioned most frequently. Analysis of the diaries also revealed that the teachers' language learning histories were reflected in the way they taught. Teachers who had positive learning experiences in studying culture as they learned another language preferred to introduce the U.S culture in their teaching of ESL. Similarly, teachers who had been given the chance to communicate as learners incorporated such activities in their lessons. Additionally, teachers chose to avoid explicit error correction because of their own negative experiences of being corrected.

Another study that illuminates the power of apprenticeship of observation is that of Johnson (1994), who studied four pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and how these teachers' beliefs shaped their teaching, through written journals, observations, interviews and video-taping followed by stimulated recall interview. At the time of the study, the pre-service teachers were attending a Master of Arts programme in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) in the USA. The study reported that the images which the student teachers used to describe their beliefs based on their prior experiences had a powerful influence on their beliefs and on the way they taught. The following images were identified: images of their formal and informal learning experiences, images of themselves as teachers and images of the teacher preparation programme. The four student teachers described images of their formal learning experiences as teacher-centred and traditional. Moreover, they knew the kind of teachers they wanted to be; that is, they did not want to be like their former teachers who did not use authentic materials and who did not provide meaningful learning. However, they did not know how not to be that kind of teacher as they had no alternative images of teachers and teaching to serve as role models. They wanted their classes to be student-centred but they believed that in order to maintain the flow of the lesson, manage the class time effectively and maintain the authority of the class they needed to revert to traditional teacher-centred lessons. For example, when one of the teachers realized that she was running out of time, she interrupted the students' discussion and told them to continue with the next task in order to complete her lesson. She was not sure whether interrupting students' discussion or letting them continue their discussion would be more effective.

As a result, she found herself going back to the “traditional teacher-mode” (op. cit.: 449). Another teacher, who wanted her students to give their opinions about a dialogue, was unable to generate a discussion. During a stimulated recall interview, she realized that when she did not get the answer she was expecting, she would give the answer herself. She justified her behaviour by explaining that, though she was critical of her prior learning experiences, they continued to influence the way she was teaching and she believed that she needed more role models. Roberts (1998) states that student-teachers are concerned with losing face and damaging their self-esteem. As a result, they create coping strategies to minimise difficulties that they may face. The teacher in Johnson’s study did not want the flow of the lesson to be interrupted and thus to lose face in front of her class. The teachers were more concerned with maintaining the flow of the lesson, rather than focusing on students’ learning. Johnson also added that the teachers lacked procedural knowledge; as a result they did not know how classrooms work and what students are like. Therefore, she suggests that student teachers should be provided with the opportunity of experiencing and observing good models of alternative instructional practices with which they can compare their own experiences. This study shows that the teachers strived to teach according to their beliefs, but could not succeed. In other words, although the teachers knew what kind of teachers they wanted to be and how they wanted their lessons to be conducted, they could not create the teaching and learning environment they desired. The images held by these student teachers had an influence on their teaching, not necessarily because of their apprenticeship of observation, but because they lacked alternative images of teachers and teaching to act as a model of action. The two studies described

above indicate that student teachers' past learning experiences and the images that they formed during those years have an influence on how they view their work.

As mentioned earlier, a second important source of teachers' beliefs is teacher education. Various studies (e.g. Richards, Ho and Giblin, 1996; Sendan and Roberts, 1998; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Abdulllah-Sani, 2000; Flores, 2002; da Silva, 2005; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2009) have shown that teacher education can be influential in shaping student teachers' and teachers' beliefs. For example, Woods (1996) found that language learning experiences, early teaching experiences and education courses can influence teachers' beliefs and how they approach teaching. In his study, teacher B, an ESL student teacher, learned French in a formal way, which seemed to him inappropriate. After attending courses in ESL teaching, his belief that learning a language was holistic and communicative was re-affirmed. However, when he started teaching, his students showed resistance to his communicative teaching. This finding shows that the training programme was effective in helping to reassure teacher's beliefs, even though there were mismatches or conflicts between his beliefs and students' expectations. The impact of teacher education will be discussed in more detail in section 2.7.

Richards and Lockhart (1996:30, citing Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler, 1988) summarize a number of teachers' beliefs. These derive from:

- Their own experience as language learners: their learning experience may influence their beliefs about teaching and learning. If they see

what their teachers do is accepted, they may imitate their former teachers' teaching.

- Experience of what works best: Some teachers may experience that certain teaching strategies may or may not work in their classes.
- Established practice: A certain teaching style may be preferred in an institution.
- Personality factors: Some teachers may prefer a particular teaching pattern or activity because it matches with their personality.
- Educationally based or research-based principles: Teachers may want to apply a particular teaching style that they may have learnt from a conference or research article.
- Principles derived from an approach or method: Teachers may believe in the effectiveness of a particular approach and apply it consistently in their classrooms.

The general conclusion that can be drawn from these sources is that teachers' beliefs generally come from their prior learning experiences as students, and teacher education courses. Having looked at the influential factors in forming teachers' beliefs, the next section examines what beliefs teachers hold about teaching and learning.

2.4 Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning

Studies that investigate teachers' beliefs, by and large, focus on the following areas:

- beliefs about learners and learning: teachers' beliefs about how their students learn is likely to be influential on how they approach teaching tasks and their relationships with their students.
- beliefs about teaching: teachers' beliefs about the purposes of teaching. Is teaching a process of transmitting knowledge? Or is it about facilitating and guiding students' learning? Or is it about building social relationships?
- beliefs about subject: how teachers view the subject.
- beliefs about learning to teach: teachers' beliefs about professional development.
- beliefs about self and the teaching role: teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles and how these beliefs shape their classroom practise.

Calderhead (1996)

In the field of language teaching, Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) suggest that teachers hold beliefs about the curriculum, language and language teaching, classroom practices, teacher's role, and the profession. Although the researchers did not identify learning as a separate category, they reported on learning under the teaching section.

Additionally, researchers have investigated teachers' beliefs about a particular issue. For example, teaching grammar (Borg, 1999; Andrews, 2003; Farrell and Lim, 2005; Phipps and Borg, 2009), or communicative language teaching (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Feryok, 2008; Hiep, 2007). Moreover, researchers looked at the influence of training programmes on teachers and student teachers' beliefs (discussed in section 2.7).

As this study is concerned with teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, the rest of this section will focus on the following three areas: beliefs about learning; beliefs about teaching; and beliefs about self and the teaching role.

Beliefs about learning

Uncovering teachers' beliefs about learning can help teachers, school administrators and policy makers understand students' expectation, interests and needs. In this way, teachers can implement appropriate teaching strategies to enhance learning. The body of research on teachers' beliefs about learners and learning identified several factors which seem to relate positively with successful language learning. Some of these factors can be listed as: motivation and attitudes toward the target language (Banya and Cheng, 1997; Brown and McGannon, 1998; Borg, 2002; Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005), learner ability, aptitude, learning opportunities (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005), willingness to use the target language (communication) (Richards, Tung, and Ng, 1992; Borg, 2002; Erdoğan, 2005), learning new vocabulary and grammar rules (Horwitz, 1999; Peacock, 2001). Except for learner ability and aptitude, the teacher plays an important role in promoting the other factors. For example, if students lack motivation to learn, the teacher can help students to get motivated to learn the language. Similarly, in terms of learning new vocabulary, the teacher can encourage students to read books and look up the meanings of unknown words. However, learners should also be responsible for their own learning. This is reflected in an earlier study conducted by Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) who examined the beliefs and practices of 249 secondary school teachers of English in Hong Kong. Teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of

32 items covering the following areas: beliefs about the curriculum; about language and language teaching; classroom practices; teacher's role; and the profession (more findings described in the following sections). Teachers reported that the best way to learn a language involved: learners exposing themselves to the language as far as possible, interacting with native speakers and reading books in English.

Beliefs about teaching

Teachers hold various beliefs (e.g. teaching techniques, classroom management, dealing with problem behaviours) about how teaching should occur. Some teachers may regard teaching as knowledge transmission, others as facilitating learning (Calderhead, 1996). Teachers adopt different approaches depending on how they view teaching. Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) identified two distinct groups of teachers: teachers who adopted functional-based approach and grammar-based approach. Teachers adopting the functional-based approach favoured frequent use of audio-tapes, role-plays, and pair and group work tasks. Teachers adopting a grammar-based approach, on the other hand, made frequent use of written grammar exercises and dictation.

Since the 1970s, the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching has been the most widely advocated approach (see, for example, Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Canale and Swain, 1980). The main feature of this approach is that learners should be taught to use the language to communicate effectively and appropriately. Rather than memorizing grammatical structures, learners should

be encouraged to work with the language and use it to communicate meaningfully (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Another feature of this approach is that classes are student-centred, and students are encouraged to play an active role in the learning process. Studies show that foreign language teachers are generally in favour of using the communicative approach, believing that the students will be able to acquire and use all the four skills and the necessary grammar and vocabulary effectively (see for example, Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son, 2004). However, studies also show that although teachers favoured the approach, they were unable to implement specific CLT techniques fully or tended to focus on teaching grammar explicitly, a feature not consistent with CLT (see, for example, Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Andrews, 2003; Hiep, 2007; Feryok, 2008). One reason for the inconsistency between beliefs and teaching behaviour might be that the teachers may not have the sufficient knowledge and skills to implement the teaching method that they believe would be effective. For example, a teacher might believe that students would benefit from a communicative approach, but if s/he does not know how to engage students in meaningful tasks that promote language use, then s/he will tend to use mechanical tasks. Another reason for the inconsistency between beliefs and teaching behaviour can be school culture, contextual constraints or education system.

Farrell (2006a), in his case study of an individual secondary school English teacher in Singapore, reported on a) the novice teacher's conflict between his approach to teaching English language and what was expected of him, b)

conflict between what he wanted to teach (the content), and what he was required to teach, and c) the difficulties he had in building rapport with his colleagues (explained in Farrell, 2003, section 2.5). The teacher believed that language classrooms should be student-centred, where pair and group work would be used frequently to encourage the students to use the language. However, the school did not favour the use of group activities, as they wanted the classrooms to be quiet. Although there was a clash between his belief and school expectations, the teacher attempted to find a balance and did not give up his prior beliefs. The teacher also felt constrained in terms of lesson content, as the department required him to teach only from the materials given. However, the teacher considered his students' needs and supplemented his lessons with extra materials. He had to reassure his students about the usefulness and relevance of these supplementary materials as the students were concerned about their relevance to the examinations which they would sit at the end of the year. Farrell (ibid.) states that such problems can prevent teachers' development if they are not resolved. He suggests that language teacher education programmes should focus on the development of skills in anticipatory reflection so that beginning teachers can become more aware of what they will experience in real classrooms.

Beliefs about self and the teaching role

Teachers' beliefs about the self and their teaching role are closely linked to how they teach or perform in the classroom. In this thesis, I differentiate the self and the teaching role. The self refers to teachers' personal characteristics, and teaching role refers to the use of specific teaching skills to manage or

enhance learning. Personal characteristics include being patient, understanding, fair, compassionate and so on. Teaching roles, on the other hand, relate to teachers' performance during a lesson (Hedge, 2000). Specifically, it denotes the use of skills to manage classroom, provide learning opportunities, set activities and maintain students' interest. Harmer (2001) identified the following teaching roles: controller, organiser, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. These represent the roles of the teachers in terms of their teaching performance, rather than their personal characteristics.

Katz (1996) argues that how teachers interpret their roles in the classroom influences their teaching style; particularly, the way they use methods, techniques, and procedures. Examining each of the four ESL writing teachers' use of metaphors through interviews, and teachers' teaching style and classroom behaviour from observations, she developed individual metaphors to identify each teacher's teaching style. The metaphors were the teacher as the choreographer, the earth mother, the entertainer, and the professor. Katz provides an in-depth analysis of how four teachers make sense of their teaching. However, in my opinion, the study would have been more interesting if she had asked her participants to define their roles using metaphors.

Stokes (1998) suggests that involving teachers in defining their roles using metaphors is one way to challenge their thinking about their identity or the self during the first year of teaching. I discuss metaphors in more detail in section 2.8. Two studies of particular relevance to this study are those by Saban, Kocbeker and Saban (2007), and Kavanoz (2006). These studies seemed to be

important for my study because they were both conducted in a similar context to mine. Saban et al. (2007) investigated 1142 Turkish prospective teachers' metaphors of teaching and learning. The student teachers were given a piece of paper to complete the following prompt: "A teacher is like...because..." and provide an explanation or clarification for the metaphor. Prospective teachers were also asked to provide their gender, class level and programme type. The authors predicted that female subjects would supply more "growth-oriented metaphorical images" (p.125) than male participants. A total of 64 metaphors were analysed and 10 themes were identified as valid. Six dominant categories and metaphors emerged from the data. In order of frequency, these were:

- Teacher as knowledge provider (300 responses): the sun, candle, tree, light, flower, computer (student as passive recipient of knowledge)
- Teacher as moulder/craftsperson (277 responses): sculptor, painter, constructor, baker (student as raw material)
- Teacher as facilitator/scaffolder (212 responses): compass, lighthouse, North Star, flashlight, traffic lights (student as constructor of knowledge)
- Teacher as nurturer/cultivator (103 responses): gardener, farmer (student as developing organism)
- Teacher as counsellor (91 responses): parent, friend (student as significant other)
- Teacher as cooperative/democratic leader (83 responses): tour guide, coach, conductor (student as active participant in a community of practice)

(Saban, Kocbeker and Saban, 2007)

The other four categories that were identified but were less frequent were: Teacher as curer/repairer (student as defective individual), Teacher as superior authoritative figure (student as absolute compliant), Teacher as change agent (student as object of change), and Teacher as entertainer (student as conscious observant).

Looking at the first two categories, it can clearly be seen that the whole responsibility of teaching is put on the teacher, and the students' role is seen as very passive. This view could be due to the influence of traditional Turkish culture and education, where the teacher is seen as the sole authority and transmitter of knowledge, unlike Western education. Consistent with earlier studies of metaphor elicitation (e.g. Saban, 2004; Farrell, 2006b; McGrath, 2006a; Mann, 2008; Kasoutas and Malamitsa, 2009), the authors suggest that teacher educators can use metaphor analysis as a means to help prospective teachers to examine their values, beliefs, and philosophies about teaching and learning. However, the participants did not produce well-defined metaphors of teaching and learning. Thus, their suggestion in relation to examining prospective teachers' philosophies about teaching and learning is a weak suggestion as they lacked data in that area. Additionally, the authors did not make any attempt to uncover what led these teachers to produce their metaphors. Nonetheless, the study offers insights about these prospective teachers' beliefs regarding teachers' roles.

Kavanoz's (2006) study of two EFL teachers at a private school and two at a public school reported similar findings in relation to teachers' roles. The teachers in the public school viewed themselves as "teller", "presenter" and "corrector", while the teachers in the private school defined their roles as "facilitators", "guide", "leader", and "problem solver". She found that teachers' roles in their classrooms reflected their teaching style. For example, teachers in the public school implemented teacher-led activities. The findings of the study are illuminating, yet there are several weaknesses of the study. One weakness is that the researcher does not explain the general teaching pattern in public schools in Turkey. The second weakness is that the researcher does not attempt to draw conclusions on the reasons why teachers chose those roles. Thus, the reader is left to make assumptions as to why the teachers in the public school adopted their particular roles. The last weakness is that the researcher failed to provide information about participants' teaching experience.

The teachers in Richards, Tung and Ng's (1992) study, described above, saw their roles in their classrooms as providing useful learning experiences, providing a model of correct language use, answering learners' questions, and correcting learners' errors. On the other hand, when they were asked to describe their main role as an English teacher, different descriptions were provided: helping students discover effective approaches to learning, passing on knowledge and skills to their students, and adapting teaching approaches to match their students' needs. It could be concluded that the teachers in this

study saw teaching and their role as supporting and facilitating students' learning.

In a recent study, Aydın, Bayram, Canıdar, Çetin, Ergünay, Özdem and Tunç (2009) administered questionnaires to high school ELT teachers in Turkey. The majority (59.7%) of these teachers were novice teachers who had one to five years of teaching experience. The teachers (94%) considered their roles as very important in students' lives. In their responses to open-ended part of the questionnaire, some of the teachers stated that their own motivation was affected negatively when they realized that students had no interest in learning.

Research has also looked at how teachers and students perceive characteristics of effective teachers (e.g. Brosh, 1996; Koutsoulis, 2003; Zhang and Watkins, 2007). Brosh (1996), using questionnaires and interviews, investigated ELT teachers' and high school students' perceptions of effective language teachers in Israel. In Brosh's study, personal characteristics and teaching roles were regarded as intertwined. Both groups regarded "knowledge and command of the target language" (p.133) as the main characteristic of an effective language teacher. The second characteristic was "ability to organize, explain and clarify" (ibid.) as well as motivate and interest students in the learning process. Being fair, that is not showing prejudice or favouritism, and being available were the last most commonly mentioned characteristics. Koutsoulis (2003) investigated Cypriot high school students' conceptualisation of the characteristics of effective teachers. In terms of personal characteristics, the students regarded effective teachers as those who had the ability to show understanding, were

friendly and were approachable to students. As for teaching characteristics or roles, they considered using effective teaching methods (making the lesson understandable), knowing how to communicate with the students, and willingness to teach as the three most important characteristics.

To sum up, this section looked at the types of beliefs teachers hold about teaching and learning. The next section examines studies of first year teachers' beliefs and experiences.

2.5 Novice teachers' beliefs and experiences

This section reviews studies from the field of mainstream education and EFL/ESL contexts conducted with teachers in their first year(s) of teaching. These studies highlight novice teachers' beliefs, experiences, difficulties and conflicts in their first year of teaching.

The literature on novice teachers supports the view that teachers in their first year of teaching are initially concerned with self-adequacy (e.g. classroom control, acceptance by students), then concerned with students (e.g. how much students have mastered the given content) (Fuller, 1969). During the initial years of teaching, novices struggle to survive in their work environment. Studies have indicated that several possible reasons for encountering problems were due to not being supported by colleagues, classroom management problems, insufficient training and mismatch between teachers' own beliefs and school expectation.

Farrell's (2003) case study of an individual secondary school English teacher in Singapore investigated the teacher's socialization and development as a teacher during his first year of teaching. The focus of the study was the challenges a teacher experienced during his first year of teaching. Data were collected from the researcher's field notes and log, six hours of classroom observations, transcriptions of classroom data and post-observation conferences, semi-structured interviews with the teacher and the school principal, and journal writing. Farrell (2003) notes that the teacher's first reality shock was workload and the extra duties (such as invigilation, extra-curricular activities, lesson observations by the Head of the Department, and remedial sessions) that he was given. While he was teaching 16 periods during his practicum, once he entered real teaching he was given 35 periods to teach. Secondly, the teacher did not know how to deal with students whose English language proficiency was low, and who also caused discipline problems. The teacher did not want to punish those who caused discipline problems, but used his own methods of dealing with these. His method was to use a "pupil's promise form" (op. cit.:103), where the students would promise to obey the classroom rules. The third problematic area for the teacher concerned the lack of support from his colleagues and poor communication with them. He characterises the school as having "a culture of individualism" (op. cit. 103), where the teachers were always too busy to talk. However, he did receive positive support from the principal. The teacher in this study did not lose hope and tried to overcome the problems on his own. As he gained more experience in teaching and became more familiar with the school context, he was able to manage his classroom and devise effective teaching methods. Farrell

(op.cit.:104) identifies several stages in the teacher's development; The teacher entered the school with an *idealistic* view – making a difference in students' lives. Then, he faced *reality shock* – discipline problems in the classroom and communication problems with his colleagues. Next, he entered a phase of *recognizing* these difficulties and their causes. The following stage was “*reaching a plateau*” (Maynard and Furlong, 1995, cited in Farrell, 2003: 104), where he set up routines for himself both inside and outside the classroom and became part of the school culture. The last stage, “*moving on*” (ibid) involved paying more attention to the quality of his students' learning. Farrell states that the teacher did not follow these stages sequentially, but rather moved back and forth between them.

This study shows that settling into a new environment can be extremely difficult for a beginning teacher. This difficulty emerged mainly because of teachers' reality shock. It is possible to suggest the teacher's ideals were replaced by the reality of school life. Specifically, the novice teacher had problems in the following three areas: workload, discipline problems, and socialisation.

Flores (2002, 2005) conducted a study of fourteen Portuguese teachers who had no prior teaching experience. The study investigated the teacher's learning, development and change during the first two years of teaching. The participants were teachers of Physics and Chemistry (7), Languages (3), Maths (1), Biology (1), Physical Education (1) and Music (1). Although teachers from different subjects were involved in the study, the researcher did not report the

findings according to the subjects the teachers taught. Semi-structured interviews (at the beginning and at the end of each academic year), questionnaires and annual reports which focused on teachers' experiences and their overall evaluation of their work during the school year were the means of data collection from the teachers. Students also took part in the study. They were asked to write an essay describing their teacher at the beginning and at the end of the academic year, focusing the way their teacher had changed over the year.

The findings of the study showed that the majority of the teachers who initially favoured a more inductive and student-centred approach to teaching eventually adopted a more traditional and teacher-centred approach. Only four teachers were found to have changed over time. Change occurred at three main levels: 1. *the classroom level*: methods of teaching, classroom management, ways of approaching the subject, interaction with students; 2. *the personal level*: change in, or challenge of, personal beliefs and views of teaching and being a teacher; 3. *the school level*: change which occurred in relation to school and colleagues (Flores, 2005: 393). Most new teachers explained that they became stricter and more distant in order to reduce disciplinary problems. This was also confirmed by students' comments about their teachers. However, some teachers stated that they became less strict and closer to their students. This is how one of the teachers explained her behaviour:

At the beginning...I have to let them know that I am the boss, so to speak, and that I am the one who sets up the rules inside the classroom. But after a while, two or three weeks, I start being nicer and closer.

In addition to classroom management problems, contextual and structural factors led teachers to behave in opposition to their beliefs. Specifically, lack of equipment, resources, long syllabi, time pressure, and national requirements were some of the factors mentioned. Flores states that teachers gave up their beliefs and images of good teaching and teachers as a result of three main situations:

- They started to do ‘what works’ in practice, even if they believed in the opposite;
- They became ‘socialized’ into the ethos of teaching: they started doing what their colleagues and administration do;
- They were ‘forced’ to act in a certain way as a result of the external (Ministry of Education) and internal (school regulations) expectations.

(Flores, 2005:396)

The teachers in Flores’s study and Farrell’s study shared similar problems in terms of socialisation. The novice teachers in Flores’s study also felt unsupported and isolated in their work environment, and “that they learned alone, from their mistakes and by analysing their students’ reactions inside the classroom” (Flores, 2002: 318).

The findings of the study highlight the interrelated factors which influenced new teacher change. These factors included: classroom management, school culture, and teacher socialisation.

In the field of ESL teaching, Richards and Pennington (1998) studied five teachers' experiences in their first year of teaching in Hong Kong. The five teachers were new graduates of a BA TESL programme, which emphasised communicative language teaching and which therefore contrasted with the mainstream approach in Hong Kong, which is described by the authors as exam-oriented, textbook driven and based on memorization. Data were collected through belief-system questionnaires (administered at the beginning and end of the year); first year questionnaires (administered at the beginning and end of the year) which focused on teachers' use of language, teaching approach, lesson planning, decision making behaviour, professional relationships and responsibilities, and perceptions and values; reflection sheets – given twice a month – which asked the teachers to reflect on their changing beliefs and practices in the same five areas as the first year questionnaire; classroom observation – conducted eleven times in nine months – which focused on teachers' classroom language and general teaching behaviours; and monthly meetings – one a month – in which the teachers met the researchers and discussed their teaching, experiences, and difficulties.

The findings show that although the teachers first believed in the effectiveness of communicative language teaching, they abandoned many of its principles during their first year of teaching. For example, two of the teachers adopted the grammar-based approach as they believed that these would prepare students for their exams. Another teacher was not able to implement the communicative activities she wanted to use because of discipline problems in her class. The teachers' main concern became maintaining authority in the class, completing

the syllabus and preparing the students for exams. The authors state that the teachers entered the teaching profession holding beliefs in line with their BA TESL programme; however, these beliefs changed by the end of the year. The authors propose the following reasons for such change:

- The nature of the course: the communicative language teaching approach was not emphasised strongly. As a result, it did not have enough impact on their beliefs and practices.
- Teachers' prior experiences: teachers' own schooling prioritised textbooks, and exam preparation. Their classrooms were teacher dominated.
- Constraints of their teaching context: these included teaching and non-teaching duties, crowded classrooms, lack of discipline and students' low English proficiency.
- Teachers' age: the teachers' age was close to their students. As they had recently gone through the same language learning experience themselves, they were aware of their language problems. As a result, they were sensitive to language problems and use of L1.
- Being inexperienced: They were trying to establish classroom routines and manage their classrooms effectively. The authors argue that their programme had not provided them with enough teaching practice to develop their confidence in such aspects of teaching.

The study shows that once trainees completed their BA programme they faced dilemmas in their first year of teaching, and as a result reverted to traditional

ways of teaching in order to deal with the problems. The training programme failed to equip these teachers with the skills they needed in teaching.

All the evidence points to the fact that the first year of teaching can be demanding for novice teachers. Dellar (1990) examined the difficulties faced by three novice native speakers of English teaching English to adult students at a private school in Morocco. The three novice teachers who took part in the study were in their early twenties and had recently completed their first degree and an initial training course in the UK. Two had completed a one-month course and the third had done a three-month course. Before starting their teaching, one had had two weeks' teaching experience and the other six weeks; the third teacher did not have any teaching experience. The researcher, who was also a teacher at the private school and was later appointed as the Director of Studies, decided to study these teachers' problems related to discipline and methodology. She initially hypothesised that the novice teachers' problems would be due to a discrepancy between the content of the initial training course and what was expected of the teachers in the school. However, drawing on the relevant non-EFL literature, experiences of previous teachers in the school, and guidelines issued by the school, the management anticipated the following as the problem areas: "problems of control, the ethos of the school and the role of the teacher; insufficient training for certain aspects of teaching or types of classes; inappropriate methodology or approach used in class, due to a lack of understanding of the theoretical underpinnings; and difficulties in planning lessons effectively (timing, challenge and variety)" (op. cit.: 63).

The research was conducted during the first two terms of the academic year. Data collection involved five semi-structured interviews, observations of lessons (at least three per teacher), the time-tables of the IT courses, and students' opinions about their teachers and teaching. Findings indicated the following problems were encountered by the teachers:

1. Problems of control: inability to diagnose the causes of control problems, being unable to find solutions to the problems, lack of lesson planning, and so on. One of the three teachers had serious discipline problems with late comers to her class. The researcher reported that this problem could be due to poor lesson planning and task design. Another teacher who also had discipline problems stated that the problem was her own fault: because she had not set her class rules clearly at the beginning of the course.
2. Insufficient training for certain aspects of teaching or types of classes: use of L1, teaching mixed ability classes, using course books, and teaching practice. The teachers believed that L1 should not be used either by students or themselves. Although the teachers used pair/group work, believing that students would use English, the students were using L1 in their group work. The researcher concluded that due to insufficient training the teachers were not able to foresee that group work would not work with all students.
3. Inappropriate methodology (lack of theoretical understanding): inappropriate use of pair/group work, and emphasizing oral communication as the goal of teaching. As oral communication is emphasized in EFL initial training courses, the teachers also said that

involving students in group work activities would increase students' use of L2. However, the groups were functioning in L1, which did not serve the aim of the activities. The teachers preferred to use a student-centred approach without considering the Islamic view of education, which places the teacher at the centre of classroom activity.

4. Lesson planning difficulties: Timing, setting linguistically and conceptually appropriate tasks. By the end of the term, the teachers were still found to be having problems in setting appropriate tasks for the students' level, using materials that were too linguistically or culturally difficult and speaking at an appropriate speed.

(based on Dellar, 1990)

The findings indicated that discipline was the most serious problem for these EFL teachers, as it is for many novice teachers (e.g Veenman, 1984; Flores, 2002; Toren and Iliyan, 2008). However, EFL teachers differ from their colleagues teaching other subjects. Therefore, it is no surprise that these teachers also faced different problems, such as students' use of L1 or setting appropriate tasks for the students' level. The conclusion from the study is that to minimise the problems faced by novice teachers, the main focus of initial training courses should be 'off task' student behaviour, language analysis (e.g. pronunciation teaching), theories of learning and teaching, and setting appropriate tasks and timing. The researcher concludes that UK based training did not equip these teachers with these sufficient pedagogic functions.

In general, studies in the field of ELT focus on the influence of teacher education programmes on novice teachers' beliefs or experiences in their first

year of teaching. The focus of such studies is understandable, as one aim is to improve such programmes. The studies that were reviewed above show that training was insufficient in helping the teachers concerned to achieve their goals in their first year of teaching. Moreover, contextual constraints, such as heavy workload and unsupportive colleagues, seem to have a powerful influence on what teachers want to achieve in their classes. Native speaker teachers especially need training in dealing with monolingual students and responding to unfamiliar teaching contexts. In order to reduce contextual problems, programmes may seek to prepare both native and NNT teachers to manage change in potentially hostile environments.

Akbulut (2007), in a recent study of thirteen Turkish novice EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, found that teachers' beliefs are not always reflected in their practices. All the participants graduated from the same university, and they were all non-native speakers of English. Before starting their actual classroom teaching, the teachers completed an unpaid assessed probationary year at the university. Data was collected through a questionnaire, which elicited participants' beliefs; semi-structured interviews on the use of L1, lesson-planning, materials evaluation, testing, decision-making, professional responsibilities, and classroom management. They were also asked whether they were able to apply the theoretical information they acquired during their programme, and to what extent they were able to implement their beliefs into teaching.

The findings showed that novice teachers were not able to apply their ideas in their teaching, for reasons of contextual constraints and discipline problems in their classes. Their teaching was almost always textbook-based because they did not feel confident to move beyond the textbook. The majority (9 out of 13) used Turkish during instruction because they felt students would not understand if they used English. At first, this study seemed to be important for me because of its title and context. However, the study failed to meet my expectations. One major weakness is that the author makes claims based on qualitative data (interviews) that were not substantiated by any data. Thus, the validity of his findings has to be questioned. Secondly, the author did not provide any information about where the novice teachers were teaching at the time of the study. The only information given is that they had “to complete an assessed probationary year, that is, they were not officially considered fully trained on graduation” (op. cit.:5). Thus, lack of information and data left me with unanswered questions.

The last study that is reviewed here is Abdullah-Sani’s (2000) longitudinal study. This study is particularly relevant to my own research interest. Abdullah-Sani (2000) explored eight novice Malaysian female teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning prior to and during teaching practice, and in the novice year of teaching. Questionnaire survey, independent interview, post-lesson interview, stimulated recall interview and field notes were used to collect data at three different periods. The study started in August 1997 with 123 student teachers studying in the fourth and final year of a B.Ed degree in TESL. The student teachers were given questionnaires regarding their beliefs

about teaching and learning prior to teaching practice. Specifically, the questionnaire asked students to assess the lessons they had observed (taught by experienced teachers) as successful or unsuccessful; to choose one instance of classroom practice they thought was successful and to give their reasons for their choice; and to choose one classroom practice that they thought had caused the lesson to fail and to give their reasons for their choice. The last part of the questionnaire, referred to as the teachers' credo, required the students to write down ten statements that reflected their personal beliefs about teaching and learning English as a second language.

The following views represent the areas of concern noted by the student teachers when they observed experienced teachers teaching:

- a) Teacher factors: included references to “teacher personality, teacher confidence, teacher’s attitude and standards toward language, teacher’s enthusiasm and response to discipline problems” (op. cit. 149).
- b) Student factors: described learners’ attitudes toward the lesson and how they behaved in the class.
- c) Lesson planning: included comments about setting aims, choosing interesting topics for the lesson, planning lessons appropriate to learners’ level, time management and lesson sequence.
- d) Execution of lesson: included “comments about teachers giving equal attention and opportunities to learners, catering for different levels of abilities and involving learners in the lesson” (ibid)
- e) Classroom management: included “comments about teachers giving clear instructions and lesson input, creating a learning environment and

rapport with learners, effectively managing activities and good control over learner behaviour” (ibid)

- f) Teaching strategies: included comments about the use of strategies such as group work, project work, role play and individual tasks.
- g) Teaching resources: included comments about the use of textbook and of audio-visual teaching aids.
- h) External factors: included comments about “duration and timing of class and class size” (op. cit. 150)

In the second stage of the study, during March-April 1998, eight student teachers volunteered to continue with the study. These teachers were placed in schools in and around Kuala Lumpur. The student teachers were observed twice in five weeks, and the first two interviews were conducted as post-lesson interviews and the last interview as stimulated recall. In this stage, the researcher sought to discover student teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning during their teaching practice and if emerging beliefs informed their teaching practices. During the interviews, the student teachers reflected on the technical aspects of their teaching such as lesson planning and their relationship with their learners during teaching. Analysis of the interview data revealed that the student teachers reflected on the following aspects in relation to their teaching and how these influenced their planning and implementation of their lessons:

- a) Group work: student teachers used group work because they believed that it increased less proficient students’ confidence, and

saw it as a successful preparatory activity for brainstorming on a given topic.

- b) Students' language needs: student teachers considered the weaker students' proficiency level and made the language level of the task easier and provided cues. Student teachers gave more guidance to the less proficient learners and more tasks for the more proficient learners. One of the student teachers preferred to give less guidance as she believed that she would be spoon-feeding if she guided students at every stage.
- c) Adaptation and simplification of texts: students' language ability and proficiency was taken into consideration. The student teachers adapted the activities "to suit the language focus of a lesson" or simplified the reading texts that were above the students' language level.
- d) From familiar context to less familiar context: the student teachers encouraged students to use previous knowledge, from their science classes, to complete tasks.
- e) Pace of lesson: the pace of their lessons did not move at a rate they had anticipated. They attributed this to their inability to determine students' proficiency level.

The five aspects described above were identified as reflection-on-action, where student teachers consciously reflected on their teaching and explained why they carried out their teaching in a certain manner. Reflection-on-action also enabled them to think about their future lessons.

Student teachers were also engaged in reflection-in-action, which occurred while they were teaching:

- a) Translating into Bahasa Melayu (the lingua franca): student teachers expected to carry out their lessons in English, but they realized that translating words or giving examples of certain grammatical structures from Bahasa Melayu eased students' understanding. Additionally, allowing students to discuss in their mother-tongue enabled students to come up with more ideas. The teachers were satisfied with discussions in the mother-tongue as the final product was delivered in English.
- b) Instructions, questions and answers: student teachers realized that giving unprepared instructions and/or questions resulted in confusion.
- c) Teaching strategies: when student teachers felt that students' needs were not met, they changed their teaching strategy.
- d) Disciplining strategies: student teachers used disciplining strategies that were contrary to their persona, e.g. ending the lesson abruptly.

Data gathered from post-lesson interviews and the credo were used to identify student teachers' beliefs about teacher image and how students learn.

- Beliefs about teacher image: Direct interaction with a particular teacher or a significant family member enabled student teachers to develop images about teacher role. Being enthusiastic, friendly, and flexible were mentioned as characteristics of a good teacher. Teachers who had good rapport and the ability to help them to

succeed in their school work were remembered with admiration. The student teachers had their own ideas about the sort of teachers they wanted to be.

- Beliefs about how students learn: The student teachers formed beliefs about how students learn in the context of their interaction with them in the classroom (op. cit.: 196). Putting students in groups or pairs was believed to be an effective way of learning from each other. Active participation, role play and learning from their errors were other means of learning the language.

Data from the first and second phase show that the student teachers' concerns which emerged during their observation of experienced teachers were taken into consideration when they started their teaching practice. For example, one concern was the timing of lessons which they were not able to accomplish as well as the experienced teachers. It could be stated that observing experienced teachers led these student-teachers to question their own ability to perform with the same level of competence.

The third stage of the study began after the student teachers graduated from the B.Ed programme. All the eight teachers continued teaching in the secondary schools where they had done their teaching practice and one further interview was carried out with each teacher in February 1999. The researcher used themes identified from stage 2 as a source of reference. In this way, she was able to track the development of belief change. Three categories emerged from the interview data and sub-categories were developed within each category.

The diagram below illustrates the categories and their sub-categories:

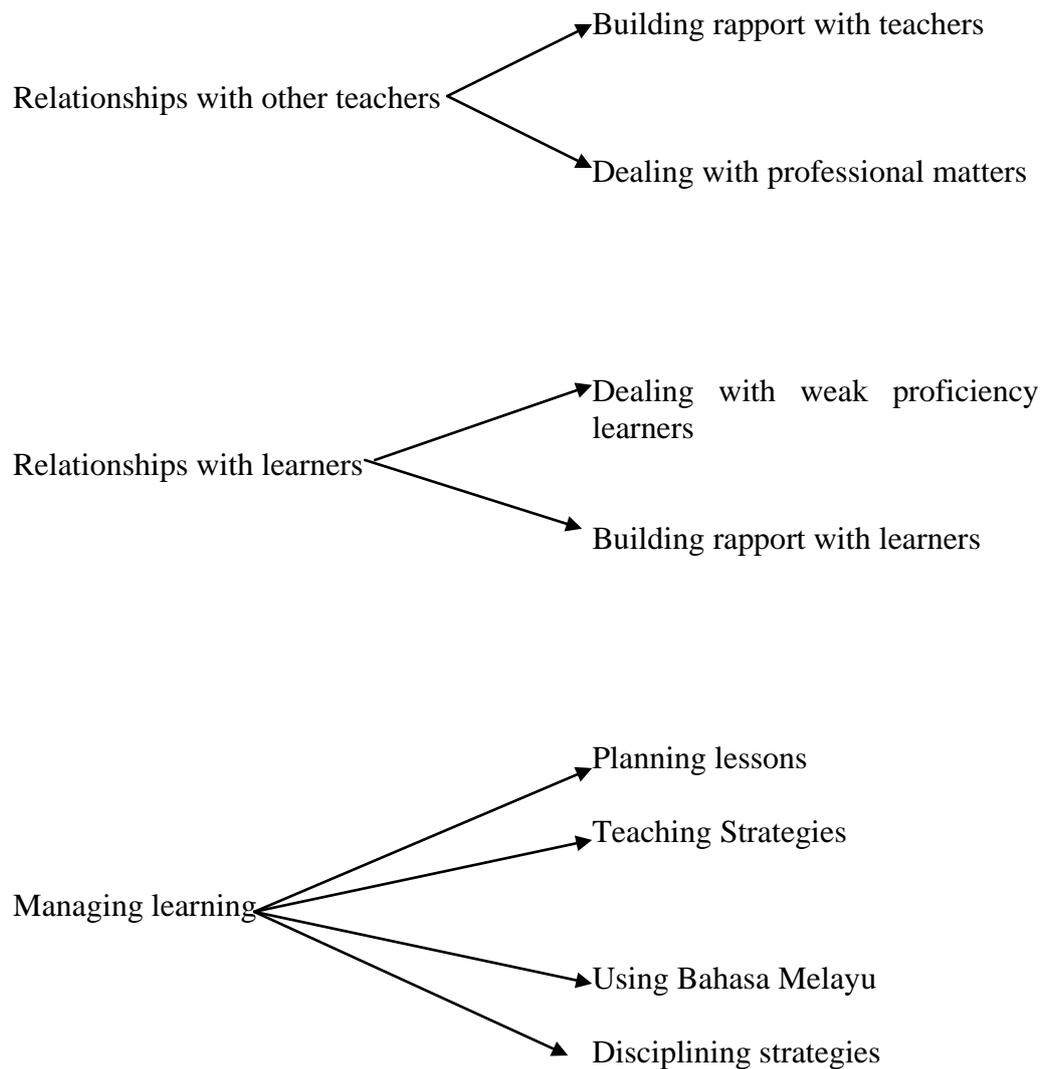


Figure 2. 1 New teachers' beliefs

(Abdullah-Sani, 2000)

The findings showed that during teaching practice, student teachers did not put much effort into building relationships with the other teachers in the schools, as their placement was temporary. However, in their novice year of teaching, they re-considered the importance of this. Six of the teachers made attempts to build relationships but the experienced teachers socialised only on school issues. Two teachers, on the other hand, were able to build relationships. The novice

teachers generally felt isolated in their work environment. Co-ordination between English teachers was non-existent and the novice teachers were overwhelmed with non-teaching duties. They hardly received any help from the other experienced teachers, which influenced their behaviours negatively. One of the teachers in the study was lucky enough to be in a school with two other novices. She even came up with the idea of groups of teachers producing teaching materials to be used by all teachers who were teaching the same level.

The findings of the study show that four of the teachers had to deal with weak language learners. One of the teachers reported that she could not force her students to do the work and she found students' reluctance frustrating. A similar weakness was reported by another teacher; however, she was lucky as her students were hard-working, and because of this the novice teacher was encouraged to try a variety of teaching strategies. One incentive for her students to work hard was found to be the national exam which the students were to sit at the end of the year. In relation to learner rapport, the findings showed that the novice teachers wanted to be an authoritative figure in their classes, which was contrary to their earlier beliefs. They reported that during their teaching practice, they preferred to have friendly relationships with their students as their placement was temporary. However, in their present situation they believed that being friendly to their students might affect their control of the classroom. The researcher explains the teachers' behaviour clearly: "the teachers studied the existing situation, understood it and acted upon it (op.cit.: 241).

The novice teachers did not plan lessons as they had done in their training. Although they thought about the objectives of their lessons, they did not prepare detailed lesson plans any more. They attributed this to lack of time and having too many classes to teach. The teachers modified their teaching according to their students' needs and level. They mentioned that apart from the prescribed textbooks, they also used other materials or games to complement their lessons. One teacher found group work effective for both proficient and weak students, and used it so that students collaborated with each other. The teachers reported that using their mother tongue was more effective than using English because students could not understand the lesson when the teacher used the L2. Although they used L2 more in their training, they believed that using L1 would benefit students more. In terms of disciplining strategies, two of the teachers reported on how they dealt with problem students. One of the teachers preferred to counsel students who were causing problems instead of sending them to the discipline teacher. The teacher's efforts were rewarded with the students' misbehaviour diminishing in the end. The other teacher, on the other hand, gave a problem student a responsibility, which was to report troublemakers to her at the end of the day. The student's behaviour changed and the teacher concluded that students should be given responsibilities to reduce misbehaviour.

Last but not least, the study shows the influential power of images formed during schooling. Teachers vividly remembered how positive and negative images of their own teachers had an influence on the formation of their beliefs. One teacher remembered how one of her teachers was enthusiastic about her

lessons, and another teacher wanted to be like the teacher who encouraged confidence. Negative images formed during schooling also had positive effects. For example, one teacher remembered how one of her teachers was uncaring and uninterested, and therefore she decided not to be like her.

Abdullah-Sani concludes that prior experiences as students and beliefs developed during their training guided these teachers in their first year of teaching. Richards and Pennington's (1998) study also reported on the impact of the apprenticeship of observation; however, the teachers in their study abandoned the principles and practices they had learnt from their training as result of contextual factors. Abdullah-Sani therefore recommends that beginning teachers should be supported by experienced colleagues or mentors who can help them develop in the school context. Indeed, to be able to do this experienced teachers should share the beliefs of novices or have an understanding of the experiences they have gone through.

The above discussion shows that the first year of teaching can be complex and demanding as teachers face challenges such as socialisation, adjustment to a new environment and reality shock.

2.6 Teachers' beliefs and classroom practices

The study of teachers' beliefs has generated great interest among researchers since the 1970s. In the 1960s, research on teaching focused on teachers' observable behaviours (process) which affected students' learning (product). From this perspective, learning was seen as a product of the behaviours

performed by teachers in class (Freeman, 2002; Borg, 2006). This approach to the study of teaching was called the process-product approach. Teachers' thought processes, i.e. their thinking, decision-making, and judgements, were not part of research during that time. Later, in the 1970s, there was a shift in the study of teaching from researching teachers' behaviours to researching teachers' thinking. Borg (2006) states that this shift arose firstly as a result of the developments in cognitive psychology which emphasized the importance of thinking on behaviour. Therefore, an understanding of teachers' "mental lives" (Walberg (no year), cited in Freeman, 2002) was required to understand teaching better. Secondly, there was a recognition and acknowledgement of teachers' active role in shaping educational processes. That is, teachers were no longer seen as mere transmitters of knowledge, but as active agents in the act of teaching. Lastly, it was recognized that reducing teaching to a set of discrete, observable behaviours that could be characterized as effective teaching left unanswered questions. Therefore, qualitative studies examining individual teachers' teaching and cognition gained importance. As a result, rather than investigating "how teachers' actions led – or did not lead – to student learning" (Freeman, 2002:2), researchers became interested in what teachers do and why teachers teach the way they teach.

Johnson (1994) states that an investigation of beliefs should include what teachers *intend* to do and *how* they behave, i.e. their decision-making, planning and implementation. Clark and Peterson (1986) provide an insightful model of teacher thoughts and actions.

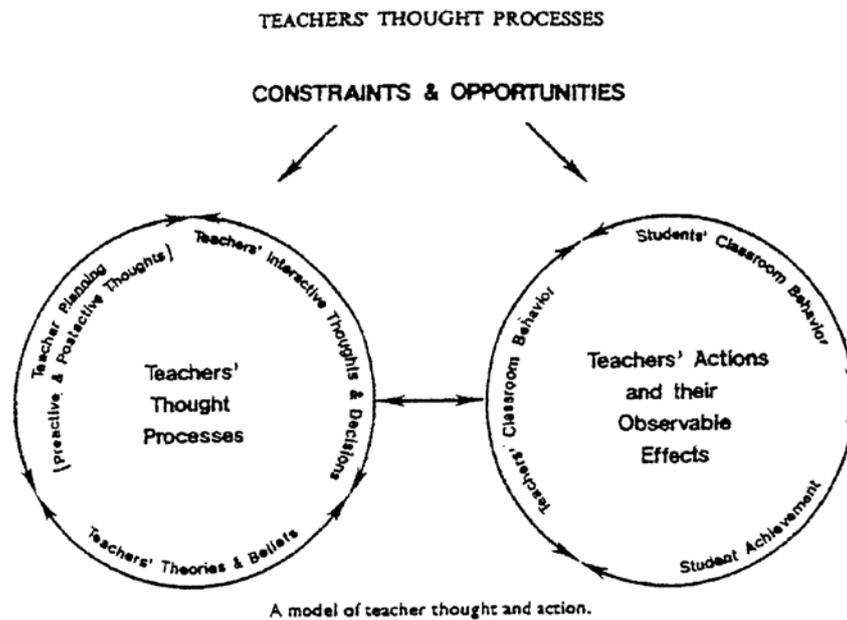


Figure 2. 2 A model of teacher thought and action

The model represents the constraints and opportunities that influence teachers' thoughts and actions within the context of teaching. Teachers' thoughts may be constrained by the school, the principal, the community or the curriculum. Their actions may also be constrained by the same factors and also by the physical setting or external influences. As for opportunities, if teachers are given the freedom to teach the way they wish and put their beliefs into action, then these are considered as opportunities. (Clark and Peterson, 1986:257)

The circles represent teacher thinking in two reciprocal domains: teachers' thought processes (which are unobservable) and teachers' actions and their observable effects. The arrows between the two circles show that there is an

interplay or interaction between teachers' thoughts and actions. The circle on the left represents teachers' thought processes which include teacher planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs.

Teachers' planning includes teachers' thinking before and after teaching. It also includes lesson planning, that is, designing activities, setting learning objectives, determining the content of instruction, the sequence of topics, time allocation, and organizing the physical setting of the classroom (Clark and Peterson, 1986). Teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions are described as teachers' thinking while interacting with students in the classroom, and how they change their plans or behaviours according to the interactive decisions they make. In other words, any interactive decision taken during instruction means a change, minor or major, in the lesson plan. This change implies an awareness of one's actions during instruction. The teacher then makes further adjustments to his/her practice based on the interactive decision taken earlier. The teacher is engaged in what Schön (1983) termed reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Reflection-in-action refers to making an adjustment during instruction when an unexpected event occurs, while reflection-on-action refers to thinking about one's teaching after it is complete. The final category in teachers' thought processes, according to Clark and Peterson's (1986) model, is teachers' theories and beliefs which represent "the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258).

The circle on the right represents teachers' actions which relate to teaching that takes place in the classroom. Two questions that arise here are: 'Do teachers' beliefs and thoughts influence teachers' actions?' and 'Do contextual factors (school administration, student behaviour, curriculum...etc) influence teachers' actions?'. Some argue that beliefs guide teachers' thoughts and actions (Pajares, 1992; Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Borg, 2002) and that contextual factors also influence teachers' actions (Tsui, 2003; Pennington and Richards, 1997). Fang (1996), in his review of research on teachers' beliefs and practices, states that both teachers' beliefs and contextual factors influence teachers' classroom actions. Indeed, this view is supported by studies of Farrell (2003), Flores, (2002), and Abdullah-Sani, (2000). As for language teachers, they need to consider students' language level, their educational and cultural background, and their different learning styles (Harmer, 2001).

As can be seen from the figure above, Clark and Peterson (1986) acknowledge the fact that teachers and students have reciprocal influence on each other, and this is indeed the strength of their model. They explain:

teacher behaviour affects student behaviour, which in turn affects teacher behaviour and ultimately student achievement. Alternatively, students' achievement may cause teachers to behave differently toward the student, which then affects student behaviour and subsequent student achievement (op. cit.:257)

According to Clark and Peterson (1986), teachers may change the flow of their lesson in the interest of more successful learning outcomes. Bailey (1996), in her study of six experienced ESL teachers, found that teachers decided to depart from their lesson plans under the following circumstances:

- Serve the common good: if a student had a problem related to a teaching point, the teachers preferred to explain it to the whole class.
- Teaching to the moment: if students wanted to know about a particular topic that was related to their learning, the teachers were ready to drop their planned lesson and continue with what students preferred to learn about.
- Further the lesson: the teachers chose to change their plan if there was another option that would lead to accomplishing the same goals.
- Accommodate to students' learning style: the teachers were willing to divert from their lesson plans to better meet students' understanding. If students did not understand a grammatical point, teachers were willing to use other strategies to accommodate to students' learning style.
- Promote students' involvement: The teachers were willing to cut some planned activities and allocate more time to others if they saw that students were involved in an activity.
- Distribute the wealth: Teachers wanted to give all students the chance to speak. If more talkative students dominated the class, the teachers encouraged the less outgoing students to take part in discussions.

However, studies show that although experienced and inexperienced teachers may share similar beliefs about teaching and learning, they may differ in their practices (Westerman, 1991; Akyel, 1997; Tsui, 2003; Osam and Balbay, 2004). Osam and Balbay (2004) investigated how four Turkish EFL co-

operating/experienced and seven EFL student-teachers differed in their decision-making skills when diverging from their lesson plans. They also examined their beliefs about language teaching. The student teachers were fourth-year students studying at the Middle East Technical University, Turkey and doing their three-month practicum in their final year. The co-operating teachers' teaching experience ranged from four to eight years, and they were teaching at the secondary school where the student teachers were doing their practicum. Data were collected from video-taped lessons, written retrospective forms, loosely structured interviews and a questionnaire. The researchers regarded 'lesson plan' as a "mental vision" of what the student teachers aimed to do for the lesson (p.750). During the interviews, the student teachers were asked why they diverged from their lesson plans (more discussion on the instruments will be included in section 3.3). The questionnaire was used to elicit participants' beliefs regarding: "the importance they give to accuracy; the importance they give to students' voice (i.e., to their needs, suggestions, and expectations); task organization they favour (teacher- centred teaching vs. student-centred teaching, the use of group activities in class); skills to emphasize (such as developing pronunciation and enriching vocabulary knowledge)" (p.751). Although the researchers did not report about the questionnaire results separately, they said that the information they obtained from all the instruments were parallel to each other. This implies that there was a connection between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Experienced and student teachers shared similar beliefs about motivating their students and developing students' language skill. Both groups of teachers

diverged from their plans according to students' reactions (e.g. students' expectations), when they realized that a language skill or item was not clear to students and when physical conditions in the classroom hindered the implementation of planned tasks. There were also differences between the groups of teachers. One major difference was related to how experienced teachers dealt with problem behaviours immediately, whereas student teachers chose to ignore such behaviour to maintain the flow of the lesson. One of the student teachers explained that she was not concerned with discipline because she was not the real teacher. Additionally, student teachers were more concerned with classroom management arrangement and timing than the experienced teachers.

Unlike experienced teachers, novice teachers lack schema or a repertoire of pedagogical routines (Tsui, 2003, 2005) to deal with unexpected events that occur during instruction. For example, in Tsui's (2003) comprehensive case studies of four ESL teachers with experience ranging from one to eight years, one teacher (Ching), who had five years of teaching and was therefore considered proficient but not an expert teacher, preferred to stick to her lesson plan even though she was aware that her students had done the same topic in primary school. Instead of changing her lesson plan, she chose to do the topic again. She justified her behaviour as not being prepared beforehand. Another teacher (Genie), who had only one year of teaching experience and was considered a novice, could not anticipate her students' questions or problems. Therefore, she prepared her lesson plans according to what she thought would interest her students. When her lessons did not go as she thought they would,

she was disappointed. Instead of modifying her lesson plan during instruction, she stuck to it, because she had no alternatives in her repertoire. Teachers may also fear that changing their lessons may result in losing the authority of the class or not completing their pre-planned lessons.

In her study with experienced and student teachers in a secondary school in Turkey, Akyel (1997) found that the five student teachers considered student initiations and deficient responses as obstacles, and therefore preferred to ignore or explain a concept briefly, so that the flow of the lesson would not be affected. Similarly, in an earlier study Westerman (1991) reports that the pre-service teachers in his study did not change their lesson plans even when the students were bored and performing off-task behaviour. The teachers explained that they had her lesson plan, which they had to finish by the end of the lesson. The findings of the studies indicate that teachers' beliefs about the importance of completing their lesson plans is more important than their students' expectations.

2.7 Change in teachers' beliefs

The literature on change in teachers' beliefs suggests that student teachers and novice teachers hold certain beliefs which are resistant to change. Rokeach (1968) claims that the earlier a belief is accepted into one's belief system, the more difficult it is to change. If this is the case, the general idea that teachers' beliefs are resistant to change would have credibility, because teachers go through a long 'apprenticeship of observation' before starting their teaching career (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996;

Richards and Pennington, 1998; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Peacock, 2001). The two questions that will be discussed in this section are: What is change and what prompts change?

Tillema (1998, 2000) distinguishes belief formation from belief change. Belief formation refers to what has been discussed in section 2.3; i.e. beliefs are formed during schooling and while observing teachers. Tillema also states that this process of belief formation is gradual and can be easily altered with the help of appropriate role models during practice teaching. This implies that beliefs are not always fully formed, and can therefore be challenged or changed. Thus, belief change results from a challenge to one's existing beliefs, when there is "deliberate confrontation" (Tillema, 1998:220) with new and different information. The teacher needs to revise his/her thoughts and experiences in order to make a judgement about accepting or rejecting the new information into his/her belief system. Change can be voluntary, or it can be imposed, as when the teacher is required to change as a result of political, cultural or institutional obligations (Richardson and Placier, 2001). This thesis is concerned with change that occurs naturally and voluntarily.

Teacher change is generally associated with "learning, socialisation, development, growth, improvement, implementation of something new or different, cognitive and affective change, and self-study" (Richardson and Placier, 2001: 905). Hence, change can occur at cognitive and behavioural level. Behavioural change refers to change in "what teachers do in the classroom, in their teaching style and behaviours" (Ferguson, 1993: 28) and

cognitive change refers to “change in teachers’ beliefs about, or understanding of, teaching and learning” (ibid.). Cognitive change does not necessarily lead to behavioural change (Richardson, 1996; Richards, Gallo, and Renandya, 2001; Borg, 2006). For example, Almarza (1996), in her ten-month longitudinal study of four foreign language student teachers participating in a pre-service teacher education programme (PGCE) in the UK, found that although there was change in student teachers’ practices, change in beliefs was limited. Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) use the term ‘belief development’ or ‘movement’ to refer to change in teachers’ beliefs. They construe belief development not solely as a cognitive process, but as growth in all aspects of student-teachers’ experiences, including emotional, social and professional dimensions. Cabaroğlu (1999) categorises change processes in beliefs as:

- Awareness/Realisation: the teacher realises or becomes aware of a construct, idea or process; and as a result, understands it better. Or the teacher realises that previously held beliefs are not appropriate in the context in which they work.
- Consolidation/Confirmation: the teacher understands that his/her previously held beliefs consolidate with newly presented information or personal experience.
- Elaboration/Polishing: existing beliefs are reconstructed and related to new input by making relatively small adjustments.
- Addition: addition of new beliefs or constructs. The teacher accepts that new information will be beneficial in teaching and learning.
- Re-ordering: beliefs are re-organised according to their importance as prioritisation or weakening.

- Re-labelling: a construct is re-named after having learnt, heard or read about the technical term.
- Linking up: the teacher makes a new connection between two constructs.
- Disagreement/Omission: the teacher rejects an existing belief and replaces it with a new one. Reversal: the teacher adopts a new belief that is opposite to the existing belief and denies the previously held belief.
- Pseudo Change: the teacher continues to hold the same belief because s/he believes that it is still important, but not applicable in the current context.
- No Change: Belief change does not occur at all.

(Adapted from Cabaroğlu, 1999)

Freeman (1989) highlights four characteristics of change at the level of the individual teacher. The kind of change Freeman mentions is behavioural change, but can also be applied to change in beliefs. The first category Freeman (1989) refers to is that change does not always “mean doing something differently; it can mean a change in awareness” (p.38). In other words, teachers may be unaware of what aspects of their teaching are effective; once made aware of it by a colleague or a supervisor, change in their awareness will be recognized and confirmed. Second, “change is not necessarily immediate or complete” (ibid.); some changes occur gradually and over time. Hence, one cannot always expect to see change instantly. Third, “some changes are directly accessible ... and quantifiable” (ibid.); for example, an observer can

count the number of correction techniques the teacher has adopted. However, it would be difficult to discern the extent to which these techniques have become part of the teacher's belief system. Fourth, "some types of change can come to closure and others are open-ended" (ibid.). A quantifiable change, such as the number of correction techniques, is limited and thus this kind of change can come to an end. However, encouraging the teacher to continue to seek and experiment with new correction techniques would be a qualitatively different kind of change.

The reasons why teachers change are various. However, voluntary change in beliefs or behaviour occurs when teachers are dissatisfied with their teaching; in other words when they realize that something is not working (Freeman, 1989; Murphy and Mason, 2006; Senior 2006).

Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) refer to change in teaching and provide a wider perspective on change:

- Change as training – change is something that is done to teachers; that is, teachers are “changed”.
- Change as adaptation – teachers “change” in response to something; they adapt their practices to changed conditions.
- Change as personal development – teachers “seek to change” in an attempt to improve their performance or develop additional skills or strategies.
- Change for local reform – teachers “change something” for reasons of personal growth.

- Change as systematic restructuring – teachers enact the “change policies” of the system.
- Change as growth or learning – “teachers change inevitably through professional activity”; teachers are themselves learners who work in a learning community.

(Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002:948)

Clarke and Hollingsworth’s (2002) perspective on change shows that change can come from within, or it can be imposed change, e.g. change in an education system requires the teachers to adapt to the new system.

Guskey (2002) states that change in beliefs and attitudes occurs after the teacher realizes that there is a positive learning outcome which result from changes in classroom practices—a new approach, the use of new materials or curricula, or modification in teaching procedure—which worked well. The model below illustrates the process of change a teacher is likely to go through:

Change in teacher’s classroom practices → Positive change in student learning outcomes → Change in teacher’s beliefs & attitudes

Figure 2. 3 Process of change

(Adapted from Guskey 2002)

Guskey (2002) describes change as “an experientially based learning process” (p. 384) in that the awareness that prompts the change results from a positive experience.

Murphy and Mason (2006) also add that teachers change their beliefs when they begin to doubt their existing beliefs and when they are introduced to “powerful alternative conceptions” (p. 728). If a teacher sees that students are not benefiting from a certain teaching technique, it is likely that s/he will abandon the particular technique and seek new ones. Similarly, if a teacher is introduced to a better alternative or even a popular teaching technique, s/he is likely to try it out in her classroom. If the technique proves effective, s/he is likely to use it afterwards. Therefore, it could be stated that voluntary change in beliefs is likely to occur when the teacher experiences and recognizes that there is a better alternative that can be more effective for students’ learning.

Sometimes teachers become stubborn and reluctant to change behaviour, because they feel that their belief works best. Senior (2006) gives an example of a teacher who always believed that a semi-circle or open ‘U’ shape seating arrangement allowed for the development of a positive group atmosphere in her classes. When she had to teach in a class where the tables could not be arranged into U shape, she realized that it was still possible to create a positive learning environment. After this experience, she reported that her belief about seating arrangements changed. Another reason why teachers reject to change behaviour may be that by and large it can involve negative emotional implications, such as “loss, anxiety and risk” (Ferguson, 1993: 30). Although there might be change in their beliefs, they may avoid change in their practices because trying out a new technique may be regarded as a risk-taking experience. Thus, teachers might choose not to change as the new technique might result in a loss of classroom control or dissatisfaction from students or

school administration. In this sense, teachers may choose to avoid change their practices.

In this thesis, change is used as a general term, referring to both negative and positive changes in beliefs (cognitive, affective, social and professional process) and behaviours/actions. When a teacher stated that she added or modified a belief, this was accepted as change in beliefs.

Studies have investigated the impact of various training courses and programmes on teachers' beliefs and thinking, and found that change in beliefs can be related to such training (see, for example, Almarza, 1996; Richards, Ho and Giblin, 1996; Sendan and Roberts, 1998; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Flores, 2002; da Silva, 2005; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2009). Other studies have examined the impact of the practicum or field experience on student teachers' beliefs and teaching (see, for example, Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2009; Mattheoudakis, 2007; da Silva, 2005; Tillema, 2000; Almarza, 1996; Johnson, 1996; Richards, Ho and Giblin, 1996). There are numerous factors that need to be considered while investigating the impact of training programmes on pre-service teachers or practising teachers. On the one side the course content, length of the course, length of the practicum experience and even the country where the course is delivered needs to be taken into consideration. On the other, the trainees or teachers' educational background, age, gender, and personality are important factors in determining how they will respond to the course.

Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) studied 20 student teachers' belief development through their 36-week long course. At the time of the study, the student teachers were attending the PGCE in Modern Languages at the University of Reading. The authors argue that teacher training can help teachers' belief development if they are given the opportunity to confront their pre-existing beliefs, and self-regulate their learning. Data from interviews, observations and stimulated recall were used to analyse the process of teachers' belief development. The findings revealed that out of 20 student teachers, only one teacher's belief remained unchanged at the end of the course and that more change in the structure of beliefs rather than in the content of beliefs was found. Based on their findings, Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) suggest that teacher training can influence belief development and that more belief development opportunities should be provided so that they can confront their pre-existing beliefs and regulate their own learning.

In a recent study, Mattheoudakis (2007) studied pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in Greece. The majority of students in Greece have been educated through a transmission-based approach, i.e. focusing on theory rather than practice. Additionally, language teaching focused on formal aspects and was exam-oriented. In 1995, teacher education programmes in Greece were redesigned in order to achieve a balance between theory and practice. The primary aim of the new programme was to help student teachers overcome their own grammar-based exam-oriented language learning experiences and adopt a more contemporary approach to teaching and learning.

The 66 students who took part in Mattheoudakis's study were full-time undergraduates in the School of English. The study sought to "identify student teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching when they enter the education programme", to investigate the possible changes in student teachers' beliefs during their three-year teacher education program, and to examine the effect of teaching practice, which student teachers attended in their final year, on student teachers' beliefs. The duration of the practicum was seven weeks. The student teachers were required to teach two to three hours per week, and do one or two classroom observations. Student teachers prepared their own lesson plans and were "encouraged by their instructors to explore and adopt recent approaches to language teaching" (p.1275). Based on the researcher's descriptions, it is not clear whether the student teachers had mentors.

Participating in the education course in ELT practice (practicum) was optional; therefore, there were two distinct groups involved in the study. The first group, hereafter referred to as Group A, which consisted of 36 students, was followed from the first year till the end of their studies. These students chose not to do the teaching practicum. The second group, hereafter Group B, consisted of 30 student teachers who completed the practicum. They participated in the research in the final year of their studies after they had completed their teaching practice. The beliefs of the two groups were compared. The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985) and a short questionnaire eliciting information on student teachers' background were used for data collection.

The researcher found that the majority of the student teachers' beliefs changed significantly between the first and the last year. The findings indicate that students who experienced the practicum (Group B) became more traditional in their beliefs and practices than Group A. For example, in the first year, Group A (67%) believed in the importance of knowing grammar, this percentage fell to 46% in the final year. This indicates a change in Group A's beliefs about the importance of grammar.

The researcher found that the two groups' beliefs did not develop in the same way. For example, the practice group strongly believed that the role of the teacher was to control the students, whereas the non-practice group strongly disagreed with the idea. Based on the findings, the researcher argues that teaching practice did not have the expected impact on the development of student teachers' beliefs. However, she found that the courses seemed to have been influential in changing beliefs and attitudes. She also states that some students can still hold the same beliefs in spite of "conscious and organised attempts by academic institutions to change them" (op. cit.:1281). One weakness of this study is that the researcher aimed "to examine the impact of teaching practice on student teachers' beliefs at the final year of their studies" (p.1283); however, there is no data that shows that she probed student teachers' beliefs regarding the impact. Thus, her conclusions seem to be based solely on her inferences, and not on data. The second weakness of the study is that Group B's beliefs were not elicited at the beginning of their programme. This would have revealed any change in beliefs over time.

Overall, the researcher concluded that both groups of students entered the teaching education programme with strong beliefs about teaching and learning, and these were weakened as a result of attending relevant courses such as Theories of Language Acquisition, and The Classroom: Principles and Practice. She contends that teacher education programmes do have an effect on changing some of the earlier beliefs, yet the process may be gradual. The beliefs that underwent change were related to the importance of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation and correcting beginners' error. As mentioned above, the reason why change occurred was linked to students' exposure to courses which used recent research findings and theories about teaching and learning. The researcher added that these courses "place special emphasis on addressing student teachers' traditional beliefs and helping them to overcome their grammar-based language learning experiences" (op.cit.:1281). The findings also revealed that beliefs about language learning aptitude, the difficulty of language learning and the role of the teacher seem to have remained relatively unchanged throughout the programme.

The two studies discussed above show that student teachers' experienced change in their beliefs throughout their programmes. The length of the programmes seems to play an important role in this process. Obviously, other factors including the syllabus, the practicum period, and the practicum context/location are important. Context would be important because for example, native teachers who would do their practicum in their own country and later go abroad to teach are likely to face challenges in a new environment.

There is also evidence that supports this view (see for example, Dellar, 1990, Borg, 2002).

Richards, Ho and Giblin's (1996) study, which looked at a shorter programme than the studies discussed above, also found change in trainees' beliefs. They studied the responses of five trainee teachers' evaluations of their teaching in a ten-week pre-service/initial training course (UCLES/RSA certificate course) in Hong Kong. The authors' focus was on the areas of teaching trainees found problematic, and how their ideas and beliefs changed over the duration of the course. The trainees evaluated their teaching in audio-recorded discussions and written self-reports. The findings reveal that the trainees experienced change in the following aspects of teaching:

- They started viewing their roles differently: as they became more comfortable with their role as a teacher, their focus shifted from their teaching to students' learning.
- They gained the ability to handle professional discourse: they were able to use technical terminology to talk about teaching and learning, and they developed their knowledge of English grammar and linguistics.
- They were able to consider important factors in achieving continuity in a lesson: for example, they considered students' motivation, timing, and the procedures that needed to be followed in order to achieve a smooth lesson.
- They reflected on the dimensions of teaching they found problematic: timing, explanations, handling of materials, clarifying

intentions were some of the problematic areas that were mentioned, and the trainees felt that they were making progress in these areas.

- Their perspectives on successful lessons: teachers' views regarding the success of a lesson varied. Teacher-centred focus, curriculum-centred focus, and learner-centred focus were the perspectives mentioned.

The authors conclude that by the end of the programme the trainees were able to use the principles they had learnt from the programme in varying degrees, and they had begun to question their own teaching. The findings also indicate that as the trainees gained experience in teaching, they were better able to conceptualize what teaching required, and what they believed good teaching meant.

Studies have also provided evidence that teacher training/education courses are weak interventions and do not necessarily lead to change (Weinstein, 1990; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Nettle, 1998; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Peacock, 2001; Borg, 2002; Urmston, 2003; Hobbs, 2007). For example, Peacock (2001), in his three-year long study of 146 trainee ESL teachers studying on a BA TESL programme in Hong Kong, investigated whether trainees' beliefs changed over the three years of their study of TESOL methodology, and also if their beliefs differed from ESL experienced teachers' beliefs. All the trainees in their first year were asked to complete the BALLI (Horwitz, 1985), which was slightly modified for use in Hong Kong. The trainees were asked to fill out the BALLI again after two years. Data on

experienced ESL teachers' beliefs collected from Peacock's (1999) previous study were compared with data collected from the trainees at the end of their programme. The study found little evidence of change in trainees' beliefs. By the end of the programme, trainees still believed that learning a foreign language meant learning a lot of new vocabulary and grammar rules. The same finding was reported in Mattheoudakis's (2000) study. The level of mismatch between student teachers and experienced ESL teachers was large. For example, 60% of experienced ESL teachers disagreed with the item "Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary", whereas 25% of the students disagreed with the item by the end of their programme.

Peacock recommends that trainees should be made aware of their beliefs at the beginning of the programme, and if they are likely to affect their future teaching, attempts should be made by instructors to modify them.

Comparison of the findings of Peacock's (2001) and Mattheoudakis's (2007) reveals interesting differences. Both studies used BALLI, were conducted in countries where English was not the first language, and were longitudinal. The researchers in both studies did not say whether student teachers had mentors. While Peacock argues that training does not have an impact on student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, Mattheoudakis argues the opposite. The differences could be due to the syllabus or the lecturers. Another reason might be that, as noted earlier, the education system in Hong Kong was exam-oriented, textbook driven and based on memorization; this point is not

mentioned by Peacock. These student teachers' beliefs might have not changed because their apprenticeship of observation retained its power. The education system in Greece was similar to that of Hong Kong. However, student teachers in Greece seemed to have been open to change. Yet both studies are informative for insights about the impact of teacher education programmes in two different contexts and the student teachers or trainees' general beliefs about teaching and learning.

Studies on short-term intensive training programmes such as CELTA show that, not surprisingly, limited or no change occurred in trainees' beliefs (Borg, 2002; Hobbs, 2007). What distinguishes CELTA from other teacher training courses or programmes is that people following CELTA courses differ in their educational background, age, prior experiences and career goals. In this respect, it differs from many other ELT training courses and programmes.

Borg (2002), in her doctoral study of six trainees on a four-week full-time CELTA course in the UK, found that there was limited change in the trainees' beliefs about teachers and teaching, language learning and learning to teach. The six trainees who were the focus of the study did not have any teaching experience, and had different work experience, e.g. legal secretary, tour guide, midwife, bar manager and fashion designer. Their age range was from late twenties to early forties. Data were collected through interviews (at the beginning and end of the programme), observations, questionnaires and the researcher's journal and field-notes. Additionally, data independent of the research process was gathered. These included: lesson plans, assignments, self-

feedback sheets, feedback forms from tutors, progress records written by trainees and tutors, materials given to trainees during input sessions, and documents related to the school and the CELTA course. As the trainees were followed from the beginning to the end of the course, using a wide variety of data collection methods, tracking the possible changes trainees went through seemed feasible.

The findings showed that throughout the course all the trainees held onto their initial anti-didactic beliefs, which stemmed from a reaction against their school years as students. They believed that students should be “treated as equals and with patience and respect” (p.418); that the teacher should not dominate the class, and that students should take active roles in learning. However, two of the trainees who received different grades on the CELTA course, ‘Penny’ and ‘Angela’, perhaps merit special attention.

‘Penny’ did not plan to enter the EFL teaching profession. She took the CELTA course as a break before Christmas and to learn something new. Although she had no teaching experience, her schooling experience seemed to influence how she viewed teaching, teachers and learning. ‘Penny’ mentioned that one of her teachers’ negative feedback left an impact on her, and that another teacher approached the students positively even if they did something wrong. The experiences she had had as a student led her to form images of herself as a future teacher. She believed that the teacher should have a positive attitude towards teaching, and should be humorous, patient, understanding and respectful. She stated that the teacher should know the subject matter well, and

should be interested in teaching it. In terms of language learning, 'Penny' believed that grammar should not be taught in a "clinical way" (p.179). She said that learning a foreign language is not only about learning a language, but also learning its culture. While Penny showed no significant change in her beliefs, she did show changes in the appreciation of "backstage behaviours of teaching – the thinking, planning, preparing, reflecting and selecting goals" (p.87). She also realized the importance of adapting materials and teaching according to her learners' needs. Borg concludes that 'Penny' came to the programme with anti-didactic beliefs about teaching which derived from her long hours of apprenticeship of observation from school. She favoured active learner participation, which was encouraged in the CELTA programme. Therefore, it is no surprise that Penny's beliefs about teaching and learning changed little. Nevertheless, the programme enabled her to confirm her pre-existing beliefs.

'Angela' had also had no teaching experience. She wanted to travel and live abroad. She took the course to be able to teach abroad so that she could finance her travelling. Like 'Penny', she also referred to her experience as a student, and how her favourite teachers left an impact on her. She believed that a teacher should be straightforward and clear. In addition, she believed that a teacher should be positive, enthusiastic and passionate about what s/he teaches. For her, using visual aids or pictures were effective means of teaching. In relation to language learning, she believed that students should be encouraged to participate actively in the classroom, and rejected a teacher-centred teaching style. By the end of the course, Angela's beliefs remained the same. She

reported that there was an increase in her awareness related to being a good teacher; for instance, that a teacher's voice should be clear and audible.

Hobbs (2007) conducted a similar study of twelve CELTA trainees in the UK. All the trainees were British citizens; six had experience in teaching various subjects such as business, maths, and ESL, and their age range was 26 to 59. The other six had no teaching experience and were aged between 23 and 39. The majority of non-experienced trainees were in their mid-twenties, and were looking for a short-term career in ESL abroad. All the trainees, except for one, enrolled on the course not because they planned to take up English language teaching as a long-term career, but they were either close to retirement, moving abroad or they wanted formal training in order to obtain a better-paid post.

The aim of the study was to examine the experiences of the trainees in the CELTA course, particularly during the Practicum, and to investigate the influence of the course on the trainees' beliefs about teaching and learning. As in Borg's (2002) study, various instruments were used to collect data: researcher's field notes; unstructured and group-recorded interviews with the trainees and experienced teachers; semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews with course tutors; demographic and follow-up questionnaires; course documents; a personal journal; trainees' teaching practice journal entries; e-mails from trainees and course tutors; semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews with experienced teachers; and written autobiographies of experienced teachers collected via e-mail. One difference in Hobbs's study was that she used the questionnaire to obtain background and educational and work

experience information, whereas Borg used it to obtain background data as well as information about trainees' beliefs about teaching and learning. Another important difference was that Hobbs enrolled as a course participant, which allowed her to gain access to trainees and trainers' everyday experiences during the course. It should be noted that only the findings related to trainees' beliefs about teaching and learning will be discussed here; the reader should consult Hobbs' unpublished PhD thesis for further details.

The findings of the study revealed that the beliefs and teaching behaviour of only one trainee, 'Donald', had changed by the end of the four-week CELTA course. 'Donald' was a university lecturer in Business before he enrolled on the course. At the beginning of the course, Donald, who held differing beliefs from the other trainees, believed that students would learn well from memorization, and teacher-centred teaching. The other trainees shared similar beliefs about learning and teaching; for example, "interaction is of prime importance", "learning language involves communication, interaction", "student involvement is important", "a good teacher engages and offers opportunity for lively discussion", "teaching involves being confident and friendly", "teacher must be inspiring, motivating, interesting" (Hobbs, 2007: 191-192), views which were consistent with the course's philosophy of teaching. Later in the course, 'Donald' began to favour a student-centred environment, which provided interactions among students and where there is less teacher control. He stated that the teacher should give up his control of the classroom so that students gain autonomy. Change in his belief about teaching and learning was consistent with the course content, which promoted the use of the Presentation-

Practice-Production (PPP) approach to lesson planning. He later described one of his best lessons as one based on the task-based approach. His new beliefs were also reflected in his teaching behaviour. Hobbs argues that change in Donald's perspective about PPP was "authentic in that it permeated other related beliefs about teaching and learning" (op.cit.:197).

Hobbs concludes that the course enabled the trainees to gain confidence and awareness of their weaknesses with the help of the trainees' practice journal, which had to be kept as part of the course assessment. The trainees were given prompts to reflect on the weaknesses and strengths of their lessons. In this way, keeping practice journals seemed to have been beneficial for the trainees' development. In relation to beliefs about teaching and learning, the course did not promote any change in trainees' beliefs, other than those in 'Donald'. She notes that one reason for this may have been that the trainees held views consistent with the course's philosophy of teaching, e.g. student-centred teaching. 'Donald' was the only trainee who believed in rote learning at the beginning of the course, and his beliefs changed by the end of the course. Another reason Hobbs attributed to no change in beliefs was the limited duration of the course. She recommends that the course should be restructured and lengthened, as according to her findings not much change can be promoted in a four-week course. Ferguson and Donno's (2003) conclusions are confirmed by Hobbs's (2007) study that the length of such courses need to be made longer, and underscore the need to consider including the following in the course: more focus on the awareness of different teaching contexts and work situation, and more work on explicit language awareness.

To summarise what has been discussed so far, change involves a change in teachers' prior beliefs or the addition of new beliefs to the teacher's belief system. It could be stated that the degree and scope of change varies from individual to individual, and the kind of training (e.g. short intensive training, long-term training) teachers receive. However, it would be wrong to assume that teacher education programmes will always have an impact on student teachers' beliefs. I believe that student-teachers and teachers will tend to change their beliefs only if they become aware of their ineffective beliefs. Change can be observed from teachers' behaviours and attitudes. However, a teacher may state that s/he has changed or added a particular belief to her/his belief system but is not able to implement or put it into practice for some reason. This kind of change or addition to the belief system will also be treated as change in the teacher's beliefs.

2.8 Eliciting beliefs: importance and access

As mentioned earlier, beliefs influence teachers' thoughts and actions. More specifically, the beliefs held by teachers about themselves as teachers, and about students, teaching, and learning will eventually influence the ways they view and approach their work. However, as also noted earlier, beliefs vary in their importance and strength. As a result, it could be stated that not all beliefs will influence teachers' behaviour or guide their actions.

Research (e.g. Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001; Borg, 2001; Richardson, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Nespor, 1987) supports the view that

understanding teachers' beliefs and the principles they operate from will help us to understand:

- how teachers view their work;
- how teachers' beliefs affect their behaviour in the classroom;
- what goes on in the classroom;
- how teachers use new information about teaching and learning in their teaching;
- how teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programmes can be improved.

As discussed in section 2.2, one of the difficulties in investigating teachers' beliefs concerns definitions. Another problem related to this particular research field is accessing teachers' beliefs and thought processes. Rokeach (1968) stated that beliefs could neither be measured nor observed. Donaghue (2003) explains why beliefs and thought processes cannot be directly accessed. Firstly, teachers' beliefs may be held subconsciously and so teachers may be unable to explain what they have on their minds or what goes on in their minds. Secondly, teachers – subconsciously or consciously – may want to project a particular image of themselves, especially if they are being evaluated or taking part in a research study or project.

Researchers have employed different methods to gain access to and uncover teachers' thoughts and beliefs. Qualitative approaches have been favoured, as these methodologies allow researchers to gain a more in-depth and hermeneutic explanation and understanding of teachers' thinking processes (Richardson and

Placier, 2001). Verbal report methods such as think-aloud technique, retrospective interview, stimulated recall interview, journal keeping (Fang, 1996), observations followed by interviews or written retrospective forms, and metaphor elicitation tasks have all been recognized as appropriate methods for eliciting teachers' beliefs and actions.

In a think-aloud technique, a teacher is asked to think aloud (Fang, 1996; Clark and Peterson, 1986) while performing or engaging in a particular task such as planning a lesson. The teachers' verbal accounts are recorded and later transcribed for analysis. This technique is introspective (Borg, 2006). Retrospective interview is held after teaching is complete. The teacher is asked to recall his/her thought processes related to the task. (Stimulated recall interview is discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.6.4).

In addition, belief-system questionnaires (Richards, Tung and Ng, 1992; Richards and Pennington, 1998), and repertory grid technique (Sendan and Roberts, 1998; Erdoğan, 2005) are often used in identifying teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning. Richards et al. (1992) used a belief-system questionnaire to explore ESL teachers' views on the ESL curriculum in Hong Kong, their attitudes towards English and Chinese, their beliefs about teaching and learning, their classroom practices and procedures, how they see their roles as English language teachers, and how they view their profession. Similarly, Richards and Pennington (1998) adopted Richards et al.'s (1992) belief-system questionnaire to investigate five first-year ESL teachers' beliefs about teaching English, role of English in Hong Kong, and

characteristics of teaching and learning. To some extent, this kind of questionnaire may be effective in exploring teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. However, the responses may not be very reliable. For example, if a teacher (who could be described as authoritarian) is asked whether s/he agrees or disagrees with the idea of a teacher being authoritarian, s/he is likely to say that s/he disagrees with the idea. The first reason for this answer would be that the term 'authoritarian' has negative connotations. A second reason could be that when teachers' roles are discussed in the literature and in pedagogy courses terms such as 'facilitator, guide, organizer, motivator...etc.' are generally used and teachers are likely to give a response similar to one of these descriptions.

Repertory grid technique was developed by George A. Kelly (1955) on the basis of his personal construct theory. Kelly sees man as a scientist who develops constructs (i.e. personal theories and beliefs) by interacting with or construing the world around him. According to Kelly, these personal constructs are bi-polar, such as lazy-hardworking, ugly-beautiful, and are hierarchically organised into a construct system. Although the grid was originally used in psychology, different versions have been developed. For example, Sendan and Roberts (1998), who studied a student-teacher's personal theories about effective teaching, and the current self and the ideal self as a teacher over a period of 15 months, used this technique to explore the nature of changes in the structure (i.e. the way he organised his constructs hierarchically) and content (i.e. the way he conceptualized pedagogic effectiveness). Sendan and Roberts (1998) report that using observations or questionnaires would

create more work for the researcher and that using repertory grid as a research method allowed them to elicit and observe the changes in the teacher's personal theories with less imposition. Moreover, if the grid is used at certain intervals during an academic year, it may raise self-awareness.

Recently, metaphor elicitation has been used as a powerful research method to examine teachers' beliefs about various issues related to teaching and learning, students, textbooks, teachers' and students' roles. Metaphors are seen as reflectors of beliefs and perceptions which influence teacher classroom behaviour (Thornbury, 1991; Bullough, 1992; Saban, 2004; McGrath, 2006a). Thus, metaphors are used as a means for enhancing reflection (Saban, 2004; Farrell, 2006b), and for tracking change in teachers' beliefs (Farrell, 2006b; Mann, 2008). Studies have used both quantitative and qualitative methods to elicit teachers' metaphors. Studies that used quantitative methods administered questionnaires where the participants had to choose the most appealing metaphor to describe their beliefs (see, for example, Saban, 2004; Saban, Kocbeker and Saban, 2007; Alger, 2009; Kasoutas and Malamitsa, 2009). Studies that used qualitative methods often used stem completion technique, where the respondents are required to complete a stem (see, for example, Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; Guerrero and Villamil, 2002; Farrell, 2006b; McGrath, 2006a; 2006b; Saban et. al., 2007; Mann, 2008; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, and Ölçü, 2009) or interviews (Munby, 1986).

Munby (1986) analysed data from interviews, stimulated recall interviews and repertory grid interviews of one language teacher's use of metaphors to describe her profession. The teacher referred to each lesson as "a moving

object” (p.205), using phrases like “keeping it somehow moving smoothly”, “it went all well”, “they don’t follow along, they are behind” (p.203). Munby (1986) concluded that there is a strong link between how teachers express their world of teaching and the language they use to describe it. McGrath (2006a) points out that metaphors are a “genuine reflection of individual ways of thinking” (p.307). In his study with Brazilian teachers, he used stem completion to look at teachers’ metaphors for course books, which was seen as “an economical means of accessing their attitudes and beliefs” (op. cit.). The teachers were asked to complete the following statement: ‘A course book is ...’. Some of the metaphors that were used to describe a course book were: “a bible, guide, path, main road, compass”, all of which were classified under the theme of ‘Guidance’. The metaphor ‘bible’ implies uncritical acceptance of the course book, its content and methodology. The remaining metaphors would be indicative of the course book as providing direction for the teacher.

In a recent study, Mann (2008) studied five M.A TEFL graduates’ first year teaching experience. At the beginning of their MA programme, student-teachers were asked to reflect on their personal metaphors. They were given the following prompts to complete: the teacher is..., the classroom is..., the learning process is..., and the learner is.... At the end of the programme, they were asked to revisit their original metaphors to modify or add detail. Upon completion of their degree in the UK, the five new graduates went back to their countries to teach English. Data collection included exchanging e-mails with the researcher. The teachers were asked to report on critical incidents and

perspectives related to their teaching. The researcher stated that he decided to focus on teachers' metaphorical representations after he had read their emails. The findings showed that two of the teachers redefined their roles. One of the teachers initially described his role as a 'train conductor', which was later altered to 'a policeman' or 'a custodial officer running a prison'. The teacher reported that the students were "not following rules...not showing respect...hindering other pupils...going to the toilet without permission" (op. cit.:17). The second teacher initially described her role as an actress "who tries to satisfy the audience as much as possible with her everyday performance" (p.21). She later described her role as a "magician", "cook" and "a mother". She explained that she was learning by experimenting with what worked and what did not work in her classes. The first two metaphors imply that the teacher has to create something new, and put in effort to keep the students interested. The other three teachers maintained or added new metaphors to describe their roles. For example, one of the teachers, who could not implement the CLT approach, saw herself as a 'market researcher' and later described her students and their parents as "difficult customers". This teacher strived to use communicative activities, however, her students perceived such activities as a waste of time and instead demanded translation of sentences from Japanese to English. Based on the findings, Mann (2008) states that the teachers used metaphoric language to articulate their concerns, roles and general feelings about their teaching experience.

Farrell (2006b) studied three pre-service English language teachers' use of metaphors during a six-week teaching practice experience in Singapore. The

study was particularly concerned with the extent to which metaphors were maintained and changed during the course. At the time of the study, the three student teachers were taking a postgraduate diploma in Education (PDGE), in which teaching practice was part of their course. The data for this study consisted of seven written journals and a focus group interview held at the end of the course. The first journal was to be completed before they started their teaching practice, to elicit their prior beliefs about teaching and learning. The following two questions were asked: “What is the teacher’s role in the classroom?”, and “How should learning take place?”. They were also asked to complete the statement “A teacher is.....”. The student teachers were not asked to use metaphoric language to answer the questions or the stem completion. However, the findings showed that without being prompted, the student teachers did use metaphoric language. Following the first journal entry, they were asked to continue keeping the journals throughout the course so that they could continue to reflect on their beliefs. The focus group interview, where the student teachers discussed the metaphors they used in their journals, was held at the end of the course.

The findings show how teachers’ beliefs, earlier experiences and even their religious beliefs can influence how they approach teaching. While two of the student teachers, ‘Angie’ and ‘Flow’ (pseudonyms), retained the initial metaphors they used for teaching and learning, one teacher, ‘Eddie’, interpreted his use of metaphor differently. Angie saw the classroom as a “battlefield” and the teacher as a “General”. Although she maintained this metaphor throughout the course, she also wrote in her journal that the teacher is

a motivator, mother, and facilitator. She explained that the General has to decide on the strategies to defeat the enemy; similarly, the teacher has to think of ways to complete the syllabus on time and create interesting materials for the students. Moreover, she explained that “the teacher has to fight to make the students receptive towards him/her” (ibid:250). Regarding her role as a motivator, she emphasized how her English teacher taught with enthusiasm, and how she wanted her students to like English. When asked if she saw a conflict between her metaphors of General and Mother, she explained that the teacher had to be “firm like a General to enforce certain strategies in the classroom while at the same time remain as a mother” (op.cit.:242). Flow also maintained her initial metaphor. She saw teaching as a mission and ‘a special vocation’, where she must touch student’s lives. Eddie was the only pre-service teacher who went through some change. He first used the metaphor ‘classroom as playground’, and interpreted the classroom as a place where creative and independent thinking would be stimulated. Once he started teaching, he interpreted it differently and also used another conflicting metaphor: ‘classroom as battlefield’. At the end of the course, he realized that he did not know what exactly he meant by describing the classroom as a place where creative and independent thinking is encouraged. During the course, he became aware that he learnt new techniques that would involve students in the lesson; as a result, his interpretation of playground gained a new description, which he described as involving students in activities such as role-play, games, and peer-conferencing. He also began to see the classroom as a battlefield, not in a negative way, but as a place where the teacher and the students together fight

for learning. The teacher also stated that his Christian beliefs may have influenced his metaphor selection. He explains:

Now I see the classroom as a battleground, whereby it is not me versus the students, such as hate the sinner, or me versus their weaknesses, such as hate the sin, but me and the students versus their weaknesses, such as hate the sin, love the sinner, and teach the sinner to love himself and hate his own sin

Farrell (2006b) argues that this change in Eddie occurred as a result of being challenged about the reality of his teaching experiences, and becoming aware that his initial metaphors did not reflect the reality of teaching.

Farrell (2006b) states that “changes in metaphors may signal changes in conceptions of teaching” (p.245). He suggests that when student teachers are encouraged to reflect on their beliefs about teaching and learning, as reflected in their use of metaphors, they can become critically reflective, and thereby become aware of the origins of their beliefs. However, he cautions that eliciting student teachers’ metaphors may not in itself always result in a change in how they view teaching and learning.

2.9 Summary of trends and gaps in research on teachers’ beliefs

The following points emerged from this review:

- Teachers’ beliefs are generally formed during their ‘apprenticeship of observation’ and are generally resistant to change. However, if teachers become aware of their beliefs or if their beliefs are challenged, they might re-evaluate and modify them.

- Long-term teacher education programmes are more likely to be influential on beliefs and practices than short-term training courses or programmes.
- Studies conducted with novice teachers indicate that teacher education programmes may not always equip novices with the knowledge and skill they need in their first year of teaching. Some of the studies also show that novices tend to rely on their prior beliefs when an unexpected event occurs in their classrooms. Some studies also show that once they leave their teacher education programme, they revert to their earlier beliefs.
- Although teachers' beliefs are influential on what they do in the classroom (e.g. planning and decision-making), their practices may not always reflect their beliefs.
- Change in beliefs does not necessarily lead to change in practices and vice versa.
- Novices are likely to encounter difficulties with student behaviour and school expectations. Due to these problems, they may not always be able to implement the kind of teaching methods they support, which leads to a conflict between beliefs and teaching behaviours.
- Interviews, observations and stimulated recall interviews are most widely used to examine teachers' beliefs and practices.

The review of the literature shows that researchers have adopted a number of terms for the concept 'beliefs'. This is not so surprising, as beliefs have been

investigated in different disciplines. However, one weakness in some of the studies relates to a lack of clarity in the use of the term 'belief'. For example, Mattheoudakis (2007) did not present a definition for the term. In her account of her study, it is therefore unclear whether beliefs included affective or cognitive elements, or both. For the purpose of this thesis, as defined in section 2.2, beliefs are based on a person's knowledge (not necessarily scientific knowledge) or what s/he perceives to be facts. More specifically, beliefs have cognitive (implicit knowledge, factual or experiential knowledge), affective and evaluative (individual's personal experiences, feelings, moods) elements that cumulatively represent what the individual holds to be true.

What the literature on teachers' beliefs shows is that teachers' beliefs are important in understanding how teachers view teaching and learning, students and their roles in classrooms. Since the 1970s, this area has gained popularity in mainstream education as there was a realization of teachers' role as active agents in the teaching and learning context. This was followed by an interest in teachers' decision-making; that is, how they organized classroom activities, managed the classroom and designed lesson plans. Teachers' beliefs became a focus of attention in the field of second/foreign language teaching in the mid-1980s and in contexts where English is not the main language (Borg, 2006).

Both in mainstream education and TEFL, the majority of studies on teachers' cognition have focused on the impact of teacher training programmes on the beliefs of pre-service teachers and novice teachers about teaching and learning. Specifically, the studies sought evidence of change or lack of change in

teachers' beliefs. The implications of these studies, by and large, focus on improving teacher education courses.

Trends in research into teachers' beliefs have shown that the 'apprenticeship of observation' and images formed during schooling are influential on how student teachers and teachers view teaching and learning, and this influence is likely to continue throughout their professional lives (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Golombek, 1998; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; and Borg, 2002). Studies investigating change in teachers' beliefs found that some beliefs may change, but they do not necessarily change in line with the teacher education programme's intentions (Tillema, 1998; Flores, 2002). As has also been shown by some studies, novices may abandon beliefs once they leave their education programmes. As Gatbonton (2008) states:

Investigation into teacher thinking is still a relatively young field. Scholars have focused, at the moment at least, on gathering insights useful for teacher education from each set of teachers. Indeed, information gathered from one set provides perspectives about the development of teachers not provided by the other. If we look at teacher development as a continuum, we can situate novice teachers in the early stages of this continuum; experienced teachers in the later stages (p.162).

Despite the valuable work that has been done, there are still gaps in the teacher cognition literature. I will conclude this chapter by highlighting these gaps. Table 2.2 below provides an overview of aims, context and methods used in the studies. The table is organised according to the length of the studies. The first section of the table shows studies which lasted four weeks. The studies in the second section lasted ten to fifteen weeks. The studies in the third section

lasted about a semester (36 weeks), and the final section represents longitudinal (9 months to 2 years) studies of novice language teachers.

Table 2. 2 Studies of Pre-service and Novice language teachers

Researcher	Focus	Context	Method(s)
M. Borg (2005)	6 trainees' beliefs, experiences and reflections	Four weeks, CELTA (UK)	Interviews, observations, questionnaires, research's journal
Hobbs (2007)	Impact of CELTA on 12 trainees' beliefs and behaviour.	Four weeks, CELTA (UK)	Field notes, interviews, demographic questionnaire, journals
Gatbonton (2008)	4 novice ESL teachers, 7 experienced teachers' thinking while teaching	Teaching at a four-week ESL course to adult students in Canada	Observation, stimulated recall interviews
Johnson (1994)	4 trainees' beliefs about L2 learning and teaching	15-week practicum, TESL programme (USA)	Journal, observations, interviews
Numrich (1996)	26 ESL student teachers' personal language learning history	Ten week practicum (MA in TESOL) (UK)	Diaries
Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996)	5 trainees' beliefs about teaching English, and changes in their beliefs	10 week long, CTEFLA, (Hong Kong)	Audio-recorded discussions, self-report forms (completed before and after teaching practice)
Peacock (2001)	146 ESL trainees, change in beliefs	BA TESL, (Hong Kong)	BALLI (Horwitz, 1985)
Osam and Balbay (2004)	4 experienced teachers, 7 EFL student teachers' decision-making	Ten week practicum (Teacher education programme at university level, BA degree, (Turkey)	Video-taped lessons, retrospective forms, loosely structured interviews after the video-taped lessons

Mattheoudakis (2007)	66 EFL student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning	Teacher Education programme at university level, BA degree, (Greece)	BALLI (1985)
Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000)	20 student teachers' belief development/change	36 week-long PGCE programme (UK)	Interviews, observations and stimulated recall interviews
Almarza (1996)	4 trainees' belief/knowledge development	36 week long, PGCE programme (UK)	Interviews, journals, observations, and stimulated recall interviews.
Akyel (1997)	5 experienced and 5 student EFL teachers ' instructional thoughts and actions	One-semester practicum course at a university in Turkey	Observations, stimulated recall interviews
Richards and Pennington (1998)	5 novice ESL teachers	BA TESL graduates, teaching in secondary schools in Hong Kong, duration: 9 month long	Belief-system questionnaire, reflection forms, observations, monthly meetings
Abdullah-Sani (2000)	8 novice ESL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning	BA ELT graduates, NNS teaching in secondary schools in Malaysia, duration:1.5 years	Credo, Observations, Interviews
Farrell (2003)	1 novice ELT teacher's socialization and development	PGDE graduate, NNS teaching in a Secondary School, Singapore, duration: 1 year	Interviews, observations, post-observation conferences, journals, researcher's field notes.

Farrell (2006)	1 novice ELT teacher's experiences; transition from a teacher education programme to real classroom	PGDE graduate, NNS teaching in a Secondary School in Singapore, duration: 1 year	Interviews, observations, post-classroom observation conferences, journals, researcher's field notes.
Akbulut (2007)	13 EFL novice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning	BA ELT graduates, NNS teaching at a university in Turkey, duration: not given	A questionnaire, interviews
Mann (2008)	How 5 EFL teachers' use of metaphors vary when they start teaching	MA TEFL graduates, teaching in Taiwan, Japan, Cyprus, Shanghai, duration: 1 year	Journals, emails
Urmston and Pennington (2008)	3 novice ESL teachers' beliefs and practices	BA TESL graduates, teaching in Hong Kong, duration: 2 years	Interviews, post-lesson observation interviews

The context, aim, duration and the instruments of previous studies were features I focused on for the literature review. Context and aim of studies were important firstly because these would inform me about how my study would fit in the literature. Secondly, teaching contexts vary. For example, non-native speaker EFL teachers' contexts would normally differ from those of native speaker EFL teachers, as the former group tends to teach in monolingual classes in which they share a common language with their students, a factor which – among other things - can affect interpersonal relations and classroom discipline. Native speakers can also be expected to have few, if any, concerns about their own language skills. As my study focused on novice non-native

EFL teachers, I searched the literature on first-year teachers' beliefs and practices. The majority of these studies (e.g. Richards and Pennington, 1998; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Urmston and Pennington, 2008) are of secondary school EFL teachers or non-EFL pre-service trainees and their focus was on the impact of the training programmes on novice teachers' beliefs and practices or the first year teachers' problems (e.g Carre, 1993, Rust, 1994; Roehrig, et. al., 2002; Fong and Jones, 2005; Toren and Iliyan, 2008). More narrowly, I also looked for studies of novice teachers' beliefs and practices that were conducted in English preparatory schools at English-medium universities. English preparatory schools differ from secondary schools as the aim of such schools is to equip students with the language they will need in their departments, i.e. general English and English for academic purposes (EAP). Although there is an extensive literature on EAP (and more broadly English for Specific Purposes) this deals in the main with course design, the teaching of specific skills, and testing rather than the training or experience of novice teachers. As a consequence, I could find very few studies conducted in this context. An exception is Phipps and Borg's (2009) recent longitudinal study of the beliefs about grammar teaching and practices of eleven EFL teachers working in the preparatory school of a private English-medium university in Turkey, but these were all experienced teachers.

Researchers (Woods, 1996; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Flores, 2002; Borg, 2006) draw attention to the need for more longitudinal studies which explore the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and the nature of belief change. Thus, I sought studies that were longitudinal and that utilized various

instruments to elicit teachers' beliefs. Although I could find longitudinal studies, I realized that some of these studies (see the last section of the table above) used a rather limited number of similar instruments (e.g. interviews, observations, stimulated-recall) to examine teachers' beliefs and practices. This raises the question of whether a fuller and perhaps more valid picture of teachers' beliefs might be gained through the use of additional instruments, such as diaries (e.g. Numrich, 1996; Farrell, 2006) or a metaphor elicitation task (e.g. Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; McGrath, 2006).

The next chapter details the research methodology employed for the study.

Chapter 3: Research Design

This chapter consists of five sections. The first section briefly presents my philosophical stance and describes in detail my choice of a qualitative study. The second section presents the research questions. The third section looks at previous studies in the field of EFL with particular reference to their data collection methods. The fourth section introduces the context and the participants. The fifth section discusses ethical issues and my role as a researcher related to data collection. The sixth section explains the rationale for the selected research methods. The chapter concludes with a description of methods of data analysis and a consideration of validity.

3.1 Philosophical position

Before conducting research, researchers need to decide about their philosophical standpoint i.e. positivist, interpretivist, (discussed below) as this will determine how they seek to discover and interpret knowledge of social behaviour. The two branches of philosophy which are relevant to this are: ontology, which studies the nature of existence (reality), and epistemology, which studies the nature of knowledge, i.e., ways of knowing. It is on the basis of one's ontological and epistemological position that the researcher chooses methods for collecting data.

The two epistemological positions, namely positivist and interpretivist, vary in the way they see knowledge construction. Proponents of a positivist paradigm adopt the principles of natural sciences to study the social sciences. They believe that making claims about the reliability, objectivity and usefulness of

knowledge is possible if the findings are based on empirical evidence (Benton and Craib, 2001: 23). Moreover, they view knowledge as objective, generalisable, and tangible. Therefore, they prefer to use quantitative research methods which enable them to interpret the findings by means of statistical analysis (Cohen et al, 2000: 8). Adopting a positivist view in education indicates that the researcher is interested in groups rather than individuals' behaviour or action(s).

In recent years, there has been a tendency in the field of education to use qualitative interpretive studies. In education, as in other social sciences, individuals' perceptions, understandings, beliefs and feelings cannot be disregarded as these have their unique values. As Pring (2000) states, "persons cannot be the object of scientific enquiry (though no doubt their biological functioning can be)" (p.32). In order to make individuals' beliefs, perceptions and feelings explicit, the researcher needs to enter the world of the individuals. The proponents of the interpretive approach claim that the prominent feature of this approach is that it takes "the actor's perspective as the empirical point of departure" (Bryman, 1984:78) whereas the positivist approach takes no interest in the meanings individuals attribute to their social life. A second feature, which is linked with the first, is that there is an emphasis on understanding the phenomenon in its natural setting. In other words, the interpretivist attempts to understand the individual(s)' social world and actions through an examination of the interpretation of that world by its participant(s). Therefore, there is a double interpretation involved in the process: the individual interprets his/her

world and the researcher interprets the individual's interpretation (Bryman, 2004: 15).

Individuals' beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, actions and feelings can be better understood if studied in natural settings, e.g. classroom. As my study focuses on teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, there was a need to enter the inner worlds of the teachers and their natural setting, i.e. school and classroom. The following section outlines the rationale for choosing a qualitative approach as the appropriate methodological paradigm.

3.1.1 Qualitative Research Paradigm

Although quantitative methods are said to yield more objective and generalizable information, qualitative methods have been chosen for this study. Adopting a qualitative research method was felt to be the most appropriate approach for the following two intertwined reasons:

1. Understanding the nature of classroom culture and teachers' unique beliefs and perceptions about teaching and learning require an in-depth study. Therefore, qualitative methods would provide rich information about the world in which the teachers live in.
2. My epistemological position led me to choose qualitative methods which would enable me to elucidate teachers' underlying beliefs about teaching and learning, and thereby understand to what extent teachers' beliefs align with their practices. Moreover, designing a longitudinal study would provide evidence of change in teacher's beliefs.

Bogdan and Biklen (1982) define qualitative research in terms of five features.

1. The natural setting, in other words the context, is seen as the “direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument” (op. cit.: 27). Qualitative researchers are concerned with individuals and their context, and particularly where, how and under what circumstances the individuals produce data. In other words, the context is believed to have a significant influence on the human behaviour (ibid:28) and the researcher is interested in looking into human behaviour in a specific setting. Similarly, the researcher plays an important role in the process as s/he is the “measurement device” in the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define the role of the researcher succinctly:

Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (p. 3).

The researcher’s role is described as a “*bricoleur*, (authors’ emphasis) as a maker of quilts, or, as in filmmaking, a person who assembles images into montages” (op cit.: 4). The two metaphors clearly define the role of the researcher as s/he gathers different kinds of data from different people and fits them together to make a whole piece. However, while interpreting and describing the data, the researcher should free him/herself from all the biases and present the findings as objectively as possible (subjectivity is discussed in more detail below).

2. Qualitative research is descriptive. Unlike the data in quantitative research, qualitative data is collected in “the form of words or pictures rather than numbers” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982: 28). The findings are

described in narrative form, generally containing quotations. As mentioned above, the researcher presents the findings to the readers like a tale. Like a quilt maker, s/he “stitches, edits, and puts slices of reality together” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005: 5).

3. Qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply with outcomes and products. While quantitative researchers are concerned with the outcome, qualitative researchers are concerned with how people display their actions and performances in their contexts.
4. Qualitative researchers analyse data inductively, rather than deductively. Quantitative researchers try to prove or disprove a hypothesis they hold before embarking on a study; qualitative researchers, on the other hand, gather information to develop a theory. Their data is generated from the bottom up rather than from the top down (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982: 29).
5. In qualitative research, “meaning” is important. Qualitative researchers are concerned with “*participant perspectives*” (authors’ emphasis) (p. 30) on the issues under investigation and how they can capture these perspectives accurately. Therefore, their sample population cannot be large. As the emphasis of this kind of research is on learning about and understanding the individual in his/her context – having a smaller population enables the researcher to get a deeper understanding of the individual’s context. Quantitative research may also seek meaning, e.g. social surveys concerning attitudes, however such surveys are based on categories designed by the researcher. Therefore, participants cannot

express their opinions openly and freely, unless open-ended questions are provided.

Qualitative methods can provide rich and in-depth information. However, there are three main problematic areas that qualitative researchers face: generalisation, replication and subjectivity. First of all, it would not be possible to generalise the findings of a qualitative study as the number of participants need to be limited. Quantitative research seeks to generalise its findings to other individuals and contexts, and this might indeed be one of its strengths. Bryman (2004) states that the findings of qualitative research are to “generalize to theory rather than to populations” (p. 285). As qualitative research does not aim at generalizing, it seeks comparability and transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In order to achieve comparability and transferability, it is important to describe the characteristics of the group that is being studied explicitly, that is providing rich data, so that readers can compare them with other similar or dissimilar contexts or groups (Cohen et al., 2000: 139; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In this way, the readers may infer how data would relate or transfer to their own or other similar contexts.

Secondly, unlike in experiments, it would be difficult to replicate a qualitative study as no standard procedures are followed. Bryman (2004) related this cause to the researcher being the main instrument of data collection. The researcher decides what to concentrate on depending on his/her observations and what s/he elicits from his/her participants. Moreover, the findings will reflect his/her subjective interpretations. However, researchers are advised to explain the

context, participants, and procedures so that if desired, the study can be replicated. Providing such detail would also increase transparency of the study. As mentioned above, proponents of quantitative research claim that their findings are objective as their instruments are based on numbers and statistical statements; in short, their results are interpreted and presented with the backing of statistical analysis. Qualitative researchers, on the other hand, are criticized for being too subjective. The researcher, especially in longitudinal studies, is likely to build relationships with the participants involved in the study. Therefore, there is a risk of losing objectivity while presenting the interpretations, which will have a negative effect on validity (discussed in Section 3.8). Table 3.1 below illustrates the common contrasts between qualitative and quantitative research.

Table 3. 1 Differences between quantitative and qualitative research

Quantitative	Qualitative
Numbers	Words
Point of view of researcher	Points of view of participants
Researcher distant	Researcher close
Theory testing	Theory emergent
Static	Process
Structured	Unstructured
Generalization	Contextual understanding
Hard, reliable data	Rich, deep data
Behaviour	Meaning
Artificial settings	Natural settings

Kagan (1992) found that in the 1960s and 1970s research on teacher change was mainly quantitative. The research studies during this period generally focused on teachers' behaviour and not on the mental processes that underlie teachers' behaviours. Freeman (2002) also notes that until the mid 1970s teachers in general "were not seen as having 'mental lives', to use Walberg's

phrase” (p.3). The teacher was seen as “a doer, an implementer of other people’s ideas – about curriculum, methodology and how students learned” (op cit. 5). However, in the 1980s the teacher was not seen as a doer but as “*knowing* what to do” (op. cit.: 6, emphasis added). Hence, teachers’ mental lives, their background, experiences, and social context gained prominence (ibid) and with this change there was a shift from quantitative methods to qualitative methods in *learning-to-teach* (Kagan, 1992, author’s emphasis) literature which involved only a handful of teachers.

The use of qualitative methods allows those teachers who were “traditionally silent” (Lee and Yarger, 1996: 19) to tell their stories in their own voices. As this study aimed to reveal a holistic picture of the teachers’ world through their stories and explanations, it was necessary to adopt qualitative research methods which would enable me to understand and interpret their beliefs and how these beliefs changed (or did not change) throughout the year – these methods are discussed in section 3.6, below. The following section presents the research aims.

3.2 Research Aims

This study investigated non-native novice teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning English, whether their beliefs aligned with their practices and if any change in their beliefs occurred in their first year of teaching. The following research questions informed the study:

1. What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English prior to their first teaching experience? Do the truly

inexperienced teachers' beliefs differ from those of the slightly more experienced teachers?

The first research question related specifically to teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning English; characteristics of good/bad teachers and teaching; characteristics of good/bad EFL teachers and teaching; and how students learn best. In addition, the intention was to explore teachers' learning experiences as students in order to determine the influence of others (teachers, parents, friends and so on) on their beliefs about English language teaching and on their decision to choose EFL as a profession. The second part of the question explored the beliefs of inexperienced and slightly more experienced teachers.

2. What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English at the end of the academic year?

This research question aimed to elicit teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning English at the end of the year. Thus, the questions that were asked in the first interview were used to elicit beliefs.

3. Is there a relationship between novice teachers' beliefs and their actions (teaching)?

This research question focused on the congruence of teachers' beliefs and practices in their classrooms.

4. Is there stability or change in novice teachers' beliefs in their first year of teaching? Where there is evidence of change, what is the nature of

this change? Do the beliefs of the truly inexperienced teachers and the slightly more experienced teachers change in the same way?

I was interested in finding out the extent to which teachers' beliefs had gone through some change, i.e. their beliefs about teaching and learning, beliefs about their roles and teaching approaches. The last part of the research question focused on the differences between the truly inexperienced and slightly more experienced teachers' beliefs.

5. What are the factors that appear to cause or inhibit change in the beliefs and practices of novice teachers?

I wished to find out the key factors which contributed and inhibited change in teachers' beliefs and practices.

3.3 Previous studies of particular relevance

This section discusses studies that provided methodological guidance for the present study. The findings of some of these studies have already been discussed in Chapter 2; here, therefore, the focus is on issues related to their methodology.

One study that I found particularly relevant to my study was that of Abdullah-Sani (2000). The study used questionnaire, credo, observations, interviews, stimulated recall interviews and diaries. The questionnaire included open-ended questions where student-teachers had to reflect on the lessons they observed, noting down strengths and weaknesses of the lessons. The credo, in which the student teachers had to complete the stem: 'I believe...', and which

was used at the beginning of the study, aimed to find out student teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. The way the credo was used was one methodological shortcoming of the study because it was used only at the beginning of the study. For the present study, I thought the use of credo would be effective, but I also thought that it was necessary to give it back to the teachers at the end of the year (see section 3.6.3 for more detail) so that by looking at the credo which they had filled at the beginning of the year, they would be able to recognize any change in their beliefs. I also felt that more issues could be explored and thus added more sections to it (See Appendix 2). In Abdullah-Sani's study, interviews were held at different times: one at the beginning of the study, two after the observations and two as stimulated recall interviews. Three additional interviews with eight novice teachers were conducted in their first year of teaching: the first when their degree programme ended, a second when they started teaching and the last when the term ended. The present study also utilised interviews in a similar way; that is, one interview was held at the beginning of the study and a second at the end of the year. A second methodological shortcoming was the way diaries were intended to be used. The participants in Abdullah-Sani's study were unable to make diary entries during their teaching practice; as a result, she abandoned its use. My conclusion was that she did not give enough guidance for the diary. Therefore, I tried to overcome the problem by providing my participants with prompts. Nevertheless, taken as a whole, the research design of Abdullah-Sani's study proved effective because it enabled the researcher to collect data systematically over the period of the study and triangulate findings.

As can be seen from table 2.2 in Chapter 2, several studies (e.g. Akyel, 1997; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Farrell 2003, 2006; Gatbonton, 2008; Urmston and Pennington, 2008) used semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews to examine teachers' beliefs and practices. Senior (2006) suggests that interviewing teachers is a "fruitful way of uncovering ... the complex pedagogic and social reality of language classrooms" (p. 16). Urmston and Pennington (2008) claimed that interviewing would not provide detailed information about teachers' practices as would observations. Indeed, this is to be expected in studies of teacher beliefs and practices as observations would provide direct evidence of teachers' practices. Some of the studies (e.g. Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Farrell, 2006; Gatbonton, 2008; Urmston and Pennington, 2008) used observations as the basis for stimulated recall interviews. Other methods include questionnaires, diaries and credos or stem completion tasks. These methods are used either as the primary data source or as complementary data source.

Farrell (2003, 2006) used various methods to detect one teacher's socialisation and development. Even though the focus of the present study was not on teachers' socialisation, the research design of Farrell's study gave insights related to the procedures to be followed for this study. Farrell conducted semi-structured interviews twice in one year: one at the end of the first semester and another at the end of the first year. Six observations followed by stimulated recall interviews (two at the beginning of the semester, two in the middle of the semester and two towards the end of the semester) were held to elicit the teacher's beliefs and observe his practices throughout the year. The teacher was

also asked to keep a teaching journal about his adjustments during his first year. The researcher did not provide any journal guidelines and the teacher was left to make journal entries as often as he wanted. While teachers in Abdullah-Sani's study were not able to make journal entries at all, the teacher in Farrell's study wrote regular journal entries.

Moreover, studies (see, for example, Munby, 1986; Tobin, 1990; Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; Guerrero and Villamin, 2002; Saban, 2004; McGrath, 2006) have found that metaphors, as being part of one's discourse, reflect teachers' beliefs. Thus, I felt that examining teachers' metaphors would facilitate teachers thinking and provide stronger data on beliefs. Some of the studies (e.g. Saban, 2004; Kavanoz, 2006; Saban, Kocbeker and Saban, 2007; Alger, 2009; Kasoutas and Malamitsa, 2009) administered questionnaires that prompted teachers to choose from a set of metaphors to describe their beliefs, while others (e.g. Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; McGrath, 2006; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil and Ölçü, 2009) used metaphor elicitation tasks which gave a great deal of guidance to the present study.

Based on these studies, I decided to use interviews, observations, post-lesson interviews/stimulated recall interviews, credo, diaries and a metaphor elicitation task as my data collection instruments (discussed in detail in section 3.6).

3.4 The context

The data was collected in 2005-2006 at the EMUSFL. At the beginning of every academic year, approximately 2500 students, from Turkey, Iran, Pakistan, and a number of African countries, are enrolled in SFL. Newly admitted undergraduate students' age range is 18 to 21. These students are expected to be of an advanced level of English proficiency. They can prove their proficiency level in two ways. They can either sit the EMUSFL English proficiency exam and score 60% or above, or provide a copy of their results from one of the following examinations: IELTS (Academic) grade 6, Paper based TOEFL score 537, Computer based TOEFL score 203, Internet based TOEFL score 75 and Cambridge Advanced English or GCSE grade C. Those who do not succeed in the English proficiency exam sit a placement exam to determine their English language level. There are five levels: Beginner, Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate and Upper-intermediate and each level lasts for eight weeks of full-time instruction. There are four modules in an academic year. Once students complete the eight-week module, they take the Level test. If they score 60%, they move to the next level. In order to take the Proficiency Exam, the students are required to complete the Intermediate or Upper-intermediate level. Attendance is compulsory and within each eight-week module, if the student is absent more than 20% of the lessons, s/he will be considered unsuccessful and will have to repeat the same level.

EMUSFL has its own syllabus which teachers are expected to follow. Teachers are provided with published course-books as well as in-house textbooks. However, they are also free to use other materials. Teachers are encouraged to

use student-centred teaching approach where there is active learner involvement.

EMUSFL recruits approximately 10 teachers for these English proficiency courses every academic year, the majority of whom are relatively or totally inexperienced. The final number of new recruits may be higher or lower depending on how many students register for that academic year. Most of the teachers are non-native speakers of English and are graduates of English Language Teaching departments or English Literature Humanities department graduates who have completed a university course in pedagogy. All the prospective teachers sit an exam and those who score above a certain grade are called for an interview with the EMUSFL panel. Once appointed, teachers may be asked to teach any level. Class sizes range from 18 to 30. Teachers who have administrative duties, as part of the testing team, materials development team or who are level coordinators or course tutors, teach ten hours a week. Those who do not have administrative duties teach 20 hours a week. Once the modules begin, teachers are expected to attend weekly meetings of the level that they teach. The meetings are run by the group/level coordinator. The aim of the weekly meetings is to share ideas about the teaching materials and to discuss any problems that might have occurred during the previous week.

EMU is highly committed to the development of teachers at EMUSFL and provides in-service programs for all teachers who teach there. These professional development courses aim at improving teachers' practice and thereby enhance students' learning. As mentioned in section 1.3, all the newly

employed teachers are first required to attend a 15-day intensive pre-sessional training course. The aim is two-fold: to introduce the teachers to the school and to give preliminary training on teaching. Once the academic year begins, all the newly recruited teachers are required to attend the Pre-ICELT (In-service Certificate in English Language Teaching) qualification course (explained below) in their first year of teaching. The teachers get tutorial support and feedback on their assignments and lesson plans from their personal course tutor(s).

Upon completion of these courses, if they wish they may continue attending other in-service programmes, which are free of charge, in the following years. The in-service training programmes that are in-house tailored, such as Pre-ICELT, ICELT, CCTD (Certificate in Computers and Teacher Development), and CEM (Certificate of Educational Management), are only offered to teachers who teach at EMUSFL and not to teachers who teach major subjects in the departments.

3.4.1 The Pre-ICELT course

Although the aim of this study was not to examine how teachers' beliefs or teaching changed as a result of the Pre-ICELT course, it is perhaps relevant to describe briefly the kind of training the teachers received during the period when data was being collected.

As noted above, the newly recruited teachers, experienced or inexperienced, are required to take the Pre-ICELT qualification course. This is an in-house tailored course run by qualified instructors working at EMUSFL. The aim of

the course is to acquaint newly employed teachers with basic classroom practice relevant to the School of Foreign Languages (SFL). It also serves as a pre-requisite teaching component of the Cambridge ICELT course which is offered to teachers in their second year of employment.

The course is 13 weeks long and starts approximately one month after the academic year begins. The course focuses on lesson planning, teachers' classroom skills (e.g. use of black-board, use of eyes/gestures, classroom management), teaching the four language skills, classroom management, and student motivation. There is no formal written assessment, but teachers are observed four times by their personal tutors, the focus of the observation being decided by the tutors. The teachers prepare a lesson plan which is discussed with their tutors before the observations. After the lesson, the teachers fill in a reflection form provided by their tutors. During the post-observation meeting, teachers get feedback from their tutors and are advised to work on their weak points. They are also advised to observe experienced teachers and other novice teachers like themselves.

3.4.2 The participants

This study used both purposive and convenience sampling. Purposive sampling involves selecting individuals who are able to provide an understanding of the issues that are under investigation or establish a link between research questions and sampling (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et. al. 2000; Patton, 1999). For this study, selecting teachers who had no teaching experience or some teaching experience was particularly important given my aim to examine novice

teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. Convenience sampling, on the other hand, has been defined in different ways. For example, Bryman (2004) defines it as selecting individuals who are accessible to the researcher; Cohen et. al. (2000) propose a similar definition; that it "involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample has been obtained" (p.102). Creswell (2003), on the other hand, states that in such sampling participants volunteer to take part in a study. For this study, willingness to participate was highly important because the participants were asked to spare extra time and effort for this study; for example, making diary entries.

The participants and the context were considered important factors in determining sampling for this study. The participants were chosen on the basis of representativeness; namely the teachers had to be novice EFL teachers and were required to conduct their lessons through the medium of English. It was also believed that this kind of sample would serve the aim of the study and provide useful data to understand the issue under investigation. Additionally, at the time of data collection I was teaching in the Faculty of Education at EMU. Therefore, it was relatively easy to conduct interviews, observations and collect teachers' diaries.

The purpose and the procedures were explained to 18 newly employed teachers. Four teachers had more than two years of teaching and were excluded as one criterion was that participant teachers should not have more than two years of teaching experience. Three more teachers did not wish to participate.

This left 11 female teachers who expressed willingness to be part of the study; however, two participants dropped out after two months. The teaching experience of the remaining nine teachers is outlined below:

- 5 were teaching for the first time,
- 3 had 1 year's teaching experience and
- 1 had 6 months' teaching experience as a part-time teacher

All the teachers were in their early 20s. They had graduated from the same university and had been English language learners at some time in their lives. Three of the participants' English language learning experiences began at the primary schools they attended in England and the other six participants started to learn English at the age of eleven when they went to secondary school in Northern Cyprus. Participants' teaching experience, as indicated above, ranged from one year or less to no teaching experience at all. Eight of the teachers were attending the Pre-ICELT course at the time of the study, and only one teacher, who had taken the Pre-ICELT in her first year at EMUSFL, was taking the ICELT course. The main characteristics of the teachers are outlined in Table 3.2. The first four rows were highlighted to show teachers who had slightly more experience than the last five teachers.

Table 3. 2 Novice teachers' profiles

Pseudonyms	High School	BA	Other Qualification(s)	Teaching Experience
NT1	Turk Maarif College Guzelyurt (Cyprus)	ELT	MA in Education	1 year at a private college
NT8	Turk Maarif College, Nicosia, was in England till 11	ELH	-	1 year at a private university
NT5	Turk Maarif College, Famagusta Primary school in England,	ELT	-	1 year- English and Maths teacher in England
NT7	Turk Maarif College	ELT	MA in Education (in progress) Pre-ICELT	1 year as research assistant, 6 months as learner advisor at SFL, 6 months as part-time teacher
NT3	Turk Maarif College, Nicosia	ELT	MA in Education (in progress)	-
NT9	Turk Maarif College, Nicosia	ELT	MA in Education	-
NT2	Turk Maarif College, Guzelyurt	ELT	-	-
NT4	Turk Maarif College, Nicosia	ELT	-	-
NT6	Turk Maarif Collge, Nicosia Primary School in England	ELT	-	-

3.5 Ethical issues

Before conducting any kind of research which involves human participants, researchers should consider ethical issues since being part of a research study

may include risks. Erickson (1986) recommends two basic ethical principles that need to be applied. He states that the participants need to be:

as informed as possible of the purposes and activities of research that will occur, and of any burdens (additional work load) or risks that may be entailed for them by being studied and protected as much as possible from risks...psychological and social risks (p. 141).

The University of Nottingham requires all research students to complete the School of Education ethical guidelines based on the British Educational Research Association's *Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research* (2004). The Research Co-ordinator in the School of Education approved the research ethics proposal, which included the following forms: a brief statement of research aims and methods of data collection, information sheet and consent form to be given to the participants and a brief statement of how I would get access to the research site. The following sections explain the processes I went through before data collection and my role as a researcher.

3.5.1 Getting access to EMUSFL

Getting access to EMUSFL was the first step of the research study. As I had worked there for three years this was not particularly problematic. I explained the aim and the procedures of the study to the Head of the school and verbal permission was given to me to carry out the research. The Head provided me with a list of newly employed teachers and their contact details and intimated that the school would welcome the study as it might help them become more aware of newly employed teachers' beliefs, expectations and needs and thus be a useful input to the development of in-service training programs. I negotiated an agreement with the Head that any data produced by the teachers e.g. diaries,

or post-lesson reflection forms and video-recordings of the teachers would not be shown to any school staff, unless the participants had given consent.

3.5.2 Getting teachers' consent

I first contacted all the newly employed teachers by phone. I met those who met the sampling criteria in person to explain the nature of the research and what was required of them during the study. After a verbal explanation, they were given the Participant Information Sheet (see Appendix 7) and briefed on the data collection methods, benefits of participating in the study, confidentiality and assurance of no risk. A written Consent Form (see Appendix 8) was also provided in which they were assured that only the researcher and/or the supervisor would have access to the data and that they would be given pseudonyms in order to preserve their anonymity. As newly recruited teachers, they were worried about who would have access to the video-recordings or any other data; I re-assured them that the school would not be shown anything and that the Head of the school had agreed not to ask for them. Moreover, I told them that participation was voluntary and they were free to withdraw from the study at any time they wished. They were also assured that their withdrawal would not be judged negatively. My meeting with each participant lasted between 45 minutes to one hour, and I believe that by providing detailed information about the study and myself, I gained their trust and built an initial rapport with them.

3.5.3 My role as a researcher

The main goal of this research was to discover the beliefs, perceptions and experiences of nine novice non-native EFL teachers. As a researcher, I believe that human beings construct meaning by reflecting on their experiences, and thus there is a need to understand the “interpretations which they (people) give of what they are doing” (Pring, 2000:96). To do this, the researcher participates in the social world of the researched/participants, as it is important to understand the context of the participants. Therefore, if I wanted to understand why teachers hold a certain belief and act in a certain way, I first had to see the ‘world’ through their eyes, and thereby understand what meanings they attached to their actions. In short, I was interested in teachers’ beliefs, feelings, perspectives and actions related to their first year of teaching. I also wanted to find out the meanings they attached to teaching and understand the process of change, if any, they experienced in their first year.

As a researcher, my role was participant-as-observer. According to Gold (1958, cited in Bryman, 2004, 302), the participant-as-observer carries the risk of ‘going native’, implying that the researcher loses the sense of being a researcher and becomes too involved in the world view of the participants to be objective (ibid). I established a good rapport with all the participants. I believe my role as a researcher/participant observer actually had a positive impact on the study, as I felt that some of the participants started feeling more relaxed in my presence and viewed me as a warm, sympathetic researcher. Nevertheless, questions such as “what is my aim in this study? what is my relationship with my participants?” kept coming back into my mind.

3.6 Research methods

The choice of methods in conducting a research study varies depending on how the researcher plans to tackle the research questions and the appropriateness of the methods to the aim of the research. In other words, the method chosen for the study should be appropriate as “different sorts of questions require different sort of research” (Pring, 2000:33).

As mentioned above, using qualitative methods were felt to be appropriate for this study as the aim was to find out the novice teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, and how and why any changes in these beliefs might have occurred. Additionally, the choice of instruments was based on teacher cognition research. The tools that were used for data collection (see Table 3.3, below) were semi-structured interviews held at the beginning and end of the year; a credo given at the beginning of the academic year and revisited at the end of the academic year; video recordings/observations of one lesson each module; post-lesson reflection forms after the observations; stimulated recall interviews one or two days after the video-recording; diaries which were asked to be kept throughout the year and metaphor elicitation task completed at the end of the year. The table below summarizes the focus of the methods and the time they were employed.

Table 3. 3 Stages and focus of data collection methods

Duration	Method	Focus
End of September-first week of October 2005	Semi-structured interview Metaphor construction (verbal)	Participant's educational background, experiences as a student, reasons for choosing EFL teaching, influential people, internship experience, strengths as teachers, characteristics of effective teachers, beliefs about teaching, expectations/worries for the year and how they view themselves as teachers. Metaphors of themselves, classrooms, students, teaching and learning
	Credo	Characteristics of good and bad teachers that stand out in their memory, good characteristics of an English language teacher, beliefs about teaching and learning English
October-November 2005 December 2005-January 2006 March-April 2006 May-June 2006	Observation (of each teacher every module) Post-lesson reflection form Stimulated recall interview Diary	Teacher Achieving the objectives of the lesson, strengths and weaknesses of teaching, unexpected incidents and difficulties during teaching, divergence from lesson plan, Reflection on anything related to teaching and learning
June 2006	Semi-structured interview	Strengths as teachers, beliefs about teaching, expectations/worries for the year becoming real, difficulties they faced, how they viewed themselves as teachers at the end of the academic year, any changes in themselves

	Metaphor/simile construction	Teaching and learning, teachers, classrooms and of themselves
	Credo	Revisiting the earlier credo and making changes, if desired.

As the table above shows, different methods were used to collect data continually over one academic year. Using more than one method or source of data in a study has been termed ‘triangulation’ (Cohen et al, 2000; Mason, 2002; Bryman 2004). Denzin (1978, cited in Merriam, 2009:215) proposes three types of triangulation:

- the use of multiple methods of data collection (also called methodological triangulation): using more than one method of data collection.
- multiple sources of data: comparing and cross-checking data collected through one method of data collection at different times.
- multiple investigators: having more than one investigator to collect and analyze data.

This study used methodological triangulation and triangulation by data source for the following reasons:

- Complementarity: the strength or richness of one method would complement the weakness of another. In other words, if one method fails to provide sufficient or no information, another method would compensate for it.

- **Comprehensiveness:** using various methods would yield a variety of data, which would enable me to have a more holistic view of the findings. Mason (2002) states that “social phenomena are a little more than one-dimensional” (p. 190), and triangulation can yield varied dimensions of those phenomena.
- **Validation** (discussed in more detail in section, 3.8): cross-checking data derived from various methods is one way of increasing the validity of data.

Therefore, triangulation was used not only as a strategy for validating results and procedures but also to increase scope, depth and consistency in methodological proceedings (Flick, 2002: 227). The next section describes each of the data collection instruments and procedures used in the study.

3.6.1 Interview

The interview, being the most common and powerful research method (Fontana and Frey, 2000: 645), enables participants to speak for themselves. However, this does not mean that the interviewees are left on their own to talk about anything. Bogdan and Biklen (1982) define interview as

...a purposeful conversation, usually between two people (but sometimes involving more) that is directed by one in order to get information...the interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subject’s own words so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world (p. 135).

In this definition, the emphasis is on the interaction between the two people, namely, the researcher and the respondent, where the researcher’s aim is to obtain knowledge of the respondent’s world through a kind of conversation,

rather than interrogative questioning. As it is not possible to observe feelings, thoughts and intentions, the direct interaction of the interview enables the researcher, as Tuckman (1972) stated, to get “access to what is inside a person’s head” (cited in Cohen et al, 2000: 268) and thereby get more depth of insight.

Interviewing is accepted as “a highly attractive alternative for the collection of qualitative data” (Bryman, 2004: 312), especially if one is concerned with the meaning of the ideas, intentions, values and beliefs of the interviewees (Pring, 2000: 39). Similarly, qualitative interviewing may be preferred due to one’s ontological and epistemological position. As stated earlier, my ontological position is that

people’s knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experienced and interactions are meaningful properties of the social reality which your [my] research questions seek to answer. (Mason, 2002: 63)

My epistemological position, on the other hand, is that generating data depends on my interaction and conversation with my participants; that is, asking them questions, listening to them, and getting into their inner worlds as much as possible. Therefore, interviewing was one method which I believed would enable me to get into the teachers’ head and uncover their beliefs and understandings related to teaching and learning throughout the year.

Interviews can be structured, as in quantitative research, or unstructured or semi-structured, as in qualitative research. In structured interview, researchers ask the same questions, which were prepared prior to the process, to all the

respondents with little or no variation (Fontana and Frey, 2000: 649). In semi-structured interview, the interviewers have a set of questions on the topics they are interested in finding out; but the greatest advantage of this kind of interview is that there is more flexibility and freedom, allowing the researcher to ask further questions on issues that are not very clear and the interviewee is given the opportunity to expound on issues and events that seem to be important (Bryman, 2004: 314). For example, Olson and Osborne's (1991) study sought to establish the common experiences of four novice teachers. Teachers' written descriptions of their experiences and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. Semi-structured interviews were carried out after the researchers had extracted the topics and themes from the teachers' written descriptions. The study clearly shows how flexible and useful semi-structured interviews can be.

A semi-structured interview (see Appendix 1a) seemed appropriate for my study as well. The semi-structured interview was used in order to elicit in-depth data from the teachers on their beliefs about teaching and learning English. Moreover, the less structured interview type allowed me to be flexible with the questions; hence I was able to explore issues that needed to be clarified by my participants. All the teachers were asked whether they preferred the interviews to be conducted in English or Turkish. All stated that they preferred English as they did not know the Turkish equivalents of certain terms and they would feel at ease if they used English.

All nine teachers were interviewed at the beginning of the academic year and at the end of the academic year (18 interviews). All interviews were held at teachers' offices. Moreover, stimulated recall interviews were held after the observations. Stimulated recall interview, which will be discussed in more detail in section, 3.6.4, was held once every module after the observations (36 stimulated interviews over four modules). In total, therefore, 54 interviews were conducted during academic year. The stimulated recall interviews that were conducted after the observations were unstructured and were about teachers' reflections and views on their lessons.

The first and the final interview (see Appendix 1b) lasted between 45 minutes to one hour; these were recorded and transcribed immediately after the interview. Although I had a list of questions to ask the participants, the wording and ordering of the questions were flexible. The first interview questions were related to a participant's education background, experiences as a student, reasons for choosing EFL teaching, influential people in their choice of teaching, internship experience, strengths as teachers, characteristics of effective teachers, beliefs about teaching and learning, expectations and worries for the new year and how they viewed themselves as teachers. At the end of the interview, teachers were asked to use metaphors to describe teaching and learning, teachers, students, classrooms and of themselves as teachers. They were given some time to think about the metaphors they wanted to use to describe teaching and learning, students, and their roles as teachers. They were encouraged to reflect on their thoughts and were also left free to do drawings if they believed these would help them to express their ideas. Follow-up

questions were asked if the participant's response was not explanatory or descriptive enough. For example, to the question "Why did you choose EFL teaching as a profession?", if the answer was "because of my teacher", a follow up question such as "how did the teacher influence you?" was asked.

Similar questions were asked in the final interview. The aim was to uncover the differences and changes in teachers' beliefs and experiences.

3.6.2 Credo

An open-ended belief-system questionnaire (Richards and Pennington, 1998), which is called a teaching credo (see Appendix 2) in this study, was administered to the teachers at the beginning of the academic year and the same credo was given to them at the end of the year when they were invited to make changes where they felt necessary. Variations on this technique have been used by researchers in the education field (e.g. Richards and Pennington, 1998; Abdulllah-Sani, 2000; Lunn and Bishop, 2003). In her study of eight student teachers, Abdulllah-Sani (2000) asked the students to write their personal beliefs about teaching and learning English as a second language as ten statements. Richards and Pennington (1998) named the technique as belief-system questionnaire, in which five non-native speakers of English teachers in their first year of teaching were asked to describe their beliefs about teaching English in Hong Kong, "theories of teaching and learning, and characteristics of effective teaching and lessons" (p.180).

For this study, a combination of Richardson and Pennington's and Abdullah-Sani's belief elicitation technique was used to stimulate the teachers to think about their implicit beliefs about teaching and learning English. It was also believed that the credo would add complementary information on teachers' beliefs. In the first part of the credo, the teachers were asked to think about teachers who had taught them and make a judgement about the characteristics of bad and good teachers (i.e., in general). In the second part, they were asked to think about the characteristics of good English teachers (see Appendix 2). Although the first two parts seem similar, in the latter part the focus was on the English teacher, rather than general subject teachers as in the first part. In the last part of the credo, they were required to write ten statements *about teaching and learning as a teaching credo*. I retained the credos until the end of the year, and then I presented them to the teachers again and invited them to make changes. It was necessary to give the credo back to the teachers, because they would have the chance to review and re-think about their beliefs at the end of the academic year. They were asked to cross out belief statements that they no longer hold, and write their new belief statement. If a particular belief had changed, they were asked to explain why they might have experienced this change in their belief.

3.6.3 Observation and post-lesson reflection form

Use of observation can provide the researcher with the opportunity to capture "live data from live situations" (Cohen et al. 2000: 305). According to Patton (1990: 202, cited in Cohen et al. 2000: 305), observation enables the researcher to enter and understand the situation that is being described. Moreover, one

important characteristic of qualitative observation that has been mentioned by Adler and Adler (1998) is that it is:

fundamentally naturalistic in essence; it occurs in the natural context of occurrence, among the actors who would naturally be participating in the interaction, and follows the natural stream of everyday life (p.81)

Observation can be carried out for assessment purposes, in the course of a research study or by peers for personal professional development purposes. The nine teachers in this study were observed during every module by their Pre-ICELT or ICELT tutors and by me in the role of a researcher. Therefore, the teachers were observed eight times in one academic year; four observations being conducted by me and four by their tutors. The observations were of 50-minute lessons. However, unlike their tutors, my role as a researcher was not to evaluate their teaching but to observe their practices in their classrooms and use the data for tracking the changes in their teaching practice and behaviour. Therefore, I told the teachers that they did not have to make any special preparation for my observations and that they should teach naturally. According to Adler and Adler (1998) “researchers must actively witness the phenomena they are studying in action” (p. 80). As discussed in the section on interview (section 3.6.1), my ontological position is that my participants’ actions and behaviours in their natural settings and how they interpret these are crucial. My epistemological position, on the other hand, suggests that “the researcher can capture naturally occurring phenomena by entering a setting” (Mason, 2002: 85) in order to generate meaningful knowledge. Therefore, it was necessary for me to be in direct contact with the teachers so that I could see whether the teachers’ espoused beliefs were transferred into action (teaching); in other words, the extent to which teachers’ beliefs related to their

practices and vice versa. Furthermore, I wanted to understand their experiences better and what their classrooms felt like. During observations, my role was that of non-participant observer; that is, I only watched and recorded what was happening in the classrooms, and did not interact with the teachers. Observations were also unstructured; that is, there was no observation sheet to record certain aspects of teachers' behaviour or actions, as the focus was not on evaluating teachers' teaching. In this study, the use of observation served two aims: first, it was used as a complementary instrument to stimulate teachers to think about or reflect on their lessons (explained below in more detail). Second, it was used to check whether teachers' beliefs were reflected in their actions.

One drawback of prolonged observation is that the researcher can go "native", that is, the researcher becomes so involved with the participants that s/he forgets or loses his/her intentions (Gold, 1958 cited in Bryman, 2004:302). Other drawbacks critics have put forward are inherent in qualitative research – that is, the data is "subjective, biased, impressionistic and idiosyncratic" (Cohen et al, 2000: 313). Moreover, there is the risk of the researcher having an influence on the participants' behaviour. In order to reduce this risk, the teachers were encouraged not to think about my presence in their classrooms and once I entered the classrooms, students were asked not to take notice of the video and to act naturally.

Immediately after the observations, teachers were provided with a post-lesson reflection form (see Appendix 3). Indeed, observations alone would not have provided me with sufficient data into teachers' beliefs. Thus, the post-lesson

reflection form was intended to encourage teachers to reflect on certain parts of their lesson (such as achieving objectives, strengths and weaknesses of their lesson) and their beliefs. It was also used to stimulate teachers' thinking in relation to their teaching. Post-lesson reflection forms were collected before the stimulated recall interview, and read thoroughly. If there were uncertainties or vagueness in teachers' descriptions, they were asked to explain these during the conversation-like interviews which were conducted after the stimulated recall interview (discussed in the next section). Moreover, during the conversation-like interviews, I asked the teachers general questions about their lesson(s) (e.g. How did you feel about your lesson? What would you have done if you taught the lesson again? Did anything you did not anticipate happen? etc...).

3.6.4 Stimulated recall interview

Apart from observations and interviews, researchers who are interested in classroom context and behaviour have used stimulated recall technique. The technique was first used by Bloom in 1953 to compare his students' thought processes about two learning situations (Calderhead, 1981). Other researchers (e.g. Woods, 1996; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Lyle, 2003; Basturkmen et al. 2004; Osam and Balbay, 2004) have also used the technique to investigate teachers' thought processes and interactive decision-making while teaching. Calderhead (1981) defines the technique as a way of gathering "teachers' retrospective reports of their thought processes" (p.215).

The technique involves the use of audiotapes or videotapes to record a teacher while teaching. The tape is then played back and viewed by the teacher sitting with the researcher. The teacher is encouraged to stop the tape at any point to

make comments on his/her teaching. The researcher can also stop the tape to elicit further comments from the teacher. The main aim is to help the teacher recall his/her thought processes and reflect on what was happening during his/her teaching (Gass and Mackey, 2000).

There are several caveats that need to be considered before using the technique. Calderhead (1981) notes that emotional stress, anxiety and confidence in teaching may influence the extent to which teachers recall and report their thoughts. Building rapport between the participants and researchers, and familiarising the participants with the stimulated recall procedures may be helpful in reducing such influences (op.cit.). Moreover, one might argue that teachers' verbal reports may be distorted as they know that they are involved in a study. In other words, they might respond in line with the researcher's research aim. To decrease the degree of such bias, it is best to use other methods to cross-validate data. Lastly, teachers may be unable to recall information from long-term memory. Therefore, it is important to carry out the interview soon after the observation so that teachers can retrieve information from their short-term memory and avoid reconstructing or inventing the missing information (Fang, 1996).

Meade and McMeniman (1992) carried out a study that showed the effectiveness and the usefulness of the technique for eliciting "the implicit theories of teachers" (p. 5) and examining the relationships between teachers' beliefs and actions. The researchers also stated that although it can provide more in-depth insight into teachers' beliefs and actions, it is "labour intensive

and time consuming” (ibid). Similarly, McAlpine, Weston, Berthiaume and Fairbank-Roch (2006) used stimulated recall technique in conjunction with extended interviews to study the ways two experienced instructors (one mathematics instructor and the other an education instructor) describe their teaching. The researchers stated that using stimulated recall provided “a level of specificity of thinking that is unlikely to occur when depending solely on memory” (op. cit.: 141).

My own study used stimulated recall technique after each observation. Each teacher watched the video of their lesson within two or three days. Each stimulated recall interview was audio- recorded and transcribed afterwards. The duration of the interviews, which were carried out in English, varied from twenty-five minutes to one hour. The teachers stopped the video at times they wanted to make comments on their teaching. At certain times, especially during the first module, when the teachers did not stop the video, I would do so in order to elicit their views on particular behaviour or action either of them or their students. After the second module, as teachers got used to the technique, they would stop the video themselves more frequently.

3.6.5 Diary

Teacher diaries, logs, or journals are personal accounts of classroom experiences about teachers’ cognition, culture and behaviour (Cortazzi, 1993; Calderhead, 1996). Nunan (1992) asserts that they have been used as important introspective research tools in language studies on “second language acquisition, teacher-learner interaction, teacher education and other aspects of language learning and use” (Nunan, 1992: 120). Diary studies (see, e.g. Jarvis,

1992; Numrich, 1996; Gray, 1998; Richards and Ho, 1998; Lee, 2007) are widely used with pre-service and in-service teachers for reflection purposes and eliciting teachers' perspectives on their own teaching. Diaries can also be kept for personal purposes (e.g. professional development). Richards and Lockhart (1996) propose two purposes of journal writing:

Events and ideas are recorded for the purposes of later reflection
The process of writing itself helps trigger insights about teaching.
Writing in this sense serves as a discovery process.

In a study examining common themes shared among novice teachers who were in their practicum course, Numrich (1996) analysed 26 novice ESL teacher diaries and found what was important to the teachers in their learning process, why they preferred particular teaching techniques and the causes of their frustrations. Numrich (1996) calls the diary study “a real insider instrument” (p.146) which can provide insights for teacher education and further unfold “the unobservable affective factors influencing” teachers' experience (ibid.). These findings were useful in re-thinking her own teacher education curriculum.

Similarly, Jarvis (1992) asked a group of experienced English language teachers, who were attending a short in-service training course, to keep a learning diary in which they would write about their learning experiences as teachers during the course. Her focus was on understanding how teachers perceived diaries and help teachers become aware of the importance of self-reflection. She stated that diaries would be helpful in understanding teachers and their teaching. As a result of her analysis, she identified three types of reflection: “solving problems, seeing new teaching ideas, and legitimizing their

own practice” (op. cit.:139). She also commented on the problems participants had in moving towards reflection and therefore their inability to articulate their perceptions and ideas. She reported the problems of diary writing as: listing, general summaries, and pleasing the teacher. She concluded that “those who succeed in reflecting on practice, seem also to reveal a heightened sense of their own responsibility for their learning and for changing their teaching. They seem to have more confidence in their own ability to act” (op.cit.:142).

In my own study, teachers were asked to make journal entries in which they were asked to reflect on their teaching, students, learning and the teaching context/classroom. Diaries were also used to keep a track of the teachers’ change over time, and complement other data. Teachers were provided with guiding questions (see Appendix 5), in case they did not know what to write about, and were not forced to write on a set schedule, but were encouraged to make entries on a regular basis (see Appendix 5 for instructions). They were also left free to write in whichever language they preferred, namely Turkish or English; they chose to write in English.

3.6.6 Metaphor elicitation task

An examination of teachers’ metaphors was thought to be potentially helpful in order to gain a better understanding of teachers’ beliefs and thoughts about teaching and learning. According to Lakoff and Johnson, (1980) “the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (p. 5). Munby (1986) remarks that eliciting metaphors can indeed be a “powerful tool for investigating teachers’ thinking” (p.198), as metaphors

provide a different way of understanding “how a teacher constructs educational reality” (p. 201). Similarly, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) claim that metaphor construction is “a bridge to the reality of the professional or technical world” (p. 149). Therefore, use of metaphors can function as a mirror to teachers’ thoughts and beliefs and enable them and others to better understand their teaching.

As stated in section 3.6.1, in the first interview teachers were asked to use metaphors to describe their beliefs about teaching and learning. After the initial analysis of the first interview, I realized that teachers’ metaphors were not described in sufficient detail as expected. Therefore, I decided to use the metaphor elicitation/stem completion task (see Appendix 4) at the end of the academic year. The stem completion task drew on previous studies by Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and McGrath (2006). Cortazzi and Jin (1999) explored metaphors of learning, teaching, language and good teachers of four groups: primary teachers, postgraduate students undertaking primary education courses, university students studying English linguistics, and foreign students studying English as a Foreign Language. In my own study, at the end of the study, the teachers were asked to complete the stems using metaphor(s) to describe their beliefs about

1. Teaching
2. A teacher...
3. Students...
4. Classrooms...
5. I am...

The teachers were given two days to think about and reflect on their metaphors. I collected the tasks after two days. Out of the nine teachers, only one teacher (NT6) did not return the stem completion task.

3.7 Data analysis

This study utilised qualitative data analysis to answer the research questions. Chapter 4 provides a detailed description of the procedures followed in the data analyses. All the data (diaries, credos, post-lesson reflection forms, metaphor construction sheets) collected from the teachers were compiled and filed separately under each teacher's name. The transcriptions were made right after the interviews, and the raw data were kept in word documents. Credos, post-lesson reflection forms and metaphor construction sheets were also typed in word documents. Diaries and my observation notes were not typed but were analysed manually using the categories produced from other data. As I transcribed and typed all the data myself, I became more familiar with the data and on the basis of literature I reviewed on novice teachers' beliefs, I started to categorize the themes in my mind.

The process of data analysis began by reading the interview transcriptions repeatedly with the research questions in mind. In order to save time, the computer software NVivo was used for the analysis. Initially, the data from the interviews were entered into the programme and statements that were relevant to the research questions were coded. Later, data from other sources were entered and the same process was followed. Once coding was complete, looking at common patterns across the codes to create themes/categories was

the next step. As a result, themes emerged from raw data. The figure below outlines the process of data analysis.

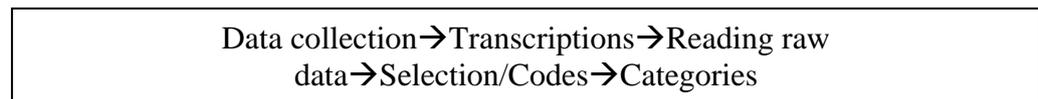


Figure 3. 1 Process of data analysis

In order to enhance the reliability of the data, I selected teachers' quotations which seemed to provide concrete evidence to support my interpretations. This, I hoped, would also allow the reader to make his/her own interpretations about the findings.

3.8 Issues of validity/credibility

Qualitative studies are concerned with validity, rather than reliability. Validity in qualitative research is related to “the honesty, depth, richness, and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher” (Cohen et al. 2000:105). Creswell and Miller (2000), adopting Schwandt's (1997) definition, define validity “as how accurately the account represents participants' realities of the social phenomena and is credible to them” (p.124). Lincoln and Guba (1985) prefer to use the term ‘credibility’, which refers to the credibility of findings in relation to the data presented.

A number of researchers have suggested measures to enhance the credibility of a study. These are summarised below, with an indication of how I sought to put them into practice.

- Use ‘thick description’: Guba and Lincoln (1989) state that describing the research context, the participants, and the procedures in detail ensures a broad understanding of where, with whom and how the study was conducted and increases the validity of the study. This study provided such information to familiarize the reader with the context and thus enhance validity.
- Prolong engagement in the field (Creswell and Miller, 2000): This refers to taking time to familiarize oneself with the context and the people around. As I had five years of teaching experience at the University, I was familiar with its culture and how the system works there. The study was conducted over a nine-month period and repeated observations and stimulated recall interviews were carried out during this period. Staying in the research site for a long period enabled me to build trust with my participants which enabled them to disclose information more comfortably. Moreover, I was able to detect if change occurred in the teachers’ beliefs or behaviour in relation to teaching and learning.
- Researcher reflexivity (Creswell and Miller, 2000): Section 3.5.3 presented my role as a researcher and described my relationship with the participants, and how I tried to keep a balance between these roles.

- Triangulation (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell and Miller, 2000):
Triangulation refers to data collected through multiple methods at different times with the same participants. As there is no physical way of examining teachers' beliefs, the study adopted multiple methods which would provide me with rich data and also enable me to cross-check similarities and differences across methods and data sources. It thus enabled me to present a comprehensive account of the phenomenon under study.

3.9 Summary

This chapter began by describing my philosophical rationale for the methodology of the study. The context, the participants, the ethical issues and methods of data collection were then explained in detail. Finally, data analysis procedures were described and considerations relating to validity were discussed. The next chapter will focus on the findings of the study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents nine novice teachers' (NTs') beliefs about teaching and learning derived from data collected over a period of nine months. Section 4.2 and 4.3 explain the data analysis procedures. Sections 4.4 and 4.5 describe teachers' beliefs about learning English and then teaching English before they started teaching, and sections 4.6. and 4.7 teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching at the end of study. Section 4.8 presents the kinds of changes teachers experienced both in their beliefs and practices. This is followed by a section (4.9) comparing and contrasting findings related to four of the nine teachers.

4.2 Data analysis

As stated in Chapter 3, interviews, written credos, observations, post-lesson reflection forms, stimulated recall interviews (SRI), diaries and a metaphor stem completion task generated the data for this study (see Table 4.1, below).

Table 4. 1 Timetable of data collection instruments

Tools	Module 1			Module 2			Off	Module 3		Module 4	
	Sept.	Oct.	Nov	Dec	Jan.	Feb.	Mar	Apr	May	Jun.	
Interview	✓										✓
Credo	✓										✓
Observation/ post-lesson reflection forms		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Stimulated Recall		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Diary	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Metaphor elicitation	✓										✓

All the data were compiled and filed separately under the teacher's name. Interviews and SRI were transcribed soon after they ended. Interview transcripts were checked by the teachers in case they wanted to change or add anything they considered vital. However, teachers were satisfied with what they had said and none of the transcripts was modified in terms of content.

Observations and stimulated recall interviews were conducted every module. Each module was two months long. For example, the first module started at the end of September and ended towards the end of November. As a result, teachers had new students every module.

The relationship between data were seen as particularly important, since the main aim was to look at whether teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning changed throughout the year, and/or whether teachers' beliefs corresponded with their actions.

4.3 Identifying themes and developing categories

All the data were typed up as Microsoft word documents and analysed by using qualitative data analysis software – NVIVO. Data analysis began soon after the collection of data from Interview 1 (hereafter I1) and the written credos. As data collection progressed throughout the year, more data were produced, which could only be partially analysed due to workload and time limitations. All the data were re-visited and re-examined after the data collection period ended. Once I had examined all the data, I was able to cross-check different sources of data for recurring themes and thereby compare how teachers' beliefs changed throughout the year. Additionally, cross-checking enabled me to ensure validity across data (see Chapter 3, section 3.8 for a discussion of Validity).

4.3.1 Analysis of the interviews and credo

The first interview and the credo, which were conducted at the beginning of the year, aimed to gain insights into teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning English. In addition to this, questions related to their learning experience, descriptions of good language teachers, and expectations as new teachers (see Appendix 1 for the interview questions) were asked in order to find out the sources of their beliefs - for example, whether past experiences as students had influenced their beliefs as teachers.

I read all the data (from the first interview and the credo) repeatedly to identify regularities and common beliefs and opinions about teachers, students, teaching and learning. The common beliefs and opinions were first coded by

using NVIVO. After coding the data from the interview and credo, I started categorising those codes which were similar to one another and different from one another. In other words, assigned codes were analysed to reduce data into categories or clusters. As a result, regularities or patterns that emerged from the data generated the main categories which were relevant to the research questions. Table 4.2 below exemplifies how the codes and the category “Beliefs about teaching English” and “Beliefs about learning English” were created from the first interview and the first credo.

Table 4. 2 Categories that represent teachers’ beliefs about teaching

Statement/Code	Category
the teacher should give them the chance to speak (NT2, Interview 1)	<u>Beliefs about teaching English</u>
I believe speaking and writing are 2 important productive skills that prove students real performance (NT2, Credo 1)	↓
Contextualising language is very important , and I support communicative teaching, communication is very important... they should be encouraged to use the language , (NT4, Interview 1)	Teaching approaches
Exposing students into real life experience increases learning (NT4, Credo)	
Urging students to ask questions in English (NT5, Credo)	

Table 4. 3 Categories that represent teachers’ beliefs about learning

Statement	Category
<p>Willingness [and] motivation are important [in learning English] (NT4, I1)</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Beliefs about learning English</u></p>
<p>They should not be ashamed of speaking, using the language...this is the first thing they need to do (NT2, I1)</p>	
<p>Definitely socializing, communicating, more practice in speaking, because in class they learn the grammatical rules, how to read...also more practice in reading will make them more successful (NT5, I1)</p>	

As can be seen from the table above, I identified the statements in the first column as belonging to the ‘Beliefs about teaching English’ category. The main categories and the sub-categories that emerged from the data and that also answered the first part of the research question “What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English prior to their first teaching experience?”. Similarly, the second table shows the categories that were created for the beliefs about learning English. In order to answer the second part of the first research question “Do the truly inexperienced teachers’ beliefs differ from those of the slightly more experienced teachers?”, both groups of teachers’ responses were compared to detect any difference.

Analysis of data from the second interview (see Appendix 1b, Interview 2) and the second credo, which was conducted at the end of the year, was done in the

same manner. Data from these instruments and data from observations, stimulated recall interviews and diaries were also used to answer the second research question “What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English at the end of the academic year?”. The analysis of the data revealed some differences and changes in the teachers’ beliefs. Therefore, I re-named the categories from the first interview data as “Teachers’ initial beliefs about teaching” and “Teachers’ initial beliefs about learning”. The new category which emerged from the analysis of the second interview and the second credo was labelled “Teachers’ beliefs about learning English at the end of the year”. The second new category was labelled “Teachers’ beliefs about teaching at the end of the year”.

To answer the third research question, “Is there a relationship between novice teachers’ beliefs and their teaching?”, data from the first interview, observations, and stimulated recall interview were used. When necessary data from other instruments e.g. diaries were used to complement the findings.

In order to answer the fourth research question, “Is there stability or change in novice teachers’ beliefs in their first year of teaching? Where there is evidence of change, what is the nature of this change?” I looked for data from all instruments that represented “Change in teachers’ beliefs”. I adopted Cabaroğlu’s (1999) categorization for the development of belief change. For example, when a teacher introduced a statement by “I realized”, the statement was coded as change in awareness. These codes were later categorized to represent the kind of belief change teachers experienced. The table below

illustrates each category of belief change and their characteristics with example extracts taken from the last interview, the last credo and stimulated recall interviews. The last column exemplifies the language that shows change in teachers' beliefs.

Table 4. 4 Categorization of Change

Category of belief change	Characteristic	Example
Change in awareness	Realizing one's own effective/ineffective skill or belief in teaching; confirmation of pre-existing belief	"I realized that ..." "I became aware of..." "I feel more..."
Change in teaching behaviour	Modifying a behaviour or action; Change in ways of interacting with students and roles	"I changed the way..." "I started to pay more attention to..." "I became stricter..."
Rejection of pre-existing belief	Rejecting an earlier belief	"A bad teacher creates a teacher centred lesson. Not really" (NT2, Interview2)
Addition of new belief	Adopting or adding a new belief	"I learnt that ..." "I now believe/think that..."
No change	No change in beliefs	"I still believe/think that ..."

(Adapted from Cabaroğlu, 1999)

Data from four teachers (two more experienced and two inexperienced) were compared to explore similarities and differences among two groups of teachers and thus to answer the last part of the fourth question "Do the beliefs of the truly inexperienced teachers and the slightly more experienced teachers change in the same way?"

4.3.2 Analysis of SRIs and post-lesson reflection forms

Teachers watched their recorded lessons with me within two days of the lesson observation. During stimulated recall interviews (SRI), they commented on their behaviour as well as their beliefs. Post-lesson reflection forms (see Appendix 3) were completed and given to me on the day of the Stimulated Recall Interview (SRI). SRIs were transcribed immediately. As the SRI was unstructured, the teachers were left free to stop the video and talk about any aspect of their lessons they wished. Data from post-lesson reflection forms and SRI were tabulated to explore possible changes in each teacher's teaching and beliefs. As mentioned above, data from these instruments were used to answer the third question. In addition to teachers' reflections, I also added my notes regarding teachers' teaching. I believed that as an observer I would be able to capture the changes the teachers were going through which they themselves might not have been aware of.

4.3.3 Analysis of diaries

Data from the diaries were analysed at two levels – first, I looked for data that related to beliefs about teaching, learning, teachers, students or the school; second, they were coded to confirm or disconfirm evidence from post-lesson reflection forms, SRI, and interviews. It should be noted that the teachers felt unable to write in their diaries on a regular basis due to workload and other responsibilities. At the beginning of the study, NT9 informed me that she would not be able to keep the diary at all due to workload and her MA study.

4.3.4 Analysis of metaphor elicitation task

At the beginning of the study, during the first interview, the teachers were asked to construct metaphors of teaching and learning to enable them to identify and reflect on their inner beliefs. They were particularly encouraged to refer to teachers, students, classrooms and to themselves as teachers. Data related to metaphors were also used to answer the first research question. At the end of the academic year, the teachers were reminded of the metaphors they had used in the first interview, and were asked to re-consider the metaphors they had given and change or add new ones if they wished. Additionally, teachers were asked to complete the metaphor elicitation task (explained in Chapter 3, section 3.5.2). Data from the task was used to answer the second research question.

The first step in analysing the metaphors was to make a list of the metaphors teachers provided at the beginning and end of the study. Thus, two lists were created as teachers' initial metaphors and teachers' final metaphors. This step was necessary as I intended to look at the changes in beliefs. I then categorized metaphors that were similar in meaning. While categorizing the metaphors, teacher metaphors discussed in the literature were also taken into consideration.

The following sections present the findings of the study.

4.4 Teachers' initial beliefs about learning English

This section presents data obtained from the first interview and credo. The quotations are selected on the basis of their relevance to the themes, and the dots show that the teachers paused at the time of the interview.

The section focuses on teachers' beliefs about learning English. Examining these novice teachers' beliefs about learning would be indicative of how they would teach and approach their students in the classroom (Calderhead, 1996). During the first interview, teachers were asked how students could succeed in learning English. Additionally, in the written credos they were asked to reflect on their beliefs about learning English. Analysis of the data revealed that teachers' beliefs about learning were related to students' motivation, language learning skills and other related factors (see Figure 4.1, below).

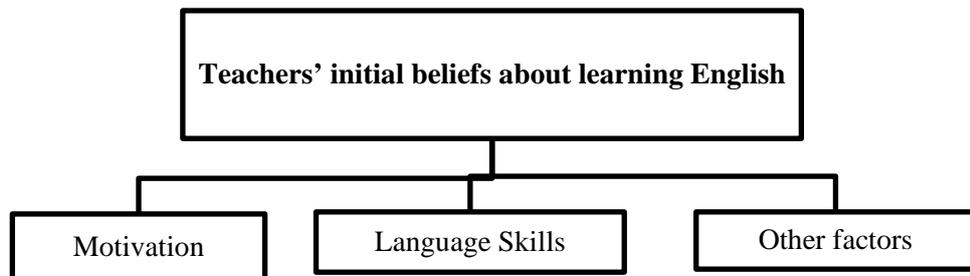


Figure 4. 1 Beliefs about learning at the beginning of the year

4.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about the importance of motivation in learning

Four teachers (NT1, NT2, NT4, NT9) in the study stated that motivation and willingness to learn were important factors in learning English which is in line

with previous research findings (e.g. Bailey et al, 1996; Brown and McGannon, 1998; Osam and Balbay, 2004; Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Tercanlioğlu, 2005). NT4 wrote in her credo that ‘if students are intrinsically motivated, learning becomes fun’. NT2 and NT9 also mentioned the importance of learning English and how students could benefit from learning the language. Thus, they highlight the potential importance of extrinsic motivation in learning English. The following quotation represents the four teachers’ beliefs about the importance of motivation:

they need to be **motivated to learn**...firstly they should **feel the need of learning the language**...first **we should ask them or make them aware why they need to learn this language**...where they can use it in the future, once they know the reason why they are learning English I think then they will do many things to become successful learners
(NT9, I1)

The statement above shows the teachers’ belief that students’ motivation and teachers’ encouragement are closely connected.

4.4.2 Teachers’ beliefs about the language skills

The majority of teachers (NT2, NT3, NT4, NT5, NT6) believed that learning English required students to make productive use of the language. The speaking skill took priority over the other skills. They mentioned that students should use English in the classroom as much as possible, because they would not have the chance to use the language outside the classroom. This finding was echoed in Erdoğan’s (2005) study which was carried out with experienced EFL teachers in Turkey. She stated that “English lessons are the only time when students have an opportunity to practise their speaking skills, and

teachers feel particularly responsible for their development in this area” (p.170).

NT3 and NT5 stated that in addition to speaking the language, students should also read English books and look up the meaning of unknown words, i.e. seek opportunities for additional exposure to the language. This finding was echoed in Richards et. al.’s (1992) study. NT3 added that students should make sentences with the new words they learn, as this would improve their learning. Her belief in the importance of reading books and learning new vocabulary was also echoed in her credo. NT6 and NT7 also believed that students could learn by listening to English songs, watching English movies or listening to English people speaking. NT6 also emphasized that memorizing grammar rules would not improve their language proficiency and added that instead of focusing on grammar, she wanted to involve them in speaking and listening activities.

When teachers talked about the necessity of learning the language skills, they referred to their own learning experiences. This finding is consistent with those of Bailey et. al. (1996), Numrich (1996), Richards and Pennington (1998), Abdullah-Sani (2000), and Farrell (2006b) who found that teachers’ previous language learning experiences are influential on how they approach teaching. NT1, NT2, NT3, NT5, NT6 and NT9 believed that their students could learn the way they had themselves learnt. The following extracts are illustrative:

Because I learnt English by hearing the language ... and I believe that’s actually the best way of learning a language, not from grammar rules, because **I learnt English that way I try to teach my students in that way too** (NT6, I1)

I used to read lots of books, *I was very interested in reading books...* whenever I didn't know the meaning of a word, I asked my mom, or look it up in the dictionary (NT5, I1)

Definitely socializing, communicating, more practice in speaking, because in class they learn the grammatical rules, how to read...**more practice in reading will make them more successful** (NT5, I1)

You should have your own techniques, for example, if I learnt something new that day **I used to write it on a piece of paper** and stick it on my wall...**They (students) should also have their own techniques, have their own vocabulary books** (NT1, I1)

4.4.3 Other factors

There were other beliefs or factors that teachers perceived as important in learning English: these included putting effort into learning (NT1, NT8), liking the teacher (NT2) and seating arrangements (NT7). NT1 and NT8 believed that putting effort into learning the language was a necessity. NT1 said that as a student, she loved English and she also tried “hard” (II) to learn it. If she did not understand anything she would go to her teachers' offices and ask questions. She believed that students should not be scared to ask questions, and go to their teachers' office to ask questions. Moreover, as attendance is a problem at EMUSFL, she also mentioned the importance of attending classes regularly.

NT2 believed that if students liked the teacher, they would also like the language. She also wrote in her credo that “friendly classroom atmosphere always eases students' understanding”. Other teachers (NT1, NT3, NT8, NT9) also mentioned that a positive classroom atmosphere was conducive to learning.

NT7 believed that a U-shaped seating arrangement would improve students' learning because the teacher could monitor them effectively while they were completing tasks. Interestingly, NT7 was the only teacher who brought up the importance of seating arrangement and monitoring students. This finding may be explained by the fact that she had had some teaching experience, and had realized the importance of seating arrangement and monitoring. She also believed that students should be on good terms, as they can learn from each other, and she wrote in her credo that group work would be effective in building good relationships.

4.4.4 Discussion

Overall, the majority of the novice teachers emphasised that motivation and practising English were important in learning English. Studies in the EFL field have also reported that students' ability, age and attitudes towards learning are important factors in learning English (e.g. Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005; Tercanlioğlu, 2005; Peacock, 2001). However, the teachers in this study did not mention these factors. One reason might be that although they were aware of their importance, they did not choose to mention them and decided to talk about those factors that they believed were most important. Another reason might be that when they were learners of English themselves, these were the factors that enabled them to acquire the language.

4.5 Teachers' initial beliefs about teaching English

This section focuses on teachers' beliefs about teaching English by presenting data from the first interview and the first credo. Novice teachers' beliefs related

to the difference between theory and practice, teacher characteristics, teachers' roles, teaching approaches, the use of L1 and error correction. Figure 4.2 below illustrates distinct areas of beliefs about teaching held by the teachers:

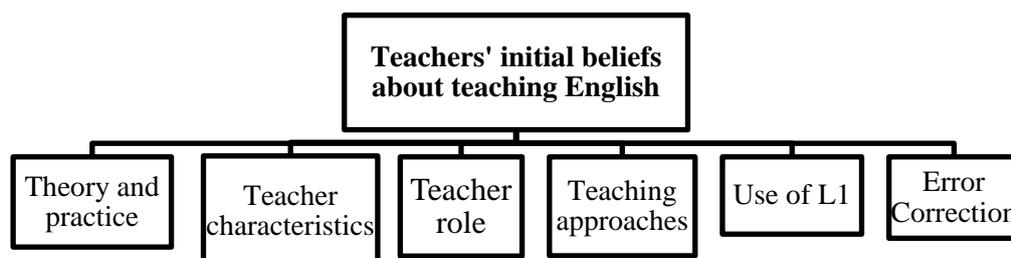


Figure 4. 2 Teachers' beliefs about teaching at the beginning of the year

4.5.1 Theory and practice

When the teachers were asked what their beliefs about teaching and learning were, three of them referred to their practicum experience. NT1, NT2, and NT4 commented on the gap between theory and practice. These three teachers had believed that teaching would be similar to what they had read about in books. However, as soon as they started their practicum they realized that theory and practice were different and the need to develop their own theories of teaching:

I thought that my teaching would be the same as the books say, but it was not like that...the theory in the books...when I entered the classroom I thought that it is not the theory that you should follow, but you have to find your own way of teaching...I became aware of the fact that theory and practice are different. (NT1, I1)

I was thinking of the theory, "how should I act? How should I teach?" but when I got to the class, I thought that it was something different...I thought that the first thing I should do is to create a nice learning

environment, adapt yourself into their position, to kneel down and to speak to them, so that they feel close to you, the warmer they feel close to you, the better teaching you will have, this is what I thought during the practicum,... **afterwards I have come to learn that it has got nothing to do with the theory of teaching, but it is the material, the materials are the students...once you understand them, you can create your own teaching philosophy** (NT2, I1)

We were taught many theoretical information, and when I did the micro-teaching and the internship **I realized that theories do not work in the classroom**...I had the chance to use the theories, because I was not the real teacher, the students were there, I could do whatever I wanted to do, but I realized that not all theories can be applied to every class (NT4, I1)

For these three teachers, the practicum experience was clearly influential in raising an awareness of how theory and practice might differ. In this case, the finding shows that the practicum experience was effective, as found in other studies such as Urmston (2003), but the teacher education programme or the theoretical knowledge that was taught seemed to be ineffective in equipping them with the practical skills they needed in teaching, as found by Peacock (2001), Flores (2002) and Urmston (2003).

4.5.2 Teacher characteristics

The teachers were asked to define good and bad teachers and, if they found it helpful, to refer to their worst and best learning experience as students. It was hypothesized that these questions would bring out their inner thoughts and beliefs about the important elements of teaching and learning and whether or not these ideas had any particular influence on how they viewed their own teaching.

Effective teacher characteristics fell into three categories: personality traits, content knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. A good/effective teacher was mostly defined as someone who is understanding (e.g. understands students' learning needs and styles) (NT2, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT8, NT9), is enthusiastic (NT2, NT3, NT4, NT6) has good management skills (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT7), is flexible while teaching (NT2, NT4, NT7, NT8), is well-prepared (NT2, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT8), and loves his/her job (NT3, NT4, NT6, NT7). Other characteristics that were mentioned were establishing good rapport (NT1, NT3, NT6), being patient (NT2, NT3, NT4), motivating students (NT3, NT4, NT6), having good/perfect knowledge of the subject matter (NT1, NT3), being creative (NT2, NT5), and using English fluently and accurately (NT1, NT7). Most of these characteristics were also mentioned in previous studies such as Brosh (1996) and Koutsoulis (2003).

NT4 and NT1 explain what they mean by an effective teacher in the following quotations:

An effective teacher is a prepared teacher, when I say prepared it doesn't mean that s/he should have a lesson plan, but prepared, knowing what to do...sometimes **a good teacher should be flexible**, because sometimes you prepare something and students don't want to do it, so a good teacher should have the ability to change the flow of the lesson (NT4, I1)

The teacher must have a perfect knowledge of his/her job, and field...s/he should have such personal characteristics...just to be a knowledgeable teacher is not enough, so there are some other personal characteristics like **being friendly for example, sometimes students don't need a teacher but need to see you as a good friend...at that time you have to behave as if you are a friend** (NT1, I1)

Studies in the mainstream education as well as in the EFL field have shown that pre-service teachers and novice teachers' beliefs are highly influenced by

their learning experiences. Personal images of both good and bad teachers and good and bad teaching are depicted when referring to this experience. When describing good teachers, the novices in the present study also recalled their learning experiences as students. The following quotations are illustrative:

I used to have **a teacher who had very enthusiastic skills, she had eye-contact with us**, she used to ask us if we had any problems, or if we needed help, she told us we could go to her office, she used to say I can help you any time you want (NT7, I1)

A teacher at high school who often brought visual aids like pictures, posters and so on and who gave us the opportunity to better understand the subject. She taught us with the help of watching films. **She was always well-prepared**, and taught history in such a way that all students became excellent listeners. (NT8, Credo)

In addition to their positive learning experiences, the teachers also referred to their negative learning experiences as students. All the teachers stated that they did not want their students to experience what they had experienced and that these bad experiences had shaped their views about how they should not teach.

The negative experiences six teachers described were based on being embarrassed in front of the whole class. The following quotations highlight how they felt at that time and what effect it had left on them:

[...] **the way he talked to me, the way he criticized me I was really upset. I will never criticize my students, I will try to help them**...there are many different ways of teaching vocabulary, mimes gestures etc....**this actually affected me very badly, but on the other way around it helped me not to do the same things to my students** (NT1, I1)

I had a teacher who had favourites [...] I did wrong and my friend did it wrong too, but hers was marked right...I thought probably she didn't realize it...so I went to her and I said "my friend's is marked right, but mine is marked wrong"...she called my friend next to me, and she said "your friend is trying to give you a bad grade". Obviously everyone can make mistakes, when I marked something wrong and my students come to me, I immediately look at it and apologize if necessary, correct it and

give it back...I always tell my students to look at their friend's paper and compare it...**I have become more emotional about it, because I know what it feels like** (NT5, I1)

NT7 and NT9 talked about teachers who approached teaching and students in a different way and the influence they had had on their behaviour now as teachers:

I used to have a very bad teacher, he used to look at the wall, he didn't have any eye-contact with us, he used to look at the walls and he kept talking and talking...he also used to give us the exam questions and answers, that was my worst experience...**I decided to be a good teacher, not like him** (NT7, I1)

I was in the primary school, our teacher punished the whole class...**she hit our hands only once**...it was punishment given to the whole class...I think it was because we did not do our homework. **I will always try to approach them in a positive way... in a humanistic way** (NT9, I1)

The two teachers' negative experiences had a positive effect on how they wanted to approach their teaching. At the beginning of their teaching career, these teachers knew the roles they did not want to adopt.

Recollections of teachers' past learning experiences seemed to be influential on how teachers' described good and bad teachers. Not only English language teachers were influential on how these novice teachers viewed good and bad teachers, but also teachers of other subjects, such as Maths or History. Thus, their experiences did appear to have had an influential effect on the kinds of teachers they wanted to be. If the teacher's learning experience was positive, then she seemed to be more likely to take that teacher as a role model. On the other hand, if the teacher's learning experience was negative, then the teacher seemed to reject that person's teaching method or behaviour. Moreover, when

teachers' referred to their learning experiences, they recalled their teachers' personality traits, teaching style, or attitude towards students.

4.5.3 Teachers' roles

In the first interview, teachers mentioned that they were concerned about their roles as teachers. The majority (NT1, NT2, NT5, NT6, NT8) of the novices saw themselves as responsible for helping the students pass the level exam or learn how to speak English. Below are some of the teachers' comments in relation to their goals for the year:

I want my students to get their most, and **to pass their exam**, and move to the second level...as far as I am concerned, **I want to be known as a teacher who works hard, and who is creative and someone who has a good reputation** (NT2, I1)

I want to see my students talking in English, I will be very happy...**I want my students to remember me** for example, if they use something in English and they say Munnever 'hoca' [teacher] taught this to us, this would make me very happy...I also want to improve myself, my first year in teaching is very important (NT4, I1)

I am not going to allow any of the students to fail the exam or miss their attendances, I am going to talk to them and encourage them to come to class regularly and study regularly...**give the best teaching I can so that they can pass the elementary exam** (NT5, I1)

I just want my students to communicate in daily language...without thinking about the grammar rules (NT6, I1)

In addition to making sure that students succeed in using the target language, NT2 and NT4 were concerned about how they would be known and remembered by their students.

The metaphors these novices used to describe their roles also show how much importance they attributed to their students' success and needs. Table 4.5

shows metaphors teachers used to describe themselves, how they viewed students and their explanations for the metaphors they chose.

Table 4. 5 Teachers' initial metaphors for themselves and students

	Self	Students	Explanation
NT1	Mother, friend, father, sister		the teacher should be everywhere in the classroom, most of the time I sit on the teacher's table and teach so I am everywhere... I have many roles in the classroom I think...sometimes I can be a mother, a friend, father, sister especially with the girls
NT2	Green candle, Chameleon	Planets, Materials	<p>because metaphorically speaking green means something new...fresh...the candle because I believe I can enlighten my students...</p> <p>I can be a chameleon...I can easily adapt myself according to students' moods</p> <p>my students can be planets....they are unique and different....different sizes...the planets' nature is different, Venus is different, earth is different... students are worth to wonder about ...to discover...</p> <p>Teaching has got nothing to do with the theory, but it is the materials....The materials are the students...once you understand them, you can create your own teaching philosophy</p>
NT3	The Sun	Plants, animals, the earth	my class is the earth/world and I am the sun...the sun is necessary for the earth, the plants, the animals, so the sun is like the teacher and the students need the teacher

NT4	Helper, Guide		I should listen to their problems and help them if I can...I am a helper, a guide to them
NT5	Computer Programmer	Computer	the students being the computer with a programme, and I am setting in more programmes or [updating them]...or like when you write in word document, it gives you synonyms, so sometimes in class I ask them the meaning of a word for example invent, and students reply create, make...and in the computers sometimes they don't have the synonyms and so you add them...so I do the same thing, I add to their knowledge
NT7	The seed of an apple, friend, counsellor, guide	The remaining part of the apple	because they used to come to me with their problems, but not family problems, like their economical problems, or accommodation....and I guide them...
NT8	Young flower		I am a young flower in a garden trying to grow, trying to teach
NT9	Facilitator	Receivers	No explanation

Analysis of the metaphors showed that the majority of the novice teachers' metaphors reflected those in previous studies (e.g. Guerrero and Villamil, 2002; Farrell, 2006b; Saban et. al. 2007). The categories that were developed for this study were similar to those of Guerrero and Villamil (2002) and Saban et. al. (2007). The metaphors were organized into four categories in decreasing order of frequency:

- *Teacher as guide*: the teacher directs students. Students are not over-dependent on the teacher. Examples of this category are: green candle (NT2), helper, guide (NT4), counsellor, guide (NT7), facilitator (NT9)
- *Teacher as nurturer*: the teacher nourishes and encourages learning, and adapts her teaching according to students' cognitive and affective needs. Examples: Mother, father, sister, friend (NT1), chameleon (NT2), the sun (NT3).
- *Teacher as provider of knowledge*: the teacher is responsible for conveying knowledge to students. Examples: computer programmer (NT5).
- *Teacher as a learner*: the teacher is seen as inexperienced, who is still in the process of learning about teaching. Example: Flower (NT8)

NT6 could not provide a metaphor to describe her role. She stated that she did not have clear ideas about her role as a teacher. This finding was unexpected, as previous research shows that pre-service and novice teachers do normally form images of themselves before starting their actual teaching. More

interestingly, NT8, who had already had one year of teaching experience, saw her roles as a young flower, trying to grow. NT8's metaphor contrasted with findings from Guerrero and Villamil (2002) and Saban et. al. (2007). For example, in Guerrero and Villamil's (2002) study teachers used the metaphor 'flower' to describe their students as those who were ready to grow with knowledge. The teachers in Saban et. al.'s (2007) study, on the other hand, used it to describe their roles as the source or provider of knowledge.

As can be seen from the category above, the majority of the teachers saw their roles as guide. The metaphor indicates that teaching meant guiding students to new knowledge and in this sense students were not conceptualised as passive. As for the next category, three teachers saw their roles as nurturer or resource person where the teachers' role was to help students' growth and meet their needs. NT1's metaphors indicate the importance she gave to her involvement with her students, NT2's metaphor 'chameleon' indicates her flexibility within the classroom and her ability to adapt to the students' needs and NT3's metaphor the sun indicates that she saw her role as an indispensable source of life for growth. The next category knowledge provider represents teacher role as responsible for conveying knowledge and that students would be passive in the learning process. These three categories are common in the literature (e.g. Saban, Kocbeker and Saban, 2007; Warford and Reeves, 2003; Guerrero and Villamil, 2002; Martinez et. al. 2001).

4.5.4 Teaching approaches

The majority of the novice teachers generally favoured a student-centred and communicative way of language teaching, which is in line with previous studies conducted by Karavas-Doukas (1996), Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son (2004), and Feryok (2008). In this study, NT1, NT4, NT6 and NT9 believed that using communicative activities would enable students to use the language. However, NT6 and NT9 also believed that the syllabus would restrict them in terms of using such activities. NT6 was also aware of the fact that students at EMUSFL were exam-oriented, and that they would rather do mechanical exercises. She did not believe in the effectiveness of presenting grammar through rules. NT4, who believed that using communicative activities would encourage students to use and learn the language more effectively, stated that:

Contextualising language is very important, and I support communicative teaching, communication is very important... they should be encouraged to use the language (NT4, I1)

Exposing students into real life experience increases learning (NT4, Credo)

She also said that she would be happy if her students could speak English and remembered her as someone who taught them certain skills. NT1 also believed that teachers should create real life situations and encourage students to use English during such activities.

Teachers also talked about the reasons for having group work in their classes. Both NT3 and NT8 believed that pair/group work would be effective, and the teacher should monitor students and encourage students to use the language during such activities. NT7 wrote in her credo that working in groups would

improve students' relationships and build a good atmosphere. NT9 shared the same belief and wrote in her credo that during such activities, students could learn from each other. NT8 said that students' knew grammar but they were not able to speak the language. She said that she would help students gain confidence in their speaking skill, if students were willing to learn. She also talked about group work activities. NT2 stated that group work would not be effective with lower level students and that it should only be used with upper level students.

NT2 explained that teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills were necessary. Her beliefs varied between traditional and non-traditional teaching approaches. On the one hand, she stated that she "believe[d] in the necessity of mechanical drills, like fill in the gaps" (Credo), and on the other hand, she believed that students should be actively involved in the learning process; for example, interacting with each other during speaking activities. She felt that the teacher had to give the students the chance to speak. She also believed that grammar should not be taught by presenting the rules, but by contextualizing it; for instance, by the teacher giving examples from his/her life, or asking students to give examples from their lives.

NT3 stated in the first interview that she did not have clear ideas about teaching. She was worried about classroom management problems that she might encounter in her classes. She said lesson planning was important because if the teacher does not know what to do and goes into the classroom unprepared, she will have a "terrible experience" (I1). She believed that having

a lesson plan would ensure the flow of the lesson. NT3 also believed that teaching the four skills was necessary and that the teacher should use a variety of materials and teaching techniques.

NT5 and NT7 believed that using different teaching techniques and technological aids would increase learning. NT5 did not seem to have a very clear idea about the kind of teaching approach she wanted to employ. She stated that she wanted to apply both a student and teacher-centred approach to teaching. However, she said that even when the lesson was teacher-centred students should be involved. She believed that a teacher should understand students' needs, and should know how students prefer to learn.

4.5.5 Use of L1

Three teachers expressed their views about the use of mother-tongue in the classroom. NT7 believed that teachers could use a certain amount of Turkish in beginner level classes. However, she stated that teachers should use English with higher level students. NT9 stated that she would use English while teaching, but would also use Turkish if she saw that students were having difficulty in understanding her. NT6 seemed to be stricter than her colleagues about the use of L1 as she said that if students used Turkish, she would stop them and tell them to use English or at least encourage them to try to use English.

4.5.6 Error correction

Teachers also talked about their beliefs related to oral error correction techniques. As can be seen from the table below, the majority of the teachers were in favour of teacher correction and more than one error correction technique:

Table 4. 6 Error Correction Techniques Favoured

Verbal Teacher Correction	NT3, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT8, NT9
Facial Expression	NT1, NT7
Self-correction (with the teacher's help)	NT1, NT9, NT8
Peer Correction	NT7, NT8
Use of Intonation	NT1, NT7

As can be seen from the table above, NT7 and NT8 favoured peer correction, whereas NT1, NT2 and NT3 stated that peer correction might discourage students and cause them to lose face in front of their friends. NT1 said:

I believe that to encourage the **students to correct himself is the best way...I can[also] correct them with a signal in my voice**, for example, if the student says "I is a student", I can say *I is a student or I am a student* so that the student understands that something is wrong...some teachers prefer peer correction but what I feel is that most of them do not like their peers to correct them...so **I can correct them with my voice or facial expression...** (NT1, I1).

NT9 would adopt a different strategy:

For oral correction, I can **repeat the sentence for them or I just tell the beginning of the sentence** and expect them to tell the correct answer (NT9, I1)

Teachers stated that students should not be interrupted while speaking and correction should be done after students finish their sentences or answers.

I can correct it at that time, but this can be discouraging... I think **fluency is very important, and I also make mistakes when I speak so I don't want to interrupt too much...**and **I don't want to use peer correction** because students may not feel well when other students correct them...instead I can ask someone else the same question and get the correct sentence or answer from another student (NT3, I1)

NT2, NT5 and NT6 referred to correcting students' pronunciation, which they felt should be done by repeating the target word. NT2 and NT6 believed that when students made grammatical errors, the teacher should correct it as soon as possible after the event, and by writing the correct sentence on the black-board.

4.5.7 Discussion

When the novice teachers talked about teaching English, they referred to cognitive and affective beliefs. The findings show that teachers did not only focus on what and how students learn, but also their own behaviour in the teaching and learning process. The analysis of the data show that non-experienced and more experienced teachers did not differ greatly in their beliefs about teaching and learning (for more discussion, see section 4.9).

Table 4.7 below summarises the common beliefs that teachers held.

Table 4. 7 Summary of teachers' beliefs about teaching English

	Cognitive Beliefs	Affective Beliefs
Teacher characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • having knowledge of the subject matter, • being creative • well-prepared 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enthusiastic • patient • understanding • loves his/her job
Teachers' roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enabling students to use the target language, • providing knowledge, • facilitating learning, • guiding students in the learning process • creating real life situations 	
Teaching approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • student-centred teaching, • communicative activities, • group and pair work, • teaching grammar, • using visual aids • bringing in different materials 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • good rapport • friendly atmosphere • getting students' attention
Use of L1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teacher should use English most of the time • teacher should encourage use of L2 	
Error correction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • error correction techniques 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • peer correction might discourage students

4.6 Teachers' beliefs about learning at the end of the year

This section presents findings from the second interview, stimulated recall interviews, diaries, observations and post-lesson reflection forms. The data showed that the teachers believed that motivation and acquiring certain language skills were important in learning English (see Figure 4.3, below). As can be seen from the figure below, the teachers did not mention other factors at the end of the year. This might be due to the fact that they considered the two categories potentially more important than other factors.

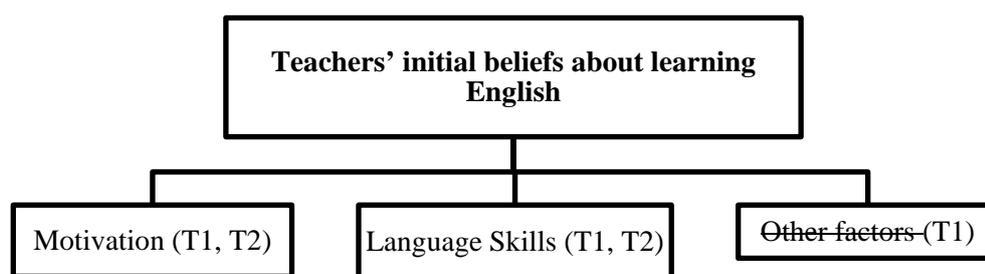


Figure 4. 3 Beliefs about learning at the end of the year

4.6.1 Motivation

Motivation was still considered to be important in teaching and learning English. During the first interview, four teachers (NT1, NT2, NT4, NT9) talked about the importance of motivation in learning English. During the second interview, they stated that they still held the same belief. By the end of the study, NT6 and NT8 also mentioned that being motivated and wanting to learn the language was necessary.

NT2, NT6 and NT9 declared that their students were not motivated to learn English but to pass the level test or proficiency test:

I had students who said to me “why are we doing this? Is it going to be in the exam?” their worry is not to learn English, it’s just passing the proficiency and the prep school, so that’s why students want more mechanical exercises...they want to get ready for the exam, and it is quite hard to change their view, you know saying that this is not about passing the exam but learning English (NT6, I2)

NT1 and NT8 stated that their students who had been studying the same level for the third time were not motivated to learn at all. To be able to motivate their students, they encouraged them by saying that they would pass the module exam this time.

Thus, by the end of the study more teachers considered that motivation was an important factor in learning English. However, they also felt that some of the students’ motivation to learn English might be exam-oriented. This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g. Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Erdogan, 2005; Phipps and Borg, 2009).

4.6.2 The language skills and grammar

NT4 and NT6 held the same belief, that students could learn English if they were exposed to the language. In addition to this, during the second interview, NT4 added that reading books would help students improve their learning.

NT6 added two new beliefs to her system; she believed that the writing skill was important in learning English and that teaching grammar explicitly was necessary. She believed that when teachers corrected students’ mistakes in writing, they would learn better from their mistakes. She also added that

although teachers were teaching the speaking skill, they were not focusing on the daily use of the language, but on what would be tested during the speaking exam. Moreover, she stated that although she believed that listening and hearing were the best ways to learn a language, learning/knowing grammar was equally important:

They are not in an environment where they can hear English all the time, and **they feel they are lost if they don't learn the grammar rules**, they can't use it, they can't think of the logic or sentence pattern to actually form correct sentences...**they feel like they have to know all the grammar rules, why that word is actually there to form good, correct grammatical sentences...teaching grammar is also important... important for speaking..**(NT6, I2)

NT8, on the other hand, said that language learning was not just learning grammar and writing essays, but also being able to speak the language. She also emphasised that students should take responsibility for their own learning. She explained that to encourage students' autonomy she would encourage them to check unknown words in their dictionary. Additionally, she believed that explaining the meaning with simple sentences or giving synonyms would facilitate understanding.

4.7 Teachers' beliefs about teaching at the end of year

When talking about their beliefs at the end of the study, teachers referred to theory and practice, students and their roles as teachers, teaching approaches, use of the mother-tongue and error correction. As can be seen from Figure 4.4 below, the main change was that at the beginning of the year teachers talked about teacher characteristics and roles. By the end of the year, they talked more specifically about students and their roles in teaching and learning.

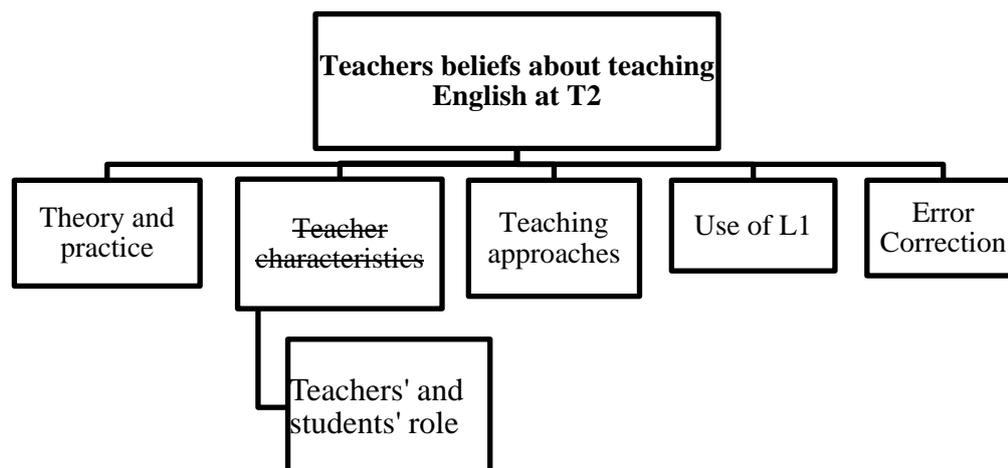


Figure 4. 4 Beliefs about teaching at the end of the year

4.7.1 Theory and practice

Previous studies have found that theory and practice can be two distinct entities (e.g. Richards and Pennington, 1998, Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Flores, 2005). Three teachers in this study also made comments on the gap between theory and practice. NT1 and NT4 still believed that there was a gap between theory and practice. NT2 did not bring up the topic, but NT3 who did not mention this gap in the first interview also talked about it at the end of the year. They explained that they were not able to apply the theoretical knowledge that they had learnt at the university, and that knowing students' needs and learning styles shaped their teaching.

At the beginning of the year, I hoped that I would be able to apply the theoretical information I learnt about teaching in class. However, I realized that in the classroom you have to find your own way on your own according to your students. (NT3, I2)

Theoretically we are supposed to do many things but when we go to the classroom, we can't do it...students are the factors that shape teachers...you can say that I can this will do this but sometimes when you do it in the classroom, it doesn't work...students are unique and they have different learning styles (NT4, I2)

NT3, on the other hand, wrote the following in her diary during the second module:

As time passes by I am getting more used to teaching and as time goes by I feel I am becoming a more effective teacher. **At university, teachers always told us that you can't learn teaching with theory, you can only learn teaching with practice. Now I understand that this is actually correct.** (Diary 2)

4.7.2 Teachers' and students' roles

The data revealed that although some of the teachers' beliefs about their roles did not change there was more concern about students' role. Therefore, mentioning students' roles in relation to their own roles indicate a change in beliefs. The table below illustrates teachers' metaphor use at the beginning (T1) and end of the year (T2). Four teachers wrote more than one metaphor to describe their roles. The metaphors that were emboldened indicate change and addition of new metaphors.

Table 4. 8 Teachers' metaphors at T1 and T2

	Self (T1)	Self (T2)	Students(T1)	Students (T2)
NT1	Mother, friend, father, sister	Mother, father, friend, sister, brother, psychologist (SCT), not a walking dictionary (I2)		Lost people, my family
NT2	Green Candle, chameleon	Actress (SCT), Chameleon (I2),	Planets, Materials	Planets,
NT3	The Sun	The sun (I2)	Plants, animals, the earth	Plants
NT4	Helper, Guide	Good gardener's book (SCT)		Seeds, Plants
NT5	Computer programmer	Water (SCT), Guide	Computer	Seeds
NT7	The seed of an apple, friend, counsellor, guide	Friend (I2)	The remaining part of the apple,	Hungry for knowledge
NT8	Young Flower	Explorer, water, friend, counsellor, family member, (SCT), guide (I2)		Flowers
NT9	Facilitator	Gardener (SCT)	Receivers	Children, Flowers

As can be seen from the table above, it appears that the teachers conceptualized students as those (e.g. planets, seeds, flowers, children, lost people) who needed to be cared for, guided or helped by the teacher. Moreover, there is some congruence between teachers' metaphors for themselves and their students. For example, NT1 saw described herself as "mother, friend, father, sister" and her students as "my family". This congruence suggests that the metaphors are not simply miscellaneous but form part of a more coherent and stable system of beliefs.

By the end of the year, four teachers (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT7) held on to their initial metaphors to describe their roles. Most of the novice teachers described their roles as nurturer, followed by the view of their role as guide, provider of knowledge, innovator and walking dictionary (see Table 4.9 below, T2). Thus, as can be seen from the table below, there was a change in the use of metaphors between T1 and T2. While three NTs' metaphors were categorized under 'nurturer' at T1, by the end of the year this number increased to six. This change of metaphors reflects a change in teachers' perception of their new roles.

Table 4. 9 Comparison of metaphors at T1 and T2

T1	T2
<i>Guide</i> : green candle (NT2), helper, guide (NT4), counsellor, guide (NT7), facilitator (NT9)	<i>Nurturer</i> : mother, father, sister, friend (NT1), friend (NT7, NT8), family member (NT8), gardener (NT4, NT9), actress, chameleon (NT2), the sun (NT3), water (NT5, NT8).
<i>Nurturer</i> : Mother, father, sister, friend (NT1), chameleon (NT2), the sun (NT3),	<i>Guide or helper</i> : guide (NT5, NT8), psychologist (NT1), counsellor (NT8)
<i>Provider of knowledge</i> : computer programmer (NT5)	<i>Innovator</i> : explorer (NT8)
<i>Learner</i> : Flower (NT8)	<i>Walking dictionary</i> : not a walking dictionary (NT1)
	<i>Provider of knowledge</i> <i>Learner</i>

The majority of teachers' metaphors fell under the category 'nurturer' which was represented by various metaphors. In this category, NT1, NT7 and NT8 referred to their roles as a 'friend' or 'family member'. These metaphors imply that the teacher supports learning. The family member or friend metaphors were also found in Michael and Katerina's (2009) study with Greek teachers who saw their roles as parent, friend or saviour. The metaphor 'gardener' used by NT4, NT9 suggests that the teachers' role is to nourish and facilitate learning. The two metaphors 'actress' and 'chameleon' used by NT2 imply a teacher who adopts various roles in order to meet students' needs. The final

metaphors in this category were the sun and water which suggest that the teacher was seen as indispensable source of life.

The second category 'guide' is representative of a teacher who helps students with their personal problems, and guides them in learning. By the end of the study, two new categories emerged: 'innovator' (NT8) and 'walking dictionary' (NT1). The teacher as an explorer under the category of innovator suggests that the teacher is involved in a process of discovery. NT1 stated that she was not a walking dictionary which implies that she did not perceive her role as feeding knowledge to students. It is interesting to note that NT1, NT5 and NT8 used more than one metaphor to describe their roles. This suggests that they saw their roles as multifaceted.

The majority of the teachers' (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT5) metaphors were also reflected in their teaching. For example, NT2, who initially described herself as a 'chameleon' and later as an 'actress', changed her teaching and attitude towards the students every module. She herself was aware of this and explained that she changed according to students' needs. She explained a teacher's role and her role more explicitly in the SCT (stem completion task):

I am an actress who is trying **to adapt different roles** and who is in search of finding her way of teaching. **Every class requires the use of changeable teaching techniques and styles...** learners affect me a lot and I cannot ignore the students' perception. Their attitude consequently affects my motivation and performance... **A good actor has the capacity to imitate different roles so as to meet the needs of a story.** A teacher's job is by no means different to an actor's. a teacher appeals to different audiences by using his mental, sensual and characterization skills (NT2, SCT)

At the beginning of the year, NT4 had worried about her teaching and her role. In the third stimulated recall interview, she stated firmly that she did not want to be “the boss” and wanted to be “the facilitator, or the resource”. She also mentioned that the students should be responsible for their own learning, and take decisions about their learning. For her, if students could do this, then their self-confidence in learning would increase. In the stem completion task (see below), her idea about “the teacher as the resource” or someone who provides knowledge changed. She saw the teacher as the gardener who was responsible for students’ learning, just as a gardener is responsible for seeds growing.

I am a reader of “A GOOD GARDENER’S” book. I read the book to be informed about the plants. A *gardener* plants the seed and waters it. Some plants need more water however some of them need less. If the weather is rainy or if it hails, the gardener protects the seed. It takes time for the plant to be grown up. If the gardener doesn’t care about the seeds, they may not grow so the gardener cannot produce anything.
(NT4, SCT)

4.7.3 Teaching approaches

At the beginning of the study, the novice teachers believed in the effectiveness of the communicative approach (see section 4.5.4). When talking about teaching approaches at the end of the year, the novices referred to their own preferred way of teaching (i.e. their teaching style). They seemed to have become aware of the relationship between their beliefs and practices and thus have developed a better sense of what teaching meant to them. Specifically, they talked about teaching grammar, using the course-book, using group and pair work, whole class discussions, how students shaped their teaching and use of the mother-tongue while teaching.

The majority of the teachers (NT1, NT3, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT7, NT9) talked about the importance of teaching grammar and promoting the speaking skill. Except for NT2, none of the teachers in the first interview mentioned grammar teaching. However, by the end of the study, the majority brought up the topic. For example, NT4 explained in the second stimulated recall interview that although her students preferred to see the grammar rules on the blackboard she used “small word cards and colourful chalks” to attract their attention. Similarly, NT7 stated in the second SRI that she used drawings and pictures to attract students’ attention and later gave students controlled practice. NT2 explained in the third SRI that she taught the new grammar topic with examples and then gave students pictures to write sentences about them. She believed that this way of practising the target structure would be more fun for the students. Similarly, NT5 stated that after teaching a grammar point, she provided students with activities that would enable them to practise the target structure. She added that she always aimed to create a friendly atmosphere and have “fun lessons”.

NT9 explained in her second stimulated recall interview that she understood her students’ learning styles and expectations better, and thus adapted her teaching according to them. In the last stimulated recall and the last interview, she again brought up the topic of teaching grammar and emphasised that at upper levels grammar teaching was more demanding and students often got bored. As a result, she explained that she had to teach grammar using different activities and games to increase students’ motivation. This is how she

explained her grammar teaching experience in her last stimulated recall interview:

the game had a meaning and it was good practise for them, it was useful and fun for them...at intermediate level, there are too many grammar topics that we have to cover, we introduce them to new topics almost every day, we need to take them away from that monotonous mood, and I think what I have done was effective (SRI 4)

Novice teachers who had repeat students held the view that students needed more practice in grammar because they had already been taught grammar features in their previous modules. This view was also supported and demanded by their students. NT1 explained that although she was not in favour of a teacher-centred approach, she sometimes had to adopt it. NT1 stated that she usually used games while teaching a new topic. However, she explained in the last SRI that because her students were repeating the same level, she kept the presentation stage short and gave them more mechanical exercises to practise the language feature. This was what her students wanted to do.

NT6 and NT8 also talked about their experiences with repeat students. NT8 explained during the last SRI that she also had double repeat students and that she had to explain the topic in Turkish because her students would not listen to her otherwise. Data from her last diary entry shows that she used games and pictures to increase students' motivation and understanding. Her students also seemed to be more dependent on her:

they need motivation all the time and they need the teacher all the time, I have to encourage them all the time "read, speak, let's do it together" (SRI 4)

NT6 wrote in her last diary entry that having double repeat elementary students was challenging as the students had studied the book before. Therefore, she had

to put more effort into preparing her lessons. She wrote that “learning should be fun” and therefore she used “fun activities” (Diary 4) to motivate her students. These findings suggest that the teachers developed a flexible approach to their teaching and thus developed an awareness of complexities involved in teaching various levels.

Some of the teachers (NT2, NT4, NT5, NT8) realized that at the beginning of the year their classes were teacher-centred which they were not satisfied with:

I always hear my voice... when I watch the lesson I feel that **I do the lesson on my own**, as if they didn't participate at all, they didn't talk too much but when I asked them a question they answered (NT4, SRI2)

If I were the students, I wouldn't have liked the lesson...I wouldn't have liked to see the figure always standing in front of me, and talking, **I think it was a teacher-centred lesson. I think I should have done more group work, allow the students to be more involved in the lesson, rather than me talking and talking. It annoyed me talking for one hour. Hearing my voice for one hour annoyed me. So the students must have felt the same way.** I should have done a more communicative activity (NT5, SRI2)

That day, **I was trying be the authority** but in general I am not like that...it could be because you were there and **I was afraid to lose control of the class....so during the lesson I did most of the talking** (NT8, SRI1)

Observational data showed that NT3 generally used a teacher-centred approach compared to her colleagues. The following extract shows how she taught passive voice:

I prepared a good summary for passive voice. I wrote example sentences on OHT. I started to explain it and distributed a handout to students. On the handout there were answers of the sentences.

However, data from her last diary entry indicates that she tended to use student-centred activities more than before while teaching grammar. For

example, she wrote about three of her grammar lessons where she involved students in the presentation stage. During the last interview, she stated that in her lessons she aimed to have a positive learning environment.

During the last interview, two of the teachers (NT4, NT8) commented on involving students in the teaching process. NT8 explained that she realized that students should be involved in the teaching process.

I have realized that my confidence has strengthened and I have acquired certain principles... These changes have taken place because I taught different levels. I have also realized my weaknesses and strengths. **I realised that students should be part of the lesson, be active in the classroom.** (NT8, I2)

NT2 and NT4 explained that creating a student-centred environment was difficult with lower level students:

with beginners my lessons were teacher-centred...I had to provide everything to them but with upper-levels it was more student-centred. They were doing group work activities (NT4, I2)

Sometimes it is not possible to create a student centred environment. Because for example if you are going to teach them a grammar topic, **they don't want to participate they just want to listen to the teacher** so I think I would say that this changed...it depends on the stage of the lesson, because if you are presenting a topic students don't feel secure if they are involved in it, when you teach them something and then they practise they are okay (I2)

In the first interview, NT3 and NT8 were the only teachers who mentioned that pair/group work would be an effective way to enable students use the target language. However, NT3 was later concerned about losing control of the class; therefore she avoided using pair work in her second observed lesson:

I asked them to work individually but may be I could have asked them to work in pairs, but they were very noisy that day....so I think if I had asked them to work in pairs it would have been noisier...(SRI2)

During the last interview, NT3 stated that she did not use group work often and preferred whole class discussions because all the students would have the chance to participate. This finding corroborates Phipps and Borg's (2009) study, which found that although the teacher in their study believed that group work would provide students with the opportunity to use the target language, she chose to use whole class discussion because she was afraid that group work would cause classroom management problems.

NT2, on the other hand, stated that her guess about group work at the beginning of the year turned out to be right:

My good guess was group work. It does not help students to use English, no matter how hard you try to encourage students, no matter how guided the activity is the students will use Turkish. And if I were in their shoes I would use Turkish as well (I2).

However, NT1, NT5, NT6, NT7, and NT8 stated that they used both group and pair work as they found them useful for the students to practise the target language and learn from each other.

Pair work helps them **to share their ideas and share and check their answers in pairs. Group work** helps them **to use the target language, use the grammar points freely**, so I prefer using both of them. (NT5, I2)

Both are totally student-centred...**students get to speak, they get to do the activities...they learn from each other...**The disadvantage is that they use Turkish, I tried to prevent it to a certain extent but I can't prevent it completely, which is okay. At least they get to use some English (NT6, I2)

Some of the teachers (NT2, NT6) mentioned that the textbook limited their freedom to apply certain teaching techniques. For example, NT2 stated that although she believed in contextualized teaching, she could not succeed in

applying it to her classes. She said that students' expectations and the book limited her freedom, and that she was bound to follow the book and complete the syllabus. However, towards the end of the year, NT2 stated that her confidence in handling the syllabus and materials had increased. She emphasised that as she became familiar with students, she became more flexible and she was able to adapt and select materials according to students' needs.

Similarly, NT7 and NT9 explained that as they gained more experience and got to know their students better, they were less dependent on the book. This is how the two teachers expressed themselves:

This module (second module) I prefer to use my own materials and sentences, and not the ones in the book, because I didn't like the book, 'Pathfinder'. Generally I look at the topic and I say ok this is the topic, then I begin to search materials and sources. **I feel that not sticking to the book helps me to improve myself, by researching I find new things and come up with different things. The students seem to be happy with this as well.** (NT7, SRI 2)

When I think of myself, at the beginner level (module 1) especially **I used to feel more anxious and tense and now I feel more relaxed, because I was new I didn't know the student profile, their levels, and my lessons were not so communicative at the beginning and I didn't use different activities...** I used to rely on the book more, and I used to say "oh I have to follow the programme carefully" I still follow it but I am more flexible now, I use activities that the students can also enjoy, I feel that if we follow the book all the time, the students get bored. So when I use other activities we have more communicative lessons. **I got used to the students and their needs, so my students are like my mirror I adapt myself according to their needs** (NT9, SRI 4)

The majority of the teachers (NT2, NT4, NT6, NT8, NT9) also expressed the view that students shaped their teaching. These teachers were concerned about their students' needs and expectations. They stated that their students were

exam-oriented and they wanted to focus on mechanical exercises or practising for their oral exam:

I had students who said to me “why are we doing this? Is it going to be in the exam?” their worry is not to learn English, **it’s just passing the proficiency and the prep school, so that’s why students want more mechanical exercises...they want to get ready for the exam**, and it is quite hard to change their view, you know saying that this is not about passing the exam but learning English (NT6, I2)

...because they are **exam-oriented, they talk just for the speaking exam**, this is the only way to make my students talk in the class (NT4, I2)

NT6 had imagined that she would help students use the language and learn the language for communication purposes. However, she realized that this was not her students’ ambition.

Some of the teachers (NT2, NT4, NT8, NT9) paid particular attention to how their students felt during the lessons:

I find myself searching for different techniques, and since I have been teaching at different levels so far....**I try to improve myself and adapt myself according to the students’ needs**, and I think this comes with experience and then flexibility (NT2, SRI 3)

If you give instruction all the time or if you lecture the students, they get bored and lose their motivation, and sometimes I experienced this especially during the presentation stage... so **whenever I felt that they got bored and de-motivated I used group work and pair work** (NT9, I2)

To sum up, the data shows that the novice teachers became more aware of the relationship between their beliefs and practices. For example, some of the teachers realized that their classes were teacher-centred at the beginning of the year. The teachers’ initial beliefs were solely based on the promotion of the speaking skill. However, when they started teaching they realized that meeting

students' needs and expectations influenced their teaching, and thus recognized that teaching grammar was equally important. Another factor that seemed to be contributing to teachers' development was understanding their students' needs and ways of learning.

4.7.4 Use of L1

All the teachers stated that their students preferred to use Turkish during their lessons, especially during pair and group work. Three teachers (NT1, NT3, NT4) expressed the view that using the mother-tongue while teaching would have a facilitative role in monolingual classes. NT1 and NT3 stated that there was no need to spend lots of time on trying to explain the meaning of a word as it would be wasting time. NT1 wrote in her first diary that she used various methods to explain a word to a student but the student did not understand it. As a result, she told him the Turkish meaning of the word. She brought up the same topic in her last interview and said:

Once you begin speaking in Turkish, they give up completely and start using Turkish. So as an ELT teacher, we should try and use English as much as possible, but sometimes if it is necessary like they ask for the meaning of a word and you do everything, **you try everything like miming, gestures, explanation, drawing, if these don't work then you can give the Turkish equivalent.** (NT1, I2)

NT3 also wrote in her second diary that she used English with her elementary level students. However, some of her students asked her to explain certain structures in Turkish. As a result, she wrote that since she did not have foreign students in her class, using Turkish could be more effective. At the end of the study, she explained that use of L1 was a necessity to facilitate students' learning:

I think it (**use of L1**) is **very necessary**, because when you learn a new grammar point **you need to know its translation**, because if you don't know it, how can you produce a sentence? Because you always use L1 and you think in L1, so **they should know the Turkish translation of grammatical points**. When they don't understand a topic, **the teacher should explain it in L1, but the teacher should not teach in L1, there should be a controlled use of L1; just for translation of some sentences, and when they don't understand something, or may be translation of some words** (I2)

NT4 remembered her experience as a student and how Turkish would help her:

I sometimes **use L1 to get their attention**. When I say something in Turkish I can easily get their attention. I remember this because when I was a student I was like this...when I was listening to my teacher and I was bored and when she said something in Turkish she could take my attention so that's why I sometimes do it in my classes (NT4, SRI2)

NT1 wrote in her first diary (October 2005) that if students were given enough time to get prepared for a speaking activity, they would carry out the task easily. However, she wrote in her third (15.May.2006) and fourth (14.June.2005) entries that she experienced difficulties in promoting the speaking skill. She explained that as soon as she had completed her instructions for the task, the students started talking in Turkish. She again wrote in her last diary that use of the mother-tongue was "the biggest problem in the use of pair-work and group-work" (Diary, 14-June-2006).

NT2 had the same experience, but she did not see use of L1 as a big problem and explained that use of the mother-tongue would enable students to discuss more freely:

As soon as I turn my back, they start talking in Turkish. And everybody does the same thing, and so I said alright let them do the task, even if they speak in Turkish, let them do the task. Because sometimes **I believe that Turkish gives them more security, more confidence...I think they feel more secure. Sometimes I don't get distracted when they speak Turkish while doing the task, because they are working on the task, they are talking and discussing and they can't discuss it**

in English obviously, so I just let them do it, because sometimes it is a need, you can't just do everything in English. Sometimes **it is good to give students some freedom. So I don't really pay attention to this** (I2).

At the end of the year, NT6 realised that wanting her students to use English all the time was not realistic:

not a lot of emphasis was given to speaking in the plan, speaking was only done as for the speaking exam practise...**I tried to force students to use English...** I did try to make them speak but I saw that they were not confident enough to speak....once they go out it's finished, I don't know, **it wasn't a realistic objective...**not in this school, I am not judging the school, but not in any school here, not in this environment, so I don't know...**I don't think they can really improve their speaking** (I2)

NT6 seemed to have lost hope about how to help her students to use the target language. Although she said that she was not judging the school, there is an implication in what she said that perhaps the school did not give enough emphasis to the speaking skill. As a novice teacher, she might have felt inadequate in terms of encouraging her students to use the language.

To sum up, although the teachers wanted their students to use the target language, they were not always able to do this. When they started questioning their practices, they realized that they were not always able to put their beliefs into practice.

4.7.5 Error correction

At the beginning of the year, the teachers mentioned various oral error correction techniques). However, at the end of the year two of these techniques were not mentioned (see table 4.10 below).

Table 4. 10 Comparison of oral error correction techniques at T1 and T2

Technique	T1	T2
Intonation	NT1, NT7	None
Facial Expression	NT1, NT7	None
Self-correction (with the teacher's help)	NT1, NT9	NT4, NT1
Peer Correction	NT7, NT8	NT5, NT7, NT8
Teacher Correction (Verbal)	NT3, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT8, NT9	NT2, NT7, NT8, NT9

As can be seen from the table, NT7 and NT8 still believed that peer-correction would be an effective technique whereas the other teachers preferred other techniques. NT1 and NT7 initially believed in the effectiveness of using intonation and facial expression to correct students' errors. By the end of the year, these two teachers had abandoned these beliefs. One can speculate that these teachers had realized that those techniques were indeed not as effective as they had believed.

NT1, NT2, NT3, NT6 and NT9 stated that fluency was more important than accuracy, and that they would not interrupt students while they were talking. These teachers also indicated that correcting students' mistakes while they were talking might destroy their confidence. This finding confirms previous studies (e.g. Richards et. al. 1992; Numrich, 1996) which showed that that teachers favoured implicit oral error correction. The following extracts show how teachers' ideas about error correction changed:

If they pronounce the word wrongly, I don't stop them...afterwards I would go over the reading...If they make a grammar mistake, **I will correct them instantly**...or write it on the board (NT6, I1)

I don't interrupt students when they are speaking, because it is possible to make errors when you are speaking. What I concentrated on was correcting their mistakes in writing. (NT6, I2)

For oral correction, **I can repeat the sentence for them or I just tell the beginning of the sentence and expect them to tell the correct answer** (NT9, I1)

I didn't correct them while they were speaking, because the students are already afraid of talking, afraid of speaking English in the classroom, and I thought if I correct them... they will be even more afraid...and in our speaking classes our aim is for them to talk. (NT9, I2)

The teachers also stated that they corrected their students' mistakes in writing, which was not mentioned in the first interview. This shows that teachers developed an awareness of the importance of correcting not only students' oral errors but also grammatical errors/mistakes. They all had different ways of correcting mistakes. Although teachers were not asked why they chose different ways of correcting mistakes, it is possible to hypothesize that they chose the technique that they believed was effective for their students' learning. NT3, NT5, NT6, and NT9 said that they would correct all the mistakes in students' written work. NT1, NT4, and NT7 said that they would only correct grammatical mistakes relating to what they had been taught. NT2 and NT8 said they would choose the most common mistakes in students' written work, and write them on the blackboard so that the other students would not make the same mistakes. NT8 explained how she corrected students' written work:

If we have a writing lesson, and the students have the same errors I write them on the board, **I write the students' sentences on the board and then one student comes to the board and corrects it**. I think this is really good, especially for the portfolio. (NT8, I2)

I believe **correcting students' mistakes** [in written work] **enables them to remember the correct way of things** which they will hopefully never forget. (NT8, Diary 1)

4.8 Change in beliefs and practices

This section focuses on the nature of change teachers experienced, as reported by themselves. The language they used played an important role because it reflects teachers' self-reported changes in beliefs and teaching. I also included data from other instruments that would supplement teachers' self-reported changes. The changes are summarised under six categories:

- Change in awareness/ Confirmation of pre-existing belief
- Change in behaviour
- Change in self
- Rejection of pre-existing belief
- Addition of new belief
- Pseudo change

4.8.1 Change in awareness

Change in awareness refers to the teacher's realization of what belief or knowledge s/he possesses, and how skilled s/he is in doing something. It also refers to realising that their earlier beliefs are not applicable in the context they teach (Cabaroğlu, 1999).

At the beginning of the year, NT3 believed that in order to implement effective lessons, teachers had to be prepared for their lessons. However, she later realized that being prepared was not the only necessity:

During the presentation stage I explained and explained, wrote a lot of examples and when the time came to the practice stage **I realized** that they didn't understand anything. And after that lesson I started to think that there was a mistake. And I can say that when I didn't involve them in the presentation stage and I tried to explain everything on my own, they didn't understand everything. So next year I think I will be more careful about this and I will try to involve them in the presentation stage. Because I try to give everything on my own, so may be I will try to build up on what they know' (I2)

It appears that NT3 also realized that teaching did not automatically lead to learning and she began to speculate on what she could do to improve the effectiveness of her teaching.

NT2's beliefs about learning also changed. This change occurred as a result of her realization of what students' real aim was:

I think for them to become successful learners, they should forget about the test, they should not be exam oriented. At the beginning, **I was not aware** of this I thought they were here to learn English but they are not. They just want to pass the exam. (NT2, I2)

Towards the end of the year NT2, NT8 and NT9 realized that their confidence in handling the syllabus and materials had increased. These teachers emphasised that as they became familiar with students, they became more flexible and they were able to adapt and select materials according to students' needs. The extract below illustrates their view:

I realized that planning different things and the activities I organized went well, **I have become** more creative I think, **my awareness has increased**, not to focus on the book all the time and doing different activities. Be flexible and adapt different materials to the lesson plan. (NT8, I2)

4.8.2 Change in behaviour/actions

Teachers' written reflection forms, stimulated recall interviews and my observation notes were used to trace changes in the novice teachers' teaching and behaviour in the classroom. I did not share my findings with the teachers during the data collection process. However, at the end of the study I did inform them about the changes I had observed. It is also worth mentioning that my observations were intended to be neither judgemental nor evaluative. However, it was difficult to maintain this position at times as teachers' were insistent on finding out what I thought about their lessons.

The focus of my observations were: classroom management, rapport, teacher and student attitude, use of (visual, audio) aids, interaction between teacher and students ($T \leftrightarrow Sts$), and student to student ($Sts \leftrightarrow Sts$), classroom atmosphere, students' involvement, use of activities/tasks, and teaching methodology (teacher-centred or student-centred methodology). The purpose was to gather ample data to understand and describe teachers' behaviour, and assess whether any change in their behaviour took place. Stimulated recall interviews and written reflection forms were used to support my observations. During the stimulated recall interviews, teachers were encouraged to give explanations about their teaching as well as to refer to any aspects of their teaching that they thought were important to mention. Teachers' written reflections, on the other hand, were more holistic.

Appendix 6, Table 1 brings together teachers' reflections and my notes on positive and negative aspects of each observed lesson. The highlighted

statements indicate the changes the teachers and I identified during the observations. The kinds of changes that I observed in the teachers were sometimes similar to the kinds of changes teachers observed in themselves. Experiences of NT1, NT2, NT3 and NT8 will be discussed in detail in section 4.9.

My observations of NT1, NT3 and NT6 (see Appendix 6) showed that there was little change in both their teaching style and behaviour. These three teachers stated that they favoured student-centred teaching and they all displayed very similar patterns in their teaching style throughout the year. The activities and tasks that these teachers used were managed in a very traditional style; for example, students read a text and answered the questions. Tasks were completed successfully and the teachers believed they had provided students with sufficient interaction. However, interaction between students was generally low or non-existent (see Appendix 6). These teachers were good at classroom management and guidance. However, their lessons remained largely teacher-centred throughout the year. They generally conducted their lessons in routines; for example, the teacher gives instructions for the tasks and then checks the tasks as a whole class. One distinctive characteristic of NT1 was her motherly nature and how she maintained good rapport with all her students. She wanted to make her students feel comfortable during her lessons so she believed that starting her lessons with a warm-up or discussion about the topics would interest her students. When students were engaged in doing exercises or tasks, she always monitored them.

The observations show that NT6 seemed not to have changed the way she gave instructions, her way of teaching or her behaviour towards the students. She generally involved her students in pair or group work, however the activities did not seem to serve her aim. In her last observation, she acknowledged that her students were not participating and that her instructions were not clear:

At the beginning (of the lesson) where I am showing them the story of other students, I should have involved them more, made them talk more or make someone read the story instead of me. So it should not have been only me, talking all the time... I didn't use clear instructions as to what I wanted them to do, I should have asked them to practise and then act it. (NT6, SRI4)

NT4's first two observations were marked by her teacher-centred methodology and poor instructions. However, towards the end of the year, there was a shift from a teacher-centred methodology to student-centred methodology, where they were given the opportunity to use language in a collaborative environment, and a reduction in teacher talking time. She mentioned in her earlier stimulated recall interviews that she was not happy with her instructions and this was also noted in my notes. In the last two observations, she gave shorter instructions and checked students' understanding. One striking feature of all her classrooms was the way the walls were decorated with either codes of conduct or students' writing.

All NT5's observed lessons were similar in terms of teaching style. She adopted an authoritative role; she was friendly yet maintained authority in her classes. In the second observed lesson, she displayed the characteristics of a typical traditional teacher; for example, telling students what to do and not

giving students any opportunity to have a collaborative learning environment. In her third observed lesson, although she gave the students the opportunity to work in pairs and use the language, none of the students followed her instructions. They completed the task in Turkish. She seemed to have experienced difficulties with student behaviour:

In module 3 I was in a big de-motivated atmosphere, where students wasted our time. So I didn't put as much effort as I would, I was really stressed... they would not come to class or if they came they did not listen...I stopped thinking about their learning... I didn't care if they learnt or not...I focused on completing the syllabus...just getting over it...I now think that student behaviour is very important (NT5, I2)

In the last module, her behaviour seemed to have changed positively. She explained:

I had a lot of misbehaviour in the previous module, in upper 1, in module 3. I was very strict at first and I started to become friendly and they took my goodwill, so I changed...now these students behave nicely, so I treat them the same way (SRI, 4)

In terms of student interest, only in her last observation did she manage to achieve enough level of interest in students for them to use the target language in pair and group work. However, the reason for this could have been that there were foreign students in the class, and the students had no option but to use L2.

NT7's class was initially characterised as teacher-centred. However, as time passed she involved students more in active learning. The change in NT7 became visible earlier than her colleagues. For example, after the second observation her use of the blackboard and giving clear instructions improved. Her reflections and my observations about her lessons were similar. She did

not report experiencing any difficulties with her students. This might be because this was her second year of teaching. Thus, she might have more knowledge of student behaviour.

In the first observation, NT8's classroom management was weak. She was tense and she often lost control of students. The more she tried to control students, the more they misbehaved. It was possible to observe her improvement in classroom management skill in the third observation, where she used coloured cards to form groups. Her instructions were clear and students formed groups as she instructed. NT8 did not lose hope due to the challenges she faced with her students. On the contrary, she tried to understand her students, and improved her behaviour.

NT9's first observation was devastating both for her and me. The students were not listening to the teacher and ignoring the teacher's instructions. As an observer, I felt uncomfortable. She could not manage the classroom at all. Her teaching style, use of blackboard and visual aids were all potentially effective means to learning the new grammar topic, but the students were not interested in any of these. In the following observations, the teacher was more confident and developed classroom management skills. In her last observation, she used a variety of activities and all the activities were completed successfully. She explained that the changes were due to experience and attending the Pre-ICELT course. She added that at the beginning of the year, she prepared mechanical exercises and not very communicative lessons. However, she stated that the Pre-ICELT course helped her to design communicative activities.

In terms of teacher behaviour, as discussed in the literature review section 2.3, with these novice teachers, student behaviour was a strong determinant of teacher behaviour. NT5's resentment to deal with student behaviour seemed to have affected her teaching as well as attitudes towards students. When NT5 had students who "behaved nicely", she changed her attitude too.

In relation to their rapport with students, five teachers (NT2, NT3, NT5, NT6, NT9) stated that they became stricter as a result of student misbehaviour or classroom management problems. The following extracts show why they decided to change their behaviour towards their students:

The rapport with my students was a real problematic issue for me, because I could not know how to deal with it... I became more serious, and offended. I didn't use to be like that. (NT2, I2)

At the beginning of the year, I was very nice towards the students because I wanted them to like me but this caused some problems for me because I had classroom management problems. And then towards the end of the year, I was a bit strict but still very friendly....and this time I gained their respect and friendship. (NT6, I2)

Two of the teachers, on the other hand, reported that they become less strict and friendlier towards their students:

I say if you are bored students are definitely bored. So I understand students and try to create a friendly atmosphere and have fun lessons..... I am friendlier to students than I used to be... (NT5, I2)

At the beginning of the year, I was much stricter and more disciplined towards students and classroom rules. In other words, I didn't allow them to interact at all in Turkish and I criticized them for not bringing their dictionaries and so on. However, towards the end of the year, my attitude changed as I was more confident about myself and warned them that they are adults and should be responsible of themselves. (NT8, I2).

4.8.3 Re-ordering of beliefs

Re-ordering of beliefs refers to re-organization of beliefs according to their importance.

When the teachers were given the credo which they had filled in at the beginning of the year, they were asked whether they wanted to add or change anything they had written. NT1, NT6 and NT7 re-ordered their beliefs about the characteristics of good teachers.

NT1 believed that a good teacher should have pedagogic knowledge. At the beginning of the year, she regarded time management as important. However, by the end of the year, treating students equally gained more importance.

Table 4. 11 NT1's credo at T1 and T2

Credo 1	Credo 2
Manage time effectively	Treat all students equally
Use materials effectively	Perform different roles in the classroom
Manage student behaviour	Manage time effectively
Treat all students equally	Use materials effectively
Competent in handling discipline problems	Competent in handling discipline problems
Perform different roles in the classroom; controller, assessor, tutor, organiser, participants, prompter...	Manage student behaviour

For NT6, being enthusiastic was the first characteristic of being a good teacher. This did not change by the end of the year. As can be seen from the table below, by the end of the year, NT6 regarded a good teacher in terms of personal characteristics, whereas the last could be categorised as pedagogical knowledge.

Table 4. 12 NT6's credo at T1 and T2

Credo 1	Credo 2
Enthusiastic	Enthusiastic
Energetic	Understanding
Knows how to convey knowledge	Motivating Energetic
understanding	Well-prepared
Motivating	Knows how to convey knowledge
Well-prepared	

For NT 7, a good teacher should have pedagogic knowledge, rather than personal characteristics.

Table 4. 13 NT7's credo at T1 and T2

Credo 1	Credo 2
Used English fluently and accurately	Used the materials and aids effectively
Gave clear and understandable instructions	Managed the classroom very well
Managed the classroom very well	Praised his/her students regularly
Praised his/her students regularly	Used English fluently and accurately....
Took different roles in the classroom	Used his/her language effectively
Used his/her language effectively	Used his/her voice effectively
Used his/her voice effectively	Took different roles in the classroom
Used the materials and aids effectively	Gave clear and understandable instructions

4.8.4 Rejection of pre-existing beliefs

This category refers to revising one's beliefs and experiences as a result of realizing that an earlier belief was wrong. The extract below illustrates how NT2 took issue with her pre-existing beliefs.

I said a bad teacher is someone who is not prepared at all, but actually not being prepared doesn't mean that you are a bad teacher, because sometimes you may have something in your mind, you have the idea of what you are going to do in the classroom, but you don't really implement it, or when you go into the classroom the students are not in the mood, so you change your lesson plan and you do something else. Or sometimes you may have problems or you are confused, or you are very tired and you can't get prepared, or you prepare a very nice thing to do but it doesn't work, so I no longer agree that not being prepared means you are a bad teacher. (I2)

A bad teacher creates a teacher centred lesson...Not really. Sometimes it is not possible to create a student centred environment. Because for example if you are going to teach them a grammar topic, they don't want to participate they just want to listen to the teacher so I think I would say that this would change...it depends on the stage of the lesson, because if you are presenting a topic students don't feel secure if they are involved in it, when you teach them something and then they practise they are okay. (I2)

The second teacher who had to abandon her earlier belief was NT6. As mentioned earlier, NT6 did not want to focus on teaching grammar. However, at the end of the year, she realized that grammar teaching was a foundation for learning English:

In general I still have the same ideas about teaching as I did when I first started teaching but one idea has changed and that's the fact that students need to learn grammar to learn English. **Before I always believed** that students can learn more effectively without realizing the use of rules...but **I have found out** that Turkish students are very much dependent on grammar and feel lost if they are not learning grammar' (NT6, I2)

4.8.5 Addition of new beliefs

This refers to addition of new beliefs. The teacher adds a new belief when he/she realizes that a new teaching technique or behaviour may be effective or ineffective.

In addition to re-ordering of her beliefs, NT1 also added four new beliefs to the characteristics of a good teacher. Some of these new beliefs were also recorded

in her diary entries. Below are the new additions she made regarding the characteristics of good teachers:

Praises the students when necessary and uses different types of praising
Should ignore inappropriate behaviour
Should prepare classroom rules at the beginning of the year
Should be careful while grouping the students

(Credo 2)

The extract below shows how based on her experiences with a particular student NT1 had to develop a new kind of belief. This is what she wrote in her last diary entry regarding inappropriate student behaviour:

Today I learnt that sometimes it is useful to ignore disruptive behaviour. If I try to warn that disruptive student all the time, I lose control of the whole class. Plus this is going to be a waste of time. I have one student called Burak. He always wants to be the centre of my attention...today I warned him 5-6 times then I realized that I was very tired of warning him but Burak was still performing the same disruptive behaviour. Therefore, I decided to ignore him. By warning him all the time, I am doing what he wants. He wants my attention. (Diary entry, 6-June-2006)

Based on their teaching experiences, NT1 and NT8 mentioned how setting classroom rules were important:

I think we should put some rules and insist on them otherwise late comers will always come late...**Rules should be set at the beginning of the year, in the first lesson**, but the important thing is not saying these are my rules and if you don't obey this this this will happen. I didn't say this but we should say it. We have to make them more aware of our rules and expectations. (NT1, Interview2)

I have realized that my confidence has strengthened and I have **acquired certain principles**. For example, setting the rules at the beginning and being strict at the beginning of the module, and softening up as time goes by according to the situation. These changes have taken place because **I taught different levels**. (NT8, Interview 2)

NT1 and NT8 also stated that integrating all the skills in a lesson would facilitate learning and motivate students. The following extract shows how NT1 felt about integrating the skills:

Throughout this year, I **learned** that integrating skills in one lesson is very useful...one skill cannot be performed without the other. It is impossible to speak in a conversation if you don't listen. Plus, integrating skills in our teaching will bring variety and this will increase students' motivation (13-June-2006).

The majority of the teachers (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT4, NT7, NT8, NT9) stated that the Pre-ICELT course and the observations promoted changes in their beliefs and pedagogic knowledge.

Once two teachers presented games, and I used them in my class. We **learnt** different ideas, for example if the topic was how to teach reading they presented it in different ways and I said I used to know only one, but there are other ways of teaching reading. We **learnt** different ideas and techniques (NT1, I2)

I have learnt a lot of things. The trainer gave me feedback at the end (NT8, I2)

The observations really helped me because the trainers observed us and helped us to improve our skills in lessons (NT7, I2)

4.8.6 Pseudo change

This category refers to false change in beliefs. In other words, the teacher holds the same belief but finds it inapplicable in the context. Students' expectations and contextual factors, i.e. the syllabus, overrode some of the teachers' beliefs about how to teach. This finding lends support to Phipps and Borg's (2009) study, which also found that students' expectation and contextual factors influence teachers' practices. NT2, NT4 and NT6 still believed in the effectiveness of communicative language teaching and contextualised teaching.

However, they stated that they were not able to implement their preferred way of teaching:

I still believe that contextualized teaching is the best choice, [...] for some grammar topics reading for example, **the book doesn't give you the freedom, and the students don't want to participate** (NT2, I2)

I still believe that CLT is effective... but **we have a very loaded programme** I think even if we use these activities, they can't achieve this fully...I believe that it is effective but needs time, **it's not for our students.** (NT4, I 2)

4.9 Change and non-change in four teachers

This section will present a comparison of the beliefs and experiences of four of the teachers. At the outset of the study, two had no previous teaching experience, and the other two had experience of up to one year. I felt that this comparison would potentially highlight more clearly the similarities and differences between sub-groups of teachers, i.e. the truly inexperienced and the rather more experienced. I also felt that a more detailed discussion of these four cases would clarify and deepen the understanding of what these teachers experienced, and thus present the reader with a holistic picture of what their stories mean.

Before I describe the reasons for selecting the particular two pairs' beliefs and practices, I will talk about the four participants' background, which they also share with the rest of the participants. All the novice teachers' backgrounds were similar in terms of:

- educational background: they all graduated from the same secondary school and university
- language: their L1 was Turkish and L2 was English.

- gender and age: all were female in their early 20s.
- workplace: they were working in the same institution and their teaching workload was the same.
- the training: eight teachers were attending the same course, i.e. the Pre-ICELT course.

NT7 and NT8 differed slightly from the rest of the group. Although NT8 studied in England until she was eleven, this was not regarded as a great difference in her background, because she went to the same secondary school and university as the rest of the teachers. NT7 had completed the Pre-ICELT course in her first year. As the nature of my sample was homogenous, a great deal of similarity in their initial beliefs was expected. Moreover, as eight of the novice teachers were attending the same course, a similar development in beliefs was predicted. I will now describe the criteria I used in selecting the four teachers.

The two basic criteria were (1) prior teaching experience or lack of it (2) evidence of belief development over the course of the study and (3) whether change in beliefs was accompanied by a change in teaching practices. In terms of experience, I wanted to include a pair who did not have any teaching experience, and another pair who were slightly more experienced, in the expectation that there might be differences in their beliefs. My next criterion concerned belief change. Initially, the majority of the teachers shared common beliefs about teaching and learning, and thus one would expect them to either maintain these in their first year of teaching or change them in similar ways.

However, a more in-depth examination of the data revealed that not all teachers' beliefs and teaching developed in the same way throughout the year. Thus, my selection included teachers whose beliefs underwent change and those who apparently underwent limited change by the end of the study. The table below illustrates the characteristics of the two pairs.

Table 4. 14 Characteristics of two groups

	Limited change in beliefs	Change in beliefs
No experience	NT3	NT2
1 year experience	NT1	NT8

Of all the teachers, NT2 seemed to have experienced the most radical changes in her beliefs and classroom practices. Compared to NT2, change in NT3's beliefs was limited. Her beliefs did seem to have become more articulated, but there was incongruence in her beliefs and practices. NT2 and NT3 seemed to be suitable for the selection of non-experienced pair, because NT2's beliefs and practices changed congruently, but although there was limited change in NT3's beliefs, her teaching remained almost the same throughout the year. For the second pair, that is the more experienced pair, I selected NT1, whose beliefs remained relatively unchanged, and NT8, whose beliefs underwent more change. Both of these teachers' beliefs were reflected in their teaching. The following section describes development in NT2's and NT3's beliefs and practices.

4.9.1 Development in NT2's and NT3's beliefs and practices

At the beginning of the study, NT2's and NT3's beliefs were quite similar. Table 4.15 below, which summarises these, includes three headings: teacher characteristics, aims for the year and beliefs about how English should be taught. The left-hand column represents NT2's beliefs and the right-hand column represents NT3's beliefs. The table has been organised to allow for easy comparison across the columns. As can be seen, the phrases used by the teachers are not necessarily directly comparable. Nevertheless, I attempted to match beliefs that seemed to be similar to one another (see phrases in italics).

Table 4. 15 NT2's and NT3's beliefs at T1

NT2	NT3
<p>Teacher Characteristics: <i>well-organized, enthusiastic, energetic, friendly, patient, understanding, flexible, humorous</i></p> <p>Aim: students getting their most and to pass their exam; to be remembered as someone important in facilitating learning and leading her students to success.</p>	<p>Teacher Characteristics: <i>well-prepared, fair, patient, knowledgeable, enthusiastic, willing to teach</i></p> <p>Aim: Improve her teaching, getting acquainted with the book, and improve her classroom management skills.</p>
<p>Teacher's role: Facilitator of learning, chameleon</p> <p>An effective teacher should be someone who doesn't care about his/her teaching, but someone who cares about students learning (I1)</p> <p>Metaphor: Green candle, chameleon</p> <p>Beliefs about how English should be taught: <i>Uses materials that get students' attention and ease students' understanding (Credo I)</i></p> <p><i>Create friendly, nice learning atmosphere</i> <i>Establish good rapport (II)</i></p>	<p>Teacher's role: Motivator – bring in materials, good manager, monitor during activities</p> <p>Metaphor: the sun</p> <p>Beliefs about how English should be taught: <i>Get students' attention (prepare lesson plans) (I1)</i> <i>Motivate them by bringing different materials (II)</i></p> <p><i>Establish good rapport (II)</i> <i>Positive learning environment</i></p>

<p>Know students' needs and interests (I1) I don't want them to lose their interest...so I will try to make my lessons interesting (I1) <i>Help students to get actively involved in learning and becoming better participants (Credo1)</i></p> <p><i>The teacher should give them the chance to speak (I1)</i></p> <p><i>Mechanical drills are necessary (Credo 1)</i></p> <p>Grammar and vocabulary are necessary for language competence (Credo 1) Grammar should not be taught explicitly (I1) Expose students to English (Credo 1) Group work is good but it doesn't help students to use English (Credo 1)</p> <p>Error correction should be done as a whole class (Credo 1) Integrate skills (Credo 1) Student-centred approach (I1) Organize activities according to students' needs (I1)</p>	<p><i>To motivate students...I will involve them in the lesson...I can ask them questions</i></p> <p><i>Teacher should encourage students to use English in the classroom (Credo 1)</i> <i>Facilitate language use (group and pair work), (Credo 1)</i></p> <p><i>Do lots of practice/exercises (Credo 1)</i></p> <p>Teaches the four skills, uses different teaching techniques (Credo 1)</p> <p>Self-correction, peer correction, teacher correction (I1)</p>
<p>Students' role: <i>Students are different, unique planets</i> Students should be motivated and interested in learning L2. They should like the teacher so that they like the subject</p> <p><i>Use English in the classroom.</i></p>	<p>Students' role: <i>The plants, the animals</i> Take responsibility of their learning, by reading and learning new vocabulary (I1) students should also be intrinsically motivated, I can't make them do anything (I1) <i>Practise the language in the classroom</i></p>

When the two teachers talked about teacher characteristics and teaching approaches, they both referred to pedagogical knowledge and personal

characteristics. These beliefs seem to have come from their learning experiences and probably from the education they received during their BA programme. Their emphasis in teaching was on creating a positive learning environment by establishing good rapport and facilitating language use in the classroom. As these two teachers shared a similar background, it was not that surprising that they held similar beliefs. Both teachers' beliefs reflected cognitive and affective elements of teaching and learning. However, NT2 seemed to be more concerned with affective elements involved in teaching, as she emphasised the importance of classroom atmosphere and rapport.

One major difference between the two teachers was found in their aims for the year. NT2 wanted her students to pass their exams and to be remembered by them. This reflects a feeling of emotional attachment to her students. In contrast, NT3 was concerned only with improving her teaching. Both teachers' concerns focused on their well-being, rather than on the actual teaching and learning process.

Data collected in the course of the study suggest that these two novice teachers' beliefs did not develop in the same way (see table 4.16 below). This finding is in line with previous studies (e.g. Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000). A key factor which seemed to have contributed to change in these teachers' beliefs and teaching was their experience in the classroom, particularly with their students. These teachers had new students every two months, and therefore had a series of different experiences. By the end of the study, direct comparison of data became increasingly more difficult and

grouping data was not always possible. I feel that this shows how their beliefs did not develop in the same way. The italic phrases indicate to some extent the similarities between the two teachers' beliefs.

Table 4. 16 NT2's and NT3' beliefs at T2

NT2	NT3
<p>Teacher characteristics: teachers can be impatient and strict; they might be unprepared, lack variety, and not care about students' needs. A good teacher sticks to the rules, and has good management skills</p> <p>Teacher's role: actor (SCT), mosaic, chameleon, authority (I2)</p> <p><i>The rapport with my students was a real problematic issue</i> for me, because I could not know how to survive with it. (I2)</p> <p>Sometimes it is <i>not possible to create a student centred environment</i>. Because for example if you are going to teach them a grammar topic, they don't want to participate they just want to listen to the teacher " (I2).</p>	<p>Teacher Characteristics: well-prepared, fair, patient, knowledgeable, enthusiastic, willing to teach</p> <p>Teacher's role: facilitator (Credo 2), the sun (SCT) I can only help students who are willing to learn (SCT)</p> <p><i>good relationships...</i> when I tried to do this <i>I encountered some difficulties</i> because some of the students tried to abuse (I2) one of my classes was very silent, so I didn't have any difficulty in controlling the classroom. But two of my classes were talkative, and they were talking when I was talking, so I tried to warn them.</p> <p><i>I didn't involve them in the presentation stage</i> and I tried to explain everything on my own (I2)</p> <p>Involving students in the lesson is very important. Because this year I tried to teach everything on my own, for example during the presentation stage I didn't ask the students questions. It was not effective, so involving the students in the lesson is important, so they will feel they are responsible for their learning.</p> <p>[...] in speaking activities, I</p>

<p>error correction works when it is done individually (I2). for writing then you should correct the mistakes... if it is writing and of it is a common mistake I usually do it as a whole class (I2)</p> <p>It [group work] does not help students to use English, no matter how hard you try to encourage students, no matter how guided the activity is the students will use Turkish. And if I were in their shoes I would use Turkish as well.</p> <p>I believe that Turkish gives them more security, more confidence[...] Sometimes it is good to give students some freedom. So I don't really pay attention to this. (I2)</p> <p>Exposing students to English[...], I don't think it is something you can do in the classroom, what the teacher can do is encourage students <i>to read about English, listen to the news, listen to songs</i> (I2).</p> <p>If you want students to be motivated all the time, how can you [...] [prepare] a lesson which has nothing to do with the book, but only games, how can you do it? (I2).</p> <p>I care about how they learn but not may be how they feel about it (I2)</p> <p>the environment you want to create depends on the students as well (I2).</p> <p>if I am the authority in the classroom and</p>	<p>don't correct their mistakes, I just focus on fluency rather than accuracy in speaking. When I correct their compositions, I try to correct all their mistakes, and then give them their composition back. May be next year I can put some symbols to show them their mistakes, and not make correction.</p> <p>I didn't use group work so often, but when I used it was beneficial for them, because they can learn something from each other, I use whole class activities more than pair work, because everyone can participate</p> <p>Because you always use L1 and you think in L1, so they should know the Turkish translation of grammatical points. When they don't understand a topic, the teacher should explain it in L1. but the teacher should not teach in L1, there should be a controlled use of L1; just for translation of some sentences, and when they don't understand something, or may be translation of some words.</p> <p><i>Learning all the skills, and reading a lot is important.</i></p> <p>I think you should have a plan, when you enter the classroom you can change your plan, but you should have one. So you know what to do.</p> <p>The teacher should encourage them to speak, for example the teacher can ask questions to them but the topic should be interesting, so they should know something about the topic, if they don't know anything about</p>
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<p>if I have to adapt myself to my students' needs so may be sometimes students may also have to adapt themselves to the teacher's needs. It may sound silly but this is how I feel (I2).</p> <p>They [students in the last module] were not motivated, they were not enthusiastic and in such a situation it is hard for the teacher to feel joyful about the lesson</p>	<p>the topic how can they form sentences,</p> <p>I think knowing grammar is very important, but the students should try to use the grammatical points, if they know the form they can produce sentences, but they should try to produce. May be of you translate some sentences into Turkish and use mother tongue, they can produce more sentences.</p>
<p>Students' role: Students are active and passive participants of the classroom. (SCT) Unique planets (SCT)</p>	<p>Students' role: They are not so different from the others, when I enter the classroom, I see all of them the same.(I2)</p>

At the end of the year, NT2 made changes to her credo regarding the characteristics of bad teachers. It seems that she could no longer conceive of a bad teacher. She stated that being unprepared, impatient, not caring about students' needs, being strict, not being student-centred or lack of variety in teaching were not the characteristics of a bad teacher. Giving her reasons for the changes she made, she referred to her own experience, and offered the justification that teachers can sometimes display such behaviours due to personal reasons or student behaviour. Indeed, observational data (see Appendix 6) showed that NT2 displayed a very radical change in her teaching. Her last two observed lessons, where she was teaching different level students, were very distinctive in terms of teacher and student behaviour. She seemed to adopt a stricter, less friendly attitude towards her students. During the third stimulated recall interview, she said that the students were generally "silent" and that this silence affected her teaching.

With this class I sometimes become dull, and I think it is because of the students, because I haven't felt this way before, or may be because I feel tired now? (SRI 3)

In her last observation, her teacher-talking-time increased and she became less enthusiastic about her teaching. She said that her concern was completing the given content, and not how it was delivered to students. She was not very happy with her students' behaviour as they were "not very enthusiastic. They are never enthusiastic" (SRI4). However, she was still not sure what had caused her to change:

This was an intermediate level class, and I did find it difficult to deal with them. I found it difficult to adapt myself to the students, throughout the module I couldn't do it. I liked the students, but the dialogues we had during the lessons they didn't work, may be it was because of me or may be because of them... I wasn't enthusiastic this module because I didn't get that "thing" from the students, I relate this to the students but I don't know why our dialogue communication was like that, I used to make jokes to them they don't do anything, they don't laugh or say anything, or they don't make jokes themselves (NT2, SRI4)

Both teachers realized that their beliefs could not guide their teaching and they were not able to put their beliefs into practice. This finding echoes previous studies which found that teachers' practices do not always reflect beliefs (e.g. Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Richards et. al. 2001; Flores, 2002). The way these teachers reacted to their own experiences and the impact of these experiences on their beliefs differed. NT2 abandoned her beliefs and chose to focus on student misbehaviour rather than trying out new ways to deal with the problems. As she could not find ways to deal with students, she chose to adopt an authoritarian role and cover the syllabus without giving much consideration to students' feelings. The same finding was reported by Flores (2002), who found that novice teachers start to do "what works in practice, even if they

believed in the opposite” (p.269). In the present study, NT2’s prior beliefs about student-centred teaching shifted to teacher-centred teaching, as she felt that this approach worked more effectively. The negative experiences with her students would be an example of how student misbehaviour can influence some novice teachers’ beliefs and practices negatively. Previous studies have also shown that when novice teachers encounter problems, they lose hope (Dellar, 1990; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Warford and Reeves, 2003). NT3, who also had similar experiences, chose to ignore student misbehaviour and did not try to put her beliefs in practice. Instead, she reflected on what she could do in the following year. As both teachers were unable to deal with student misbehaviour, this shows that their past experiences as students, their beliefs or the knowledge they acquired in their teacher education programme were insufficient in supporting them.

Another important difference between these two teachers is how they viewed students. For NT2, the students were unique, whereas for NT3 they were all the same. Based on the analysis of teachers’ experiences, it seems possible that this difference in their beliefs lie in differences in individual experiences. As a result, these experiences led them to teach in ways contrary to their beliefs. The difference also suggests how these two teachers made sense of teaching. Perhaps for NT2 teaching required individual attention, whereas for NT3 all students could learn in the same way.

4.9.2 Development in NT1's and NT8's beliefs and practices

As NT1 and NT8 already had some experience in teaching, I expected them to hold different beliefs from the rest of the teachers. However, their beliefs in relation to teacher characteristics, roles and teaching approaches did not differ greatly, although they seemed to be more articulate in talking about their beliefs than those who had had no teaching experience. For example, in terms of maintaining students' interest both NT1 and NT8 talked about ways to do this (see table 4.17 below), whereas the rest of the inexperienced teachers only stated that motivating or involving students in lessons was important. Thus, the more experienced teachers seemed to be more explicit about their beliefs. This was not a surprising finding as these teachers already had some teaching experience.

Table 4. 17 NT1's and NT8's beliefs at T1

NT1	NT8
<p>Teacher Characteristics: Knowledgeable, competent, (Credo 1), friendly (I1), <i>know students' background</i></p> <p>Purpose: I will try to help my students in the best possible way, because they are pre-intermediate students...and in order to pass the exam, I will try to help them as much as I can</p>	<p>Teacher Characteristics: Flexible, <i>know students' background</i>, understand students' needs and learning styles.</p> <p>Purpose: teaching students to be able to speak more fluently, their grammar is good but they cant speak...</p>
<p>Teacher's role: Controller, assessor, tutor, organiser, prompter, resource (Credo 1), mother, father, sister</p> <p><i>Good rapport with students facilitates learning</i> if students have a problem they can lose their motivation, so we can try and solve the problem together...we should have a friendly classroom.</p>	<p>Teacher's role: flower</p> <p><i>Friendly atmosphere facilitates learning</i></p>

<p>the teacher must have perfect knowledge of his/her job... just to be a knowledgeable teacher is not enough, so there are some other personal characteristics like being friendly</p> <p><i>Praising enables teachers to manage students' behaviour.</i></p> <p><i>Students should be encouraged to practise and use English in the classroom (I1).</i></p> <p><i>Group work will give the students the opportunity to use any language feature (Credo 1)</i></p> <p>Oral errors should not be corrected directly; signalling might be helpful. Self-correction; facial expression and use of intonation for correction Correcting errors especially while speaking will discourage them. (Credo 1)</p> <p><i>Keep students interested in the lesson; bring different materials to the classroom.</i></p> <p>Students can use some Turkish (I1)</p> <p>Teacher should teach English in different contexts Teacher should create real life situations to encourage students to use English.</p>	<p>an effective teacher is someone who thinks about his students more than him/herself, who can adopt, who is flexible, someone who understands the students' psychology their needs, their learning styles</p> <p><i>Rewarding and motivating problematic students is better than punishing (Credo 1)</i></p> <p><i>Pair work will give students a chance to practise any language feature (Credo 1)</i></p> <p>Peer correction and teacher correction Correcting errors will improve accuracy</p> <p><i>Playing games encourages students' interest</i></p> <p>In some cases, translating or using the mother tongue is necessary (Credo 1)</p> <p>Vocabulary should be taught in a context (Credo 1)</p>
<p>Students' role in learning: Students should attend the class regularly. Motivation and willingness in learning are important. Students should develop their own learning techniques.</p>	<p>Students' role in learning: Students should be hard-working to succeed in learning the language</p>

Like NT2 and NT3, NT1's and NT8's aims for the year were different (see table 4.18 below). This difference was linked to what they saw their strengths as teachers. NT1 saw her strengths as having good knowledge of the subject matter, and being friendly. Thus, since she believed that she had the necessary knowledge of the subject matter, she believed that she could help students pass the exam. NT8, on the other hand, regarded her strength as having a good accent, and thus she believed that she could help students to speak fluently. Based on these findings, it is possible to suggest that teachers' beliefs about their strengths intertwined with their beliefs about how they could help students' learning.

Another difference between the two teachers was how they saw their roles as teachers. NT1 saw her role as a mother, father or sister. This metaphor implies that her role was to nurture and further students' learning. Additionally, the metaphor implies protection over students at cognitive level (learning the subject matter) and affective level (that their emotional needs are met). This metaphor was used by other EFL teachers in the studies of de Guerrero and Villamil (2002), and Seferoglu et. al. (2009). NT8 did not have clear ideas about teaching. As she said, she was a young flower who was trying to grow. This was indeed a surprising metaphor as she had had one year of teaching before she started teaching at EMUSFL. It seems that her first year experience did not help her much to develop beliefs about teaching and learning. At the end of the year, she seemed to have developed more ideas about what teaching meant to her, and what her role was as a teacher.

Table 4.18 below illustrates both teachers' beliefs at the end of the year. A comparison of the two tables shows that with experience these teachers were more able to illustrate their beliefs in relation to their classroom practices. For example, NT1 felt more professional and NT8 felt more confident about teaching because of her experience in the classroom. The data from observations show that NT1's teaching remained unchanged, whereas there was change in NT8's teaching (see Appendix 6). NT1's beliefs were reflected in her teaching. For example, at the beginning of each class she greeted the students in a friendly manner and asked them how they were, and later during the lesson she would make jokes. This behaviour shows how important she considered classroom atmosphere was. NT1 was different from the rest of the teachers in that she was extremely concerned with the classroom atmosphere.

Table 4. 18 NT1's and NT8's beliefs at T2

NT1	NT8
<p>Teacher Characteristics: I still hold the same beliefs. Having a good personality and having some special skills are important in teaching.</p>	<p>Teacher Characteristics: the teacher should be a motivator, should encourage, should be organized, should be able to predict, should be able to see things before they take place,</p>
<p>Teachers' role:</p> <p>I tried to keep a balance between love and respect... I want my students to love me and respect me at the same time. If you are too friendly, you might lose control over your students. This is a fact that losing control will affect your teaching negatively. On the other hand, if you are too strict towards your students and you wait for respect then you will lose students' love and this will again affect your teaching and their learning. (I2)</p> <p>[repeat students]their motivation is very low. I try to do different things so that</p>	<p>Teachers' role:</p> <p>At the beginning of the year, I was much stricter and more disciplined towards students and classroom rules... towards the end of the year, my attitude changed as I was more confident about myself and warned them that they are adults and should be responsible [for] themselves. I learnt how to deal with them...If you approach them positively, they listen to you. (I2)</p> <p>My greatest challenge was teaching de-motivated students</p>

<p>they don't get bored (SRI4)</p> <p>I had students behaving in a strange way. I tried to do my best to deal with that particular problem but I am not sure if I was successful (I2).</p> <p>Sometimes there are students who constantly disturb you, like asking constant questions or just misbehaving, you should ignore them (SRI4)</p> <p><i>I feel myself more experienced because I learnt a lot from my colleagues even from my students... The more experience you have, the more professional you will be.</i></p> <p>as an ELT teacher, <i>we should try and use English as much as possible</i>, but sometimes if it is necessary [you can use Turkish]... Once you start using Turkish, you lose the control (I2)</p> <p>[During pair and group work)they learn from each other, and in a language</p>	<p>who repeated the same level 2 or 3 times, and so they didn't want to come to class. they need motivation all the time and they need the teacher all the time, I have to encourage them all the time (SRI4)</p> <p>I can just go to the classroom and sit there and do a boring lesson, but I don't want to do that, I want to motivate them. I mean what can I do? What can you do when you have such unmotivated students? (SRI4)</p> <p>Another challenge was students not doing their assignments. As a solution, I awarded those students who did their homework and any student who didn't do it would be written an hour absent.</p> <p>students have different learning styles. Because they come from different areas, so they have different learning styles. That was difficult to adapt.</p> <p><i>I believe that each day you experience something different while teaching, especially in your early years. ..I have realized that my confidence has strengthened and I have acquired certain principles.</i></p> <p><i>we always have to use English, because when we start speaking Turkish it never ends, you just continue unconsciously, and you have to stop somewhere, don't you? You can use Turkish in grammar presentations, but first you have to explain it in English, Because once they feel that you can use Turkish, they say "ok the teacher knows Turkish and she will explain it in Turkish, and they won't try (SRI4).</i></p> <p>Group work is good... you have to give each student an aim, a</p>
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<p>classroom cooperation and interaction are very important, and sometimes the students may be shy to interact with the teacher, and they feel more relaxed with their friends... If you have a large classroom, and if you are too flexible, you can lose the control of the class but in small classes this won't be a problem</p> <p>...As soon as I finished giving instructions [for the group work activity]...<i>they started to use Turkish.</i> (Diary 4)</p> <p>In group and pair work, teacher's role is very important because students tend to use Turkish... so when they are in group the teacher should control or monitor them carefully, we should go near them, walk around and listen to them and if they use Turkish we should encourage them to use English.</p> <p>I tried to do my lessons as communicative as possible, I tried to help them use certain phrases, like when they are in a bank or at a café, in a shopping centre, so it wasn't only helping the students pass the exam. <i>I tried to help them use English in real life situations, not only the English they will need for the exam.</i></p> <p>Self-correction with the help of the teacher</p> <p>Give suggestive praise to the student who is behaving appropriately (Diary 2)</p>	<p>goal during the activity... Pair work, I use it quite often actually, because students combine their knowledge they check together, it's more encouraging as well... In pair work, it is easier for them to speak English, to try to do it, to attempt to speak it. But <i>in group work they generally use Turkish.</i></p> <p>If the students are very low level... How can I expect them to speak in English if they don't know it? I do warn them all the time and when I go next to them they switch to English and as soon as I move away they start talking in Turkish. This is one problem that we all experience.</p> <p>I tried my best to achieve [my aim]...<i>I focused on speaking a lot, language learning is not just writing and grammar but speaking is very important I think.</i></p> <p>Teacher correction and peer-correction</p> <p>I realized that planning different things and the activities I organized went well, I have become more creative I think, my awareness has increased, not to focus on the book all the time and doing different activities. Be flexible and adapt different materials to the lesson plan. My relationship with students also got better. I understand them better.</p>
<p>Students' role: lost people</p>	<p>Students' role: flowers</p>

Comparing NT8's classes with NT1's showed that NT8's first two classes did not have the atmosphere NT1 created. However, towards the end of the year, she also managed to create a friendly atmosphere, where she made an effort to involve the students in the lesson. This difference between the two teachers might have resulted from their self-efficacy beliefs and confidence in teaching. NT8 might have lacked the confidence which NT1 had.

The data showed that change in NT1's beliefs was limited, and NT8's beliefs seemed to have been strengthened and structured. NT1 acknowledged that the majority of her beliefs remained the same. Observational data suggested that there was, to a great extent, consistency between her beliefs and teaching. Thus, little change in NT1's beliefs might have resulted from the fact that she realized that when she applied her beliefs in teaching, there was no clash. As for NT8, she experienced change both in her beliefs and classroom practices. She herself stated that she felt an increase in her confidence in terms of lesson planning and building relationships with her students. She realized that she was much stricter at the beginning of the year, and changed towards the end of the year. In relation to change in her beliefs, she began to believe that group work would be effective, as long as students were given responsibilities. She also became stricter with the use of L1 and emphasised that the teacher should always use English.

Previous studies (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Richards, Gallo, and Renandya, 2001) have found that change in beliefs does not always lead to

change in practice. However, in this study change in NT8's beliefs and practices was observed.

4.9.3 Comparison between the two groups

In the previous two sections of this chapter, I discussed the development of two groups of novice teachers' beliefs and practices. This section presents a comparison of the four teachers' beliefs and practices, drawing attention to reasons for change and non-change.

As discussed in the previous sections, the beliefs of NT1 (the more experienced teacher) and NT3 (non-experienced teacher) did not change dramatically throughout the year, whereas NT2's and NT8's beliefs did change to some extent. However, the findings suggest that the four teachers and the remaining five teachers developed a greater understanding and awareness of the complex relationship between their beliefs and practices. This is in line with previous studies (e.g. Abdulllah-Sani, 2000; Flores, 2002; Phipps and Borg, 2009). This finding thus indicates that the early years of teaching is still a process of learning about teaching and building up confidence; thus, change in teachers' beliefs is still likely to occur in the following years.

All the four teachers were concerned with their students' affective and cognitive needs. Indeed, the rest of the group was also concerned with their students' expectations, interest and motivation. However, NT2 seemed to be the only one who was greatly disheartened when her students lost motivation or misbehaved. Although NT1, NT3 and NT8 faced similar problems, they did

not seem to be as much affected as NT1. The feeling of not being able to relate to students, as she had idealised at the beginning of the year, resulted in dissatisfaction and change in her beliefs and teaching. As for NT8, change was stimulated to a large extent by her increased awareness of her classroom practices. Thus, her exploration of seeking new alternatives led to positive outcomes which gave her confidence in experimenting new practices. NT3, on the other hand, lacked this confidence and did not want to experiment any new practices in her first year of teaching.

This leads to the further question of why change took place in some teachers and apparently not in others. There are a number of possible reasons for change and non-change or limited change in beliefs (see, for example, Freeman, 1989; Guskey, 2002):

1. Non-change or limited change in beliefs is a result of satisfaction with one's beliefs and teaching: As discussed in Ch.2, voluntary change in beliefs is likely to occur when the teacher realizes that her beliefs do not benefit learning. In the case of NT1, NT6, NT7 little change in their beliefs was found. This might be due to the fact that their beliefs were already well-formed and they were able to implement them successfully in their classes. Thus, their existing beliefs were strengthened and confirmed during the year.
2. Non-change or limited change in beliefs is accepting that one's beliefs are effective: The teacher strongly believes that her beliefs are effective, even though she may not always be able to implement them in her current teaching. This describes NT3 and NT5 whose beliefs and

teaching remained relatively stable throughout the year. They seemed to be unwilling to change them even though they did not prove to be effective. This unwillingness suggests that they might not have developed the confidence to take risks and thus avoided to experiment new practices in their first year.

3. Change in beliefs occurs when the teacher becomes aware of her weaknesses and seeks alternatives to replace her beliefs and practices: This can occur as a result of dissatisfaction with teaching and inability to apply beliefs in teaching. This could apply to NT2's case. When NT2 implemented her beliefs in teaching, she did not get the appreciation she expected from her students. She also faced many challenges which she could not cope with. These challenges were related to her emotions and affective beliefs. As her affective beliefs, to a great extent, guided her teaching, her cognitive beliefs seemed to have been suppressed. As a result, she changed the majority of her beliefs which she held at the beginning of the year. This leads me to question whether her beliefs would change again in the following year if she had better classes.
4. Change in beliefs occurs as a result of becoming aware of one's skills and beliefs: This echoes Freeman's (1989) definition of change; that is, change does not always "mean doing something differently; it can mean a change in awareness" (p.38). Richards et. al. (2001) also found that belief change may occur as confirmation of earlier beliefs. This applies particularly to NT2, NT4, NT8 and NT9 who explained that as they gained more experience in teaching, their beliefs and understanding of what teaching required seemed to have been developed.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This final chapter presents a discussion of the findings and reflections on the use of the research instruments. Claims are then made for the originality of the work and limitations of the study are acknowledged. The chapter ends with implications for teacher education and suggestions for future research.

5.1 Discussion of the findings

The previous chapter presented the findings of the study. This section discusses the findings in relation to the research questions and previous work in the field of TEFL and mainstream education literature.

Research Question 1: What beliefs do novice teachers hold about teaching and learning English prior to their first teaching experience? Do the truly inexperienced teachers' beliefs differ from those of the slightly more experienced teachers?

As discussed in Chapter 2, beliefs are often formed from previous learning experience and previous teachers. Findings from previous studies in the field of TEFL (e.g. Johnson, 1994; Bailey et al. 1996; Numrich, 1996; Woods, 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Farrell, 2006b) and in the field of general education (e.g. Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Simmons et.al., 1999; Flores, 2002; Tsui, 2003; Brown 2005) affirmed that images of previous learning experiences contribute to the formation of beliefs about teaching and learning and how teachers see their roles in the classroom. Moreover, it is suggested that the beliefs teachers hold about teaching and

learning influence how they approach teaching. Studies have also found that good teachers were linked to their success in displaying effective pedagogic skills as well as to their personal characteristics (e.g. Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Bailey et. al. 1996; Woods, 1996; Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Flores, 2002). Good teachers were taken as role models and bad teachers as the kind of teachers they did not want to be. For example, good teachers were generally described as those who had good teaching skills, such as having creative abilities, good classroom management, using interesting activities, adopting student-centred approaches, encouraging students to take active roles in the classroom. Personal characteristics of teachers are considered equally important. Teachers who are tolerant, understanding, fair and friendly are generally admired and remembered by their students.

This study also found that previous learning experience was clearly influential on the formation of these novices' initial beliefs. The novice teachers made reference to their previous teachers' personal characteristics and teaching role while explaining their learning experiences. It was not only their English teachers who were influential, but also other subject teachers were found to have an effect on how they viewed their roles as teachers and how they wanted to teach. In relation to teaching and learning, the importance of promoting the speaking skill in the classes was a commonly held belief among all the teachers. As students would not have much opportunity to practise English outside their classes, they believed that use of communicative activities would be beneficial. Additionally, a student-centred teaching approach was favoured among the teachers, who felt that teacher-dominated classes would not facilitate learning. This finding was corroborated by the teachers' use of

metaphors to describe their roles as the majority saw their roles as guide. Moreover, teachers' personal characteristics, such as being understanding, patient, and friendly were thought to be important in teaching and learning. These teachers wanted to build a close rapport with their students, and the majority of them stated that they wanted to be friendly with their students because their students were adults and did not have to be treated as children. Thus, they were willing to build close relationships with their students as they expected fewer disciplinary problems. This finding contrasts with those of Abdullah-Sani (2000) and Flores (2002), who found that avoiding friendliness and closeness toward their secondary school aged students would increase the likelihood of having a better classroom management.

Intrinsic motivation and willingness on the part of learners were regarded by the novice teachers as necessary in learning English. This finding was in agreement with that of Tercanlıoğlu (2005), but may be a little naive, since motivation is explained as an “antecedent of action rather than achievement” (Dörnyei, 2001:198). In other words, being motivated does not always mean that the student will be successful. Other factors like aptitude, learning opportunities and the quality of instruction are also related to success.

As discussed in Chapter 2, teachers' roles or teaching role is defined as teachers' performance during a lesson (Hedge, 2000). The novices seem to have felt that their role in students' success was important. This was evidenced when the teachers were asked about their goals in their first year of teaching. The majority of the teachers wanted their students to pass their level exam or to be able to speak English. This finding may be explained by the fact that their

students' success testified to their success in teaching. Among the nine teachers, two (NT2, NT4) teachers were particularly concerned about how they would be remembered by their students. For example, NR4 was worried that she might not fulfil her duty as a teacher, but was ambitious about being remembered as a good teacher. In general, the novice teachers emphasised the importance of the teacher's role in providing a relaxing and friendly classroom atmosphere. Analysis of the data showed that the truly experienced teachers' beliefs did not differ from those of the slightly more experienced teachers.

Research Question 2: What beliefs do novice teachers hold at the end of their first academic year?

In this section, novice teachers' emerging beliefs will be presented. Change in teachers' beliefs and practices will be dealt in more detail in Research Question 4 below. Analysis of the stimulated recall interviews, diaries, the last interview, the credos and the metaphor elicitation task revealed that at the outset change in teachers' beliefs, with the exception of NT2, was limited. However, significant changes were found in the structure of teachers' beliefs. This finding was in line with previous studies who also found change in the structure of teachers' beliefs (e.g. Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Richards et al., 2001; Borg, 2005).

In relation to motivation, the findings indicate that more teachers felt that students were motivated to pass the exam rather than to learn the language. The novice teachers were unhappy about this kind of motivation; however, realistically speaking, these students were at EMUSFL because they could not pass the proficiency exam, and thus they could not go to their departments to

do their degrees. Therefore, it is normal that these students' focus should have been on passing the exam, rather than learning the language. The novice teachers in this study also emphasised that learning should be fun, a finding reported by Erdoğan (2005) and Borg (2002), and also students needed to be motivated to learn the language. They all explained that in order to have fun lessons, students had to take active role in lessons. However, evidence from the stimulated recall interviews and the last interview shows that repeat students were unwilling to take part in classroom activities, and often had no motivation to learn.

Examination of these novice teachers' metaphors of themselves as teachers at the end of the year revealed that the majority viewed their roles as nurturers (see section 4.7.2) and students as those who needed to be helped in their learning process. This finding contradicted the findings of Saban, Kocbeker and Saban (2007) who found that the majority of their prospective Turkish teachers saw their roles as knowledge provider or moulder, and thus students as passive recipients of knowledge. In contrast to Mann's (2008) participants, who were concerned with control and described their roles as 'a custodial officer', 'manager or controller', and 'policeman', the novice teachers in my study were found to be more concerned with positive affective relationships with their students. The difference in the findings might be due to student age difference as the students in Mann's study were secondary school students. However, while reviewing the literature I did not find any study that investigated first year EFL teachers' metaphors and thus I looked for contexts that were similar to mine.

This study also found that teachers may see themselves as adopting more than one role as a teacher and this is reflected in the fact that three teachers (NT1, NT5, NT8) used more than one metaphor to describe their roles. For example, NT5 described her role using two contradictory metaphors: water and guide. Additionally, she described a teacher's role as a guide and knowledge machine. The metaphor "knowledge machine" suggests a teacher who dominates classrooms, whereas "guide" suggests a teacher who facilitates learning. This clash of metaphors suggests that the teacher is not quite certain about her role in the classroom. NT8, on the other hand, described her role as an explorer, which indicates that she gave importance to professional development. Interestingly, NT8 also used the metaphors "guide" and "water" to describe her role; which would again indicate that her role in teaching was supplying a necessary resource as well as giving assistance to students in their learning. The metaphors "friend, counsellor, family member" used by NT1 and NT8 imply that their duty was not only to teach but also help students in their daily lives. NT1 offered more than one metaphor (mother, father, sister, brother, psychologist) to describe her role and these seem to reflect her role in teaching. For her, having comfortable relationships with her students was crucial and she was successful in relating to the class as a whole.

In the first interview, grammar teaching or the importance of grammar was mentioned only by NT2. By the end of the study, the majority of the teachers talked about teaching grammar (see 4.7.3). Grammar teaching is an integral part of language teaching which cannot be ignored. One reason why these novices did not mention it during the first interview could be that their focus was on the speaking skill, which their education programme and the school

puts emphasis on. Thus, teachers might have stayed under the influence of these factors and not have realized the importance of grammar until they started teaching. They may also have been influenced by their students' concerns to work on grammar as preparation for their exam. The majority of the teachers favoured presenting grammar in context while their students preferred to be presented the grammar rules explicitly. This finding confirms previous studies which found a mismatch between teachers' preference of inductive teaching and students' expectations of being taught deductively (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Phipps and Borg, 2009)

The majority of the teachers stated that they used group and pair work in their classes. The use of group and pair work was believed to be effective as the students would have the chance to use the target language. However, all the teachers stated that students used Turkish during such activities. These teachers also explained that it was impossible to stop students from using their mother-tongue. This finding corroborates previous research which has highlighted the fact that that students preferred to use their mother-tongue in pair and group work (Dellar, 1990; M.Borg, 2008). Like the novice teachers in Abdullah-Sani's (2000) study, the majority (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT4, NT6) of the novice teachers in my study felt that using the mother-tongue during such activities might be beneficial as the students could discuss their opinions freely. As far as group work is concerned, NT3 was the only teacher who indicated in her second interview that she was concerned about losing control and instead preferred to have whole class discussion. Data from the observations also show that she held whole class discussions at the beginning of her lessons. These

discussions were teacher-controlled and there was actually no interaction between the students.

Teachers (NT2, NT4, NT5, NT8, NT9) explained that as time passed they got to know their students better and thus they were better able to predict their students' needs and expectations. This finding was also reported in Carre's (1993) study of first year teachers. As a result, they were better able to adapt to students' learning styles and needs. They stated that this experience also taught them how to be flexible, confident, and creative in terms of adapting, planning and designing materials.

As for error correction, most of the teachers (NT1, NT2, NT3, NT6, NT9) explained that they would not correct their students while they were speaking. They believed that fluency was more important than accuracy. However, they expressed their belief in the effectiveness of correcting written mistakes, which had not been mentioned at the beginning of the year. For example, NT8 explained that students could learn from their mistakes, which is consistent with Abdullah-Sani's (2000) finding.

In contrast to the studies of Abdullah-Sani (2000) and Farrell (2003), which found that teachers felt isolated from their colleagues, no evidence of isolation from colleagues was detected in this study. This is perhaps attributable to contextual factors. The teachers were all in the same institution and a fairly large group to be noticeable. Thus, as the novice teachers mentioned that they felt welcomed and supported, collegiality within the institution was fostered. Indeed, NT1 and NT3 mentioned during the final interview that their colleagues were helpful.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between novice teachers' beliefs and their practices?

The literature supports the view that teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, their teaching role, students' role and how they define their self is influential on their teaching practices. In other words, their beliefs are linked not only to how they perceive teaching and learning but also how they teach. As discussed in Chapter 2, Clark and Peterson (1985) highlight the close relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices (see pp 72-82 for further discussion). Similarly, Richardson (1996) states that beliefs and actions are interactive. Previous studies have found significant influence of beliefs on teachers' practices and reported on the close relationship between the two. For example, the teacher in Farrell's (2006a) study did not abandon his beliefs, even though they were not applicable in his teaching context, and tried to find a balance between his beliefs and the institution's expectations. There are also studies that found that beliefs may not always be reflected in teachers' classroom practices (see, for example, Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Abdullah- Sani, 2000; Andrews, 2003; Farrell, 2003; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 2003; Feryok, 2008; Phipps and Borg, 2009) because, for example, teachers' beliefs may clash with the institution's expectations. This study also found that certain constraints such as student expectation, the influence of the proficiency exam which was going to be held at the end of the year, and the syllabus prevented these teachers from putting their beliefs into practice.

Data from my study also provided evidence that novice teachers' beliefs may not always be reflected in their practices. The teachers explained that their teaching was constrained due to syllabus, students' expectations and exam-pressure. As stated in Research Question 2, at the beginning of the study all the novice teachers indicated that they favoured student-centred classes, where student involvement was high. However, observational data (see Appendix 6) revealed that, especially during the first two observations, the majority of teachers' TTT, as reported by themselves, was high, which implies that STT was limited. Using group and pair work were conceptualised as student-centred and desired by the teachers. However, the teachers were dissatisfied with their experiences of these two alternative ways of organising student-student interaction as students tended to use their mother-tongue (a finding also reported by Dellar (1990), Abdullah-Sani (2000) and Erdogan's (2005)), and thus this form of classroom management did not serve their aim which was to increase student talking time in English. According to the teachers, this was due to students' refusal to use the target language; they did not relate it to their own teaching style or lack of know-how. As a result, they revised their beliefs. By the end of the year, they held the view that the use of L1 during group or pair work was acceptable because at the end of the task students would present their conclusions in the target language. Thus, teachers' practices led them change their beliefs.

Towards the end of the year, there was evidence of an increase in STT in the classes of some of the teachers (e.g. NT4, NT5, NT8, NT9). This may well have been a consequence of their growing awareness of the limited

opportunities they were providing for STT. Observational data shows that they used more speaking activities in order to encourage students to use the target language. Thus, it is possible to argue that once teachers realized the incongruence and gap between their beliefs and practices, they attempted to align their beliefs more closely with their practices.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, lack of student interest and motivation led teachers of repeat classes (NT1, NT6, NT8) to conduct teacher-directed lessons which was contrary to their initial beliefs. Teachers did mention that they attempted to change the situation by trying new techniques to make their teaching more interesting and students more motivated, but they felt they were unable to succeed.

Previous research (e.g. Stokes, 1998; Saban, 2004; Farrell, 2006b; Mann, 2008) suggests that examination of teachers' metaphors may provide insights about teachers' beliefs and their teaching. Analysis of the metaphors of the teachers in this study indicated that the metaphors used by NT1, NT2, NT3, NT5 and NT7 to describe themselves and their classrooms were reflected in their teaching style. For example, NT1 described her role as a "mother, father, sister and a friend", and her classes as "living rooms". Data from the observations and interviews show her close relationship with her students, and that she was enthusiastic about guiding and helping her students. However, as discussed in Research Question 2, in line with her description for how students could succeed, she seemed to favour teacher-centred classes. Although she believed

in the importance of student-centred classes, data from her observations reveal that she did not put her beliefs into action.

NT2, on the other hand, described her role as a “chameleon” or “actress”. Her metaphors seemed to match her actions in her classes. As explained earlier, she seemed to be enthusiastic at the beginning of the year. However, after the second module, her attitude towards her students became stricter and there was a change in her teaching style, i.e. she adopted traditional methods of teaching. Her use of metaphor to describe her classrooms as “performance areas” and the teacher as the “main character” carried the connotation of a place where the teacher dominates and interaction between students and the teacher is low.

Analysis of the metaphors revealed that teachers’ roles were generally reflected in their practices. This indicates that these teachers were clear about their roles as teachers. However, teachers were not always able to put their beliefs into practices, which shows the dilemmas teachers may encounter in their first year of teaching. They entered the teaching profession holding idealistic beliefs about teaching and learning. However, once they were in the real classroom they realised that their idealistic views were not applicable in their classes. Thus, by the end of the year the majority became more realistic (see, for example, NT6’s quotation on p. 208). Based on the findings, it is possible to argue that change in beliefs is bi-directional; that is, beliefs can change as a result of awareness resulting from positive but also, potentially, negative experiences/practices; or teachers’ practices can change as a result of awareness in beliefs. For example, NT1 and NT7 realized that implicit error

correction techniques (i.e. intonation and facial expression techniques) were not useful approaches to correcting errors. At the end of the study, they both believed that explicit error correction techniques would work better in their classes.

Research Question 4: Is there any change in novice teachers' beliefs in their first year of teaching? Where there is evidence of change, what is the nature of this change? Do the beliefs of the truly inexperienced teachers' and the slightly more experienced teachers change in the same way?

As discussed in Chapter 2, change is regarded as a slow process (Freeman, 1989; Tillema, 2000; Guskey, 2002; Flores, 2005). Studies have generally focused on the impact of teacher training programmes and courses on teachers' beliefs (e.g. Guskey, 2000; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Tillema, 2000; Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001; Borg, 2002, Hobbs, 2007; Mattheoudakis, 2007). Some of these studies signal changes in beliefs, while others argue that beliefs are resistant to change. Those that support change in beliefs (e.g. Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007) claim that change occurs when teachers realize that a belief proves to be wrong or when they realize that a new method would work better in their classes. Where change was not found, the blame was put on the teacher education programme (Tillema, 2000; Borg, 2002; Hobbs, 2007) emphasising that either the duration or the input was insufficient.

This study found that between the beginning and end of the year, there seems to be little change in novice teachers' beliefs and on the whole this change was

not radical. Apart from NT2, the novice teachers' beliefs did not seem to change greatly. However, as mentioned earlier, there was change in the structure of their beliefs. There are several explanations for this result. Firstly, as novice teachers were experiencing actual teaching for the first time (except for NT1 and NT8, but they did not seem to differ noticeably from the rest of their colleagues), they were still in the process of making connections with the theoretical information they acquired during their degree programme and the Pre-ICELT, their beliefs and experiences in the classroom. Secondly, this year might have been regarded as a trial-and-error year or "exploration" period (Tsui, 2003), during which they were testing the validity of their beliefs. Thirdly, some of them experienced challenges (e.g. students coming to class late, students not wanting to participate in the lesson) which they did not anticipate, and they might have been more focused on dealing with those challenges than focusing on teaching. Fourthly, there was lack of stability in the classes they were teaching because their classes changed every two modules. This change may have provoked uncertainty concerning what was 'normal'; thus, the novices did not have enough time to develop relationships with classes and establish what would work best with them. Lastly, the data suggest that teachers' beliefs, experiences and the way they described their experiences are idiosyncratic. For example, NT1 and NT3 chose to ignore misbehaviour and continue with their teaching, whereas NT2 was highly distracted by such behaviour. To sum up, there was neither stability nor great change in these novice teachers' beliefs and there may have been a number of interacting reasons for this.

The majority of the teachers retained their beliefs about the characteristics of good teachers. They also still believed that engaging students in communicative activities was crucial. More emphasis was given to teaching grammar by the end of the year because the novice teachers appear to have responded to their students' needs. The teachers did not put much emphasis on grammar teaching at the beginning of the study. One reason for this could be that teaching grammar is linked to being a traditional teacher. Additionally, they might have rejected this idea because their learning experience was based on grammar teaching and lacked the practice of the speaking skill. However, students' continuous demand to practise grammatical structures made teachers realize the importance of grammar teaching. Although there was partial change in their practices, they still regarded the speaking skill as more necessary. This is in line with Borg's (2003) assertion that "behavioural change does not imply cognitive change, and the latter ... does not guarantee changes in behaviour either" (p.91). NT2 was the only exception in this study as both her beliefs and practices seemed to have undergone change first. However, it is difficult to claim whether she will hold on to her new beliefs as she is still in the process of making sense of what teaching means to her. Tsui (2003) refers to the first three years of teaching as the 'exploration' period during which novice teachers "negotiate their roles and self-images as teachers" (p. 265). This study also claims that the first years of teaching involves learning and making sense of what teaching means to the teachers.

There is widespread consensus that novice teachers differ from experienced teachers in the kinds of beliefs they hold as well as in their teaching skills (Tsui, 1996). As mentioned several times in this thesis, novice teachers enter

the profession with idealistic beliefs formed during their schooling years. Experienced teachers' beliefs and practices, on the other hand, are more stable because they have had more classroom experience (Gatbonton, 2008). However, this does not mean that their beliefs will remain static. Although the teachers with more experience in my study cannot be categorised as experienced teachers, I expected them to hold different beliefs from the complete beginner teachers. However, analysis of the data indicated that having one year of teaching experience does not make much difference in beliefs and that beliefs do not change in the same way.

Research Question 5: What are the factors that appear to stimulate or inhibit change in the beliefs and practices of novice teachers?

Previous studies have reported that discipline and contextual factors were influential in stimulating change in teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g. Abdullah-Sani 2000; Flores, 2002; Farrell, 2006a). Studies have also found that teacher education programmes can influence beliefs and practices (Richards, Ho and Giblin, 1996; Abdullah-Sani 2000; Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001).

Data from this study indicate that such small changes in teachers' beliefs and teaching as did occur were a result of student behaviour and expectations, teaching experience, and the Pre-ICELT course (see sections 4.7.2, 4.7.3 and 4.9). As mentioned several times, NT2 changed her beliefs and teaching due to the difficulties she encountered with her students; if she has better students in the following years, her beliefs might change again. As shown throughout the findings, novice teachers made frequent reference to their teaching experience

in justifying change in their practices. For example, NT1, NT2, NT7 and NT9 explained that teaching different levels enabled them to know student profile better and thus experimented new practices in each class (4.7.3 and 4.9.2). However, findings also revealed that experience did not always stimulate change but also inhibited it. For example, NT3 chose not use group work because she was afraid of losing classroom control. This implies that she might not have had the confidence to take risks to experiment new practices. Moreover, learner expectations (i.e. expectation of deductive teaching) seemed to have inhibited teachers from putting their beliefs into practice.

When teachers talked about the Pre-ICELT course, they indicated that they learnt new techniques and implemented them in their classes. NT5 was the only teacher who was dissatisfied with the course, as she did not believe that it added anything to her knowledge or teaching. This study did not intend to investigate the extent to which the course impacted teachers' beliefs and practices. Nevertheless, it is likely to have contributed to the development of their beliefs and practices.

Lastly, teachers' involvement in this study might have stimulated further reflection on their beliefs and classroom practices. However, it is difficult to make a conclusive presumption on its impact.

5.2 Reflections on the study and instruments

In this section, I wish to highlight the value of the research instruments to the study and the participants. I feel that broadly speaking all the research

instruments served the aim of the study. However, I became aware of some strengths and weaknesses in the instruments and comment on these below.

Two semi-structured interviews were conducted for this study: the first one at the beginning of the year and the second at the end of the year. From my own perspective, the first interview proved to be an effective means of eliciting teachers' initial beliefs about teaching and learning. It was also helpful in building rapport and trust with the teachers. Through the questions I asked during this interview, I believe that I was able to gather ample data to characterise teachers' initial beliefs. The second interview, which answered the second research question, was used to assess change in teachers' beliefs and practices. In combination, the two semi-structured interviews were an essential source of comparative information for this study, as the same questions that were asked at the beginning of the study were also asked at the end of the study. In the course of the final interview I read teachers' initial responses (which they had given at the beginning of the study) to them and asked them if they still held the same beliefs. If the teachers stated that they did not hold the same belief any more, they were asked why the change might have occurred.

The Credo, like the semi-structured interviews, was used at the beginning and end of the year. The aim of using the Credo was similar to the interview. Firstly, I wanted to see what teachers' initial beliefs about teaching and learning were; thus, it was used to answer the first research question. Secondly, themes that emerged from the interviews were also cross-checked against belief statements written in the credos. Data from both sources were consistent,

which increased the validity of the data. The Credo was given to the teachers right after the first interview, and again at the end of the second interview. On the second occasion, the aim was to encourage teachers to re-evaluate their beliefs and discover if their beliefs had changed, thus answering the second research question. Three teachers changed the order of their beliefs in the credos, explaining that they re-ordered their beliefs according to their perception of the importance of the statements.

Journal writing is believed to be an effective technique in teacher education programmes as it encourages teachers to examine their own beliefs and teaching practices (e.g. Ho and Richards, 1993; McDonough, 1994) and thus promote reflective thinking. In this study, diaries were used to answer the second, third and fourth research questions. The novice teachers were asked to make diary entries based on their teaching, students, and their feelings, in response to certain prompts (see Appendix 5). The aim of the prompts was to stimulate thinking about issues such as teaching, procedures, strengths and weakness. NT1, NT2, NT3, NT6 and NT8 were the only teachers who were able to make diary entries. However, they differed in the way they described their experiences. I did not ask these teachers why they kept their journals, but I assume that they wanted to reflect on their beliefs and teaching experiences for their own benefit, and not just for the purposes of this study.

I would argue that when diary keeping is part of a course, where teachers are assessed, they might attach more importance to it. In this sense, teachers' commitment to keep diaries systematically and continuously would be

strengthened. In this study, despite my attempts at encouragement and facilitation, the diaries did not produce as much data as expected due to teachers' workload and lack of commitment. Nevertheless, I valued the data that was produced for it did complement and add variety to other data.

As expected, the recorded observations yielded invaluable data related to teachers' classroom behaviour, which could not have been obtained by other means. As the observations were carried out four times in the year with each teacher, it was possible to detect changes in teachers' behaviours and relate these to teachers' initial beliefs as expressed in the first interview. Post-lesson reflection forms and stimulated recall interviews were used to cross-check my observations about teachers' lessons (see Appendix 6) and other data. Data from stimulated recall interviews were generally based on teachers' interpretations of their lessons. Data from these three instruments were used to answer the third and fourth research questions.

The metaphor elicitation task which was used at the end of the year proved to be effective in eliciting teachers' final thoughts about students and their roles, and classrooms; thus, it answered the second and third research questions. The metaphors helped me to better understand teachers' practices as well as their beliefs. However, if the task had been used at the beginning of the study and again at the end of the study, it would have been much easier to make a comparison of the initial and final metaphors. Teachers' initial metaphors were elicited during the first interview. However, some of the teachers' responses were not explained in enough detail. I realized at the end of the study that when

the teachers were provided with the stem completion task, they were better at elaborating their beliefs about students and their roles, and classrooms. This might have been because they had gained experience in reflecting.

To sum up, I feel that using multiple research instruments enabled me to answer my research questions in a fruitful way. I believe that if I had relied on one instrument, such as interview, I would not have elicited rich data. The remaining section will now present the participants' views on the research instruments.

At the end of the study, the teachers were asked to comment on the contributions of the specific research instruments as I expected that they would have potential contribution to their professional development. All nine teachers stated that they were happy to have been part of this study. They also added that the study had helped them to be more aware of their teaching and had contributed to their professional development. The following quotations illustrate their thoughts and feelings about participating in the study:

Nobody asked me what my strengths were, and I was very happy when you asked me such questions because I came to realize my qualities (NT1, I2)

I had the chance to see my weaknesses and my strengths ...I had the chance to see myself... I really enjoyed it, thank you very much (NT4, I2)

I thought it [the study] was good for me because I had Pre-ICELT where I was being observed and I had you where you video taped me, and then I would see myself, which was good because I don't get the chance to see myself while teaching. It was good for me because I was saying like why am I doing this? And it wasn't too much of work because I wasn't too busy anyway (NT6, I2)

The teachers commented on the value of diary writing, observations, the post-lesson reflection forms and stimulated recall interviews. One reason for this could be the fact that the diary, observations, post-lesson reflection forms and stimulated recall interviews were regular events, whereas the Credo and the first/last interviews were carried out only at the beginning and the end of the study. Another reason could be because these two instruments were more general and less concerned with actual classroom experience. To my surprise, they made no comment on the use of the Credo or the first and last interviews that were carried out. I had expected that they would have found the Credo an effective research instrument because they had the chance to see what they had written earlier, and thus it would have raised their awareness of any differences between their prior and present beliefs.

In relation to keeping diaries, one of the teachers (NT7) stated that she did not like writing diaries and that she believed “it did not help her in any way” (I2). Four teachers (NT2, NT4, NT5, NT8), on the other hand, believed that it would have been effective if they could have spent more time on it. However, because of their workload they felt unable to write regularly. NT2 and NT4 added that if they had been “pressured” to keep the diaries, they would have felt more obliged to write. However, because there was no strict obligation, they wrote only when they felt inclined to.

NT1 and NT3 were the only teachers who reported that keeping a diary contributed to their development. NT1 also stated that she found it more effective than the other instruments. These two teachers seemed to be

enthusiastic about using a diary to reflect on their experiences. As one of them stressed:

I think the diary was the most effective one, because I put down all my ideas and feelings and I didn't pay attention to the grammar I just put down my ideas, sometimes I drew pictures which expressed my feelings. I liked the idea of writing a diary. **The diary helped me to develop, diaries helped me to express myself. In one diary I wrote one thing and then when I looked at the other diary I saw that I have changed. It gave me the chance to see my weakness, and see the problems in my classroom** (NT1)

Perhaps surprisingly, only two teachers commented explicitly on the fact that they had had an opportunity to view a recording of their lessons.

The observation was a nice experience, because later when I watched it, I realized many things. For example, I realized how serious I became, and **it became more concrete when I saw it**, because I knew that something wrong was happening, and I realized I wasn't myself, I was very serious...The observations really **helped me to see myself, because you can't see yourself in the classroom**, to think about my teaching and students. (NT2, I2)

I had the chance to watch myself after the lesson. So **I saw my weaknesses and strengths**. In pre-ICELT course, they came to observe me 4 times and you also observed me 4 times but **there was more chance for me to evaluate and improve myself with you because I watched myself**. (NT3, I2)

However, three other teachers (NT5, NT6, NT9) commented on the usefulness of combining observations, post-lesson reflection forms and stimulated recall interviews:

Because it (observation) helped a lot, relating to the Pre-ICELT course.... if they did it the way you did, you know **record the lesson and go through the lesson** with us and give us ideas about the lesson. I think it would have been perfect. And I wish you have given me feedback about my lessons. (NT5, I2)

The most effective one was the observation and post-reflection meeting where I reflected on the lesson...so **observation, then me writing and then the meeting with you and watching myself, the process was useful**. (NT6, I2)

The majority of these novice teachers (NT2, NT4, NT4, NT5, NT6, NT8, NT9) found the stimulated recall interview effective:

I saw myself and my lesson, how it was. I **realized even the smallest thing**, like my smile, how I used the board. I had **the chance to think about the lesson again**, and change certain things (NT2, I2)

The recording, watching myself...and **while I was watching I was giving feedback to myself** (NT4, I2)

I think the observation and post-reflection form, because **I had the chance to watch my teaching again, think about it and see** what went wrong and right

To sum up, the combination of observations, stimulated recall interviews and post-lesson reflection forms seemed to have been particularly valuable in raising awareness. Specifically, they became aware through these means of their beliefs, feelings, behaviours and teaching.

5.3 Originality of the study

The study builds on previous work on teachers' beliefs and practices to make a valuable contribution to our understanding of the relationship between first year teachers' beliefs and practices. It confirms previous studies that students' responses to teachers' practices and teachers' responses to their own experiences can cause beliefs to be restructured as well as confirmed.

The literature supports the view that beliefs are resistant to change and that change in beliefs occurs slowly. This study did not find any significant change in teachers' beliefs, except for one teacher. The reason for limited change in practices can be attributed to lack of confidence to experiment with new practices.

In the literature, there is a great body of research which suggests that teachers' beliefs guide actions (e.g. Clark and Peterson, 1986; Johnson, 1994; Fang, 1996; Woods, 1996; Flores, 2002; Tsui, 2003; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 2003). In contrast, this study found that teachers' beliefs may not always guide teachers' actions. In other words, the study revealed that teachers' beliefs and practices may not always coincide.

The final contribution that this study makes to the literature is the choice of the research methodology and the procedures that were followed. To my knowledge, no other study has used the combination of these instruments in the way I have used them. At the end of the study, the teachers were reminded of their initial beliefs (using the first interview transcripts and providing the first credo) and were encouraged to think back in time and consider whether they still held the same beliefs or not. Employing this method enabled these teachers to become aware of their earlier beliefs and the extent to which these beliefs had changed. Moreover, use of the observations, post-lesson reflection forms and stimulated recall interviews involved teachers in exploring their beliefs and classroom practices. Additionally, the use of the metaphor elicitation task contributed to and enhanced our understanding of the relationship between teachers' classroom practices and use of metaphors to describe their roles as teachers.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The first limitation concerns the limited sample size. The findings obtained from this small sample size cannot be generalized to other EFL teachers or

even teachers in the same context because of the interaction between individual experiences and the characteristics of the individual teachers. For example, some teachers were more articulate in expressing themselves than the others. The limited sample size also caused problems while I was analysing the data. At times, it was difficult to categorise the themes. If I were to do a similar study, I would first give the teachers a belief questionnaire and then ask the participants to reflect on their responses. The results of the questionnaire could then be presented to the teachers for comment (as I did with the Credo) at the end of the year. In this way, it would be easier to categorise and detect changes in beliefs.

Secondly, teachers knew what this research study was investigating. Therefore, one might argue that their responses might have been influenced. However, the triangulation of the data increased the validity of the findings as I was able to cross-check. For example, interview and credo data were similar in content, and data from teachers' post-lesson reflection forms were similar to the data gathered from the SRI.

Thirdly, the novice teachers often referred to the Pre-ICELT course which they were attending at the time of the study. When I asked them the impact of the course on their beliefs, some of them said that it was influential. Thus, the course might have been a factor in changing teachers' beliefs and practices as they were encouraged to try out new practices. However, as the aim of this study was not to investigate its influence, I did not ask them how it influenced their beliefs.

The fourth limitation concerns research methodology. In the research design, diaries were seen as a supplementary form of data collection method. The teachers were not able to make diary entries as instructed (e.g. two or times a week) due to their workload. Moreover, at the beginning of the study one teacher did not agree to make any entries. Fortunately, the lack of this data was not very crucial as other data were triangulated.

Classroom observations are likely to have influenced both teachers' and students' behaviour and thus different behaviours are expected without the presence of the video. Unfortunately, one video recording of NT6's and NT8's lessons became corrupted after the data collection period ended and therefore I was not able to watch those videos. I made copies of most of the lessons and gave them to the teachers, but the teachers concerned told me that I had not given them a copy of those lessons. If I were to use observations again, I would make sure that I have two copies of each recording.

Finally, one of the main difficulties I encountered throughout the study was keeping a balanced relationship with my participants. I had to keep a certain distance so that I could maintain my objectivity.

5.5 Implications for teacher education programmes

The findings of this study have several implications for teacher education programmes.

- Research has shown that the length of training programmes is important in shaping teachers' beliefs and practices. For example,

Borg (2002) and Hobbs (2007) found that the four week CELTA course was not sufficient to prepare teachers for the classroom. Almarza (1996), Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) and Mattheoudakis (2007), on the other hand, found that long-term teacher training programmes were effective on shaping teachers' beliefs and practices. This study found that first-year teachers are still in the process of learning to teach and that though this period is important in shaping novice teachers' beliefs and practices, they are still far from stable by the end of the year, a point noted also by Tsui (2003, 2005) and Tillema (1998).

- It is clear from this study that the experiences these novice teachers had in their first year are similar to pre-service teachers' experiences, in that their beliefs (and practices) were still being shaped, and that some of these beliefs may be resistant to change. There was no significant change in beliefs about the characteristics and roles of teachers. These beliefs that were formed during schooling remained stable, which shows the powerful influence of apprenticeship of observation. Detailed analysis of teachers' beliefs in relation to their practices, on the other hand, revealed that teachers' beliefs about teaching techniques are more likely to change. When some of the teachers (NT2, NT5, NT6, NT8) realized that their beliefs were not applicable in practice, they changed their teaching technique, but still believed in the effectiveness of their initial beliefs. Therefore, becoming aware of one's beliefs and practices may have an impact on teachers' decision-making, e.g.

choosing the right teaching technique. The study also found that beliefs are not always reflected in teachers' practices and vice versa, and that change in practices may not always result in change in beliefs. Thus, as Freeman (1989) stated, change may occur gradually and over time.

- The study emphasised the value of eliciting beliefs as a way of raising teacher awareness. Based on this assertion, teacher educators could consider training teachers to acknowledge how their beliefs influence their practices. One way of doing this is by involving teachers in “teaching awareness tasks” (Malderez and Bodoczky, 1999:17) that encourage teachers to notice and reflect on their teaching, in terms of their actions and its effectiveness, and consider the reasons behind their actions. This could be achieved through feedback dialogues, self-observation and peer-observation (for more tasks and activities, see Malderez and Bodoczky, 1999). Engaging teachers in such activities may result in reshaping existing beliefs.
- Related to the implications above, novice teachers in their first year of teaching must be supported and when necessary guided either by a mentor, an experienced teacher or an advisory group. In this way, novice teachers may feel more secure and confident about their beliefs and practices.
- Change, limited change and non-change in these novice teachers' beliefs and practices can be tracked through the use of observations, post-lesson reflection forms, stimulated recall interviews and diaries, and these instruments were felt to be useful by the teachers

and me in stimulating their development. Where such methods of stimulating reflection, particularly stimulated recall technique and metaphor elicitation task, do not already exist, as in my context, teacher educators might consider building them in.

- Teacher educators can encourage pre-service and novice teachers to read studies of novice teachers, such as this one, as a starting point. In this way, they can reflect on their own beliefs and reach an understanding of issues that they might encounter in their first year of teaching. Additionally, novice teachers' expectations can perhaps be managed by discussion of the issues raised in this thesis.

5.6 Suggestions for future research

Based on the findings, the study suggests the following areas for future research:

- It would be interesting to do a follow-up study with the same teachers who took part in this study. The study can explore teachers' professional development in relation to their beliefs and classroom practices. The study could also take into consideration variables as contextual opportunities and constraints, school culture and collegiality. Such studies may further our understanding in relation to how contextual factors (other than students) may influence change in beliefs and practices. The participants in my study were mainly concerned with their teaching and students. It is possible that in their following years, they might become aware of other

opportunities and constraints in their teaching which influence their beliefs and practices.

- A further area which would be worthy of research is to investigate EFL teachers' beliefs and practices working in different institutional contexts, i.e. private high schools and EFL teachers working in public high schools, and the kinds of support available to both groups of teachers. The teachers' background should be similar (e.g. education, age, teaching experience, country). In this way, the study can address the extent to which beliefs influence teachers' practice and how the two groups of teachers differ in their beliefs and practices. Moreover, the influence of contextual factors can be investigated. For example, in EMU's private high school classes are equipped with electronic devices such as TV, and OHP but such equipments are not provided in public high schools. Additionally, unlike private high schools, public high schools' classes are crowded.

5.7 Concluding comments

This study involved nine teachers and it was nine months long. More longitudinal studies, presumably three years long, with a larger sample would enable us to understand the impact of time and experience as well as contextual factors on teacher belief-formation and change.

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APPENDIX 1a: Sample interview transcript

INTERVIEW 1

R: Can you tell me a little about yourself?

NT8: I was born in England, I was there till I was 11 years old, and then we moved back to Cyprus, I went to Turk Maarif College in Nicosia, after that I studied at EMU, ELH department. I worked at a university here in Cyprus for a year, but I can't really say that I am an experienced teacher.

R: Can you remember your worst learning experience as a student?

NT8: I can't remember anything.

R: Can you remember your best learning experience?

NT8: at university, while I was writing my projects...my professors guided us...they were very helpful.

R What do you think made you successful in learning English?

NT8: living in England, the education I got there

R: What should our students do to become successful in learning English?

NT8: they should be hard-working, they should trust themselves, be confident, they should have their own goals/aims. If they don't study, they cannot practise what they learn in the class.

R: Why did you want to become an English teacher?

NT8: I have always loved English, starting from my early age, and I have always been interested in the language...I thought the job would be satisfying to me and beneficial to students...

R: Did anyone have an influence on your decision?

NT8: My parents, they thought I had the ability to be a teacher, communicate with people to satisfy their needs,

R: How did you think teaching would be like before you did your practicum and what did you discover?

NT8: I did it here for 3 months, I was very nervous, I didn't really think much about it, but when I started teaching it became enjoyable, giving the students something they need made me feel good...during my internship, I was a student as well, the age difference wasn't much...they saw me as their friend...I never thought I could act, I explained most things by acting by showing...the tone of my voice...I thought the students would hear me, raise my voice, but when you go into the environment you adopt.

R: How would you describe a good, effective teacher?

NT8: At first, an effective teacher is someone who thinks about his students more than him/herself, who can adopt, who is flexible, someone who understands the students' psychology their needs, their learning styles

R: What do you want to achieve this year as a teacher?

NT8: teaching students to be able to speak more fluently, their grammar is good but they can't speak...

R: Last week was the first week of your teaching, did you set any rules for behaviour?

NT8: yes I did, coming to class on time, participating in the class...but not all students were there.

R: Do you think you might encounter any difficulties this year?

NT8: this class seems to be good, I haven't thought about it...I don't know if I will have any difficulties.

R: Do you have any worries about yourself or your teaching?

NT8: age gap was a problem during the internship, but I have overcome that problem

R: What strengths do you think you have as a teacher?

NT8: my accent, having graduated from ELH may be, because I studied different courses from humanities department, I have different perspectives. I think students will benefit from my accent because they do not hear it in Cyprus very often. I can't think of any other strengths.

R: What kind of learning environment do you want to create in your classes?

NT8: a class where students participate, a friendly atmosphere, at the same an atmosphere with the principles...I think pair and group work are good activities because they help students to use the language, but of course the teacher has to watch them...I will encourage them and help them to build their confidence, if they are willing to learn I will help them...If they lose motivation, I can help them by speaking and telling them how to study.

R: How would you correct students' errors?

NT8: peer correction at first, sometimes self-correction and I can correct them too... I don't know we will see what works.

R: Can you now describe yourself using a metaphor?

NT8: I am a young flower in a garden trying to grow, trying to teach...I am getting there slowly.

R: Do you want to add anything to what we have been talking about?

NT8: A teacher should enjoy their job and what s/he is doing. I am not very clear about my ideas yet, but I think I will have better ideas once I experience real teaching.

APPENDIX 1b: Sample interview transcript

INTERVIEW 2

R: I asked you what the students had to do become successful in learning English, you had said

- They had to be hard working
- They had to trust themselves
- They should have their own goals and aims

Do you still believe in these?

NT8: They should be keen to learn, they should want to learn that's the most important thing I think, nothing else comes to my mind.

R: I asked you what teaching would be like, and you had said giving something to students will make you happy,

NT8: Yes, it's giving something and gaining something. It's not just the teacher giving, are the students willing to learn something? And it's not just lessons, I think education is not just the lessons, it's responsibility, it's discipline, so I don't agree with that anymore, it's not just giving and getting. It's not just teaching earning. It needs responsibility, it needs encouragement, it needs motivation. It needs a lot of things, it needs aims, everything

Bes: I asked you what an effective teacher is and you said

- Someone who thinks about students more than himself,
- Someone flexible, adapt to the situation accordingly
- Understand students' needs and their learning styles,

NT8: Yes, and also the teacher should be a motivator, should encourage, should be organized, should be able to predict, should be able to see things before they take place, I have got lots of things on my mind,

R: I asked you what you want to achieve as a teacher, and you said

- You wanted to teach and help students speak more fluently,

NT8: I tried my best to achieve it but I can't say that I fully achieved that. I focused on speaking a lot, language learning is not just writing and grammar but speaking is very important I think.

Bes: I asked you if you might have any difficulties this year and you couldn't think of anything at that time. Did you face any difficulties?

NT8: Yes, students have different learning styles. Because they come from different areas, so they have different learning styles. That was difficult to adapt...Especially with one class, the class I had in the last module, I had difficulty. Because students were double repeat, they were de-motivated. They didn't want to learn anything, their families had a lot of pressure on them, they were hard on them. They also had different learning styles like the other students that I had before, and this difference affected the other students as well, because they slowed down the pace of the lesson. I found it difficult to

motivate them, to encourage them saying “ok you will pass, you will succeed”. Compared to the other classes, this class was harder to motivate.

Bes: I asked you about your strengths as a teacher. And you had said your accent would be an advantage.

NT8: Hmm..Not really, I think I help students I am a good motivator, I can be close to them, so my personal characteristics would be the first.

I have gained a lot of confidence, if we go back to the first module, I can see that I have changed.

Nothing else comes to my mind.

Bes: You wanted to have learning environment which was

- Friendly
- A place where students feel confidence and where you encourage them

NT8: I think discipline is important as well because you have to put down points that are important to you, the rules....i have gained a lot of from that, in the first module I didn't have rules, but now for example not coming to class late, you should tell this to the students at the beginning. And make the students understand that and they have to stick to the rules. I wanted to have a supportive learning environment, help them....I did set the rules but I wasn't very firm enough. I have to be more clear and I have got to stick to my rules,

Bes: Can you tell me about a lesson where you think you had a nice learning environment?

It was a reading text about Christmas and the new year and Christmas was coming. I brought a Christmas tree and cards to the class, I got them visual things, it was a culture based lesson and they learnt new vocabulary from a different culture. So I first showed them the cards, started to brainstorm...then elicited words from them...so I familiarized them with the topic...getting the vocabulary from them prepares them for the text...I think that was quite an enjoyable lesson, and they understood the reading text better, and the words they learnt was culture based, I believe that had fun.

R: I asked you how you would do correction. You said you would do peer correction at first and then I can correct them.

Yes, this is what I have done. For example, if I asked the student and he is not sure about the answer and he thinks about it and if he can't say anything, then I look at other students and I say yes or next please. I think it was effective....I don't think the students' oral errors should be corrected immediately, after a while. If a student gives a wrong answer, I say to the other students what do you think? Do you agree? Is this the right answer and then if they say they are not sure, then I tell them and I explain why or I give them a hint.

R: How about in writing?

NT8: Generally, if we have a writing lesson, and the students have the same errors I write them on the board, I write the students' sentences on the board and then one student comes to the board and corrects it. I think this is really good, especially for the portfolio.

R: Do you correct each and every mistake?

NT8: It depends on the mistake, if it is something basic, something they shouldn't have done, then I correct it.

R: What do you think about group and pair work? Which one do you prefer? And what are the advantages and disadvantages?

NT8: Group work is good but it depends on the students, you have to give each student an aim, a goal during the activity, you can give a role. If you just give a task for them to do, then it's just one student doing it. So students should have something to do in a group. It's more fun I think...Pair work, I use it quite often actually, because students combine their knowledge they check together, it's more encouraging as well. For example, we have lexis every week, I do that as a group work, I divide class in to two, and I divide the words and let's say if there are 10 words, each student had 2 words. They have to look up in the dictionary for the meaning, and then I get them to write sentences and at the end they check as a group. So it depends on the skill and what you want to do.

R: Do students use Turkish or English when they are in group/pair work?

NT8: Turkish generally. In pair work, it is easier for them to speak English, to try to do it to attempt to speak it. But in group work they generally use Turkish...If the students are very low level then I can't expect too much from them. It depends on the level of the students. How can I expect them to speak in English if they don't know it? I do warn them all the time and when I go next to them they switch to English and as soon as I move away they start talking in Turkish. This is one problem that we all experience. The teacher should also use English most of the time...

R: When do you think learners will be able to speak English? Do you think they will be able to speak English once they leave prep school?

NT8: That's our aim, that's what we hope. I think in each class when there is a foreign student students speak English more. I always say they have to speak to other people and in classes where there is a foreign student they speak English more, I have experienced that. I always advise them to find a foreign friend so that they can speak English. Hopefully they should, at intermediate and upper intermediate level they should be able to speak.

R: Do you think we should focus on form so that students can speak?

NT8: Yes, definitely, but not on grammar too much, fluency more....not like ok you have to speak perfectly, with all the correct structure. I don't believe in that. As long as they know the basic structure, they should try to speak. I am not saying that accuracy isn't important, of course it is. As long as they know the basic structure, they should try and speak as much as they can. Not being scared that I might make a mistake here, if they do that, they won't be able to speak at all,

R: Is there any question you would have liked me to ask you?

NT8: Not really.

R: Okay, have you noticed any other change about yourself? You said you became more confident, anything else?

NT8: To begin with, I believe that each day you experience something different while teaching, especially in your early years. These experiences can be both positive or negative and what is more, what seems negative to you at that moment may become positive later on. Therefore, I can say that this year I had many experiences both positive and negative... I learnt to be more patient and to take things one step at a time in difficult situations. For example, teaching students with different cultural backgrounds and with different learning styles. That is to say a teacher not only teaches but also gives advice about general truths in life. For example, one of the challenges to teach students was to accept that each and every person is different...and unique from one another and so should be respected accordingly....This aspect happened in the second module...as there was a foreign student in the class and again in the last module as there was or were one or two dyslexic students in the class. At first I thought I wouldn't be able to cope as I should but it turned out quiet well. That is I managed better than I thought I would, which resulted in me strengthening my self-confidence....Teaching is not easy. You have to like it, you should be comfortable with your job. You should trust yourself, you should believe that you can do it....I realized that planning different things and the activities I organized went well, I have become more creative I think, my awareness has increased, not to focus on the book all the time and doing different activities. Be flexible and adapt different materials to the lesson plan. My relationship with students also got better. I understand them better.

R: Right, I was going to ask if you have changed the way you interact with your students? Can you describe any particular event or events you can remember?

NT8: At the beginning of the year, I was much stricter and more disciplined towards students and classroom rules. I believed students would listen to me...In other words, I didn't allow them to interact at all in Turkish and I criticized them for not bringing their dictionaries and so on... but towards the end of the year, my attitude changed as I was more confident about myself and warned them that they are adults and should be responsible of themselves...so I learnt how to deal with them...If you approach them positively, they listen to you.

R: What were your expectations about teaching and about being a teacher at SFL? How do you feel about them now?

NT8: I didn't expect that I would enjoy teaching this much and I couldn't understand or predict what it would be like before...I had some knowledge about the system and how everything works here, so it wasn't very difficult to get used to...the students here are generally the same in terms of originating from different part of Turkey, so most of them have fixed learning styles. I am quite happy and satisfied about being a teacher here.

R: You talked about a challenge you faced...can you tell me what the greatest challenge you faced this year was and how dealt with them.

NT8: My greatest challenge was teaching de-motivated students who repeated the same level 2 or 3 times... and so they didn't want to come to class... I also

had new students who were also in the same class with the de-motivated ones...this was a difficult situation but telling the students the importance of English in life and approaching them in a friendly manner as a friend, as a counsellor, I believe I made the classroom environment more bearable and even a fun place....Another challenge was students not doing their assignments. As a solution, I awarded those students who did their homework and any student who didn't do it would be written an hour absent. This is how I solved the problem.

R: Right we are about to finish...What were your initial ideas about teaching and could you apply these ideas to your classes? Has your ideas about teaching changed?

Nt8: Well..I am currently enjoying teaching, but I must admit that at first it seemed quite scary... I didn't think that it would be such a fun experience but I realize that in fact it is like an exploration in terms of exchanging thoughts and ideas and learning new things.

R: How did you feel throughout this study?

NT8: I didn't have much time to write in the journal. I kept forgetting about that. Writing the journal was the hard part.

R: Which instrument do you think contributed to your development?

NT8: The post-reflection form [interview], because you can see yourself, you can hear yourself, I think that was the most effective.

R: Would you have preferred me to give you an evaluation of your lessons? And if I had, would this have affected you in any way?

NT8: It may have been good actually. I wouldn't have minded. And I kept asking you didn't I, how did I do and so on? But you gave me something general.

R: Do you think the pre-icelt course contributed to your development? And if yes how?

NT8: Yes I have learnt a lot of things. The trainer gave me feedback at the end but I would have preferred it at the beginning while showing my lesson plan, they could tell me the weak parts, if they had warned me before I would have thought about that and not do it in the lesson. Realizing it at the end is too late.

APPENDIX 2: Credo

Dear Colleague

NTI

The purpose of this credo is to help you become more aware of your teaching and learning. In the first question, you are required to recall teachers who you believe had good or bad characteristics. Second question explores your beliefs about teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language. Any information given will be used for research purposes and will be treated in the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your co-operation

Besime Erkmen

1. Are there any teachers who stand out in your memory because they were very good or bad? Make a list of the characteristics and behaviour that lead you to judge them as good or bad.

Good Teacher	Bad Teacher
<p>3 ⊖ be able to manage time in classroom</p> <p>— be able to manage materials in the classroom</p> <p>5 ⊖ be able to use your attention to manage student behavior</p> <p>— know all students' name</p> <p>1 ⊕ treat all students equally</p> <p>4 ⊖ competent in handling discipline problems</p> <p>2 ⊖ performing different roles in the classroom such as being a; controller, assessor, tutor, organiser, participant, prompter, resource...</p>	<p>criticize students when he gets incorrect response</p> <p>doesn't know students' name</p> <p>doesn't treat students equally ③</p> <p>not being competent in the subject ②</p> <p>unprepared for the lesson ①</p> <p>being very strict</p> <p>unmotivated</p> <p>doesn't bring variety in the class</p>

- ✓ prais^{es} the st^s when it's necessary and uses different types of praising.
- ✓ should ^{sometimes} ignore an inappropriate behaviour
- ✓ should prepare classroom rules at the beginning of an academic year.
- ✓ should be careful while grouping the st^s (think of different techniques)

2. Having thought about the characteristics of good and bad teachers, can you now make a list of the good characteristics of an English language teacher.

- should be able to use English language effectively.
- should have a good rapport with his students
- should create real life situations & enc. sts. use English language.
- should teach English in ~~the~~ different contexts
- _____
- _____
- _____

3. All teachers have implicit beliefs about teaching and learning. Please write 10 statements about your beliefs about teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language.

Example:

- ✓ I believe involving students in group work will give the students the opportunity to use any language feature they have acquired.
- I believe correcting students' errors will improve accuracy.

You could choose these two as part of your 10 statements or write 10 others which are more important to you. You may wish to state your beliefs in relation to **classroom/lesson management, student behaviour, and methodology.**

1. I believe correcting sts' errors especially while speaking will discourage them.
2. I believe self-correction is effective than peer-correction
3. I believe variety of materials will increase social interactions.
4. I believe praising is the essence of using your att. to manage sts' behavior
5. I believe rules communicate the teacher's expectations.
6. I believe classroom arrangements increase desirable student interaction
7. I believe teachers should be flexible if it's needed
8. I believe students should be given responsibilities in the class
9. I believe involving students in peer-tutoring is beneficial.
10. I believe teachers ^{should} always have a contingency-plan.

APPENDIX 3: Post-lesson reflection form

Instructions to Post-Lesson Reflection

1. I would like to give you information about what I expect you to write in your post-reflection form. I assure you that the information you provide will remain anonymous and at all times your own contributions will be treated as strictly confidential.
2. As part of my study, I would like you to write down your views about what has happened during your teaching. Although the lesson(s) will be video recorded, it is important to write your views once your lesson is over, so that you do not forget what has happened in your lesson. We will have the post-teaching interview at an arranged time (though no later than two days after the lesson!)
3. Below I have made a list of some of the things I would be interested in hearing about. If you would like to comment on other aspects of your teaching, you are welcome to add them.

Reflecting on your teaching

- Did you achieve your objectives by the end of the lesson? Please explain why/why not you have/have not achieved your aims.

I achieved my lesson objectives. They successfully managed to write a love story by ordering the pictures and using the appropriate tense.

- What do you think were the strengths of your teaching? i.e. write about the positive aspects of your teaching.

I created a positive learning atmosphere and this atmosphere maintained sts participation. Also, the topic was interesting for them.

- What do you think were the weaknesses of your teaching?

Some sts ^{were} confused with the order of pictures and I should have repeated the right sequence. But, then I tried to change the activity by giving them more flexibility to create their own order.

- Did anything unexpected happen during your teaching?

Not, really!

- Did you have to divert from your lesson plan? Why?

Slightly, because of picture sequence.

- Did you encounter any difficulties during your lesson? If yes, can you explain?

No!

- If you taught this lesson again, would you do anything differently?

Yes, I would include a follow-up activity. For example, I would provide a different handout.

APPENDIX 4: Metaphor elicitation task

Dear Colleague,

I would like you to complete the following sentences using metaphors to describe your beliefs.

Thank you

NT4

Teaching is like an expedition. You start a wonderful journey and you discover an unknown world. During this journey, you come across many unexpected situations. Sometimes they make you very happy but sometimes you become disappointed. When you are disappointed during your expedition, do you stop the journey and go back to your country, or do you try to change your negative ideas by focusing on brilliance? Of course you never stop the journey. You are sure that wonder of the nature is waiting for you. Teaching is an endless expedition. You never stop travelling. You never stop stumbling upon new reality. Days are different from each other, you travel by different buses, cars, planes and each one takes you to different places. In your teaching career, you experience different classrooms and each classroom has a lot of different learners. Isn't each student a new world for the teacher?

A teacher is a gardener and a student is a seed. A gardener plants the seed and waters it. Some plants need more water however some of them need less. If the weather is rainy or if it hails, the gardener protects the seed. It takes time for the plant to be grown up. If the gardener doesn't care about the seeds, they may not grow so the gardener cannot produce anything. At the end, if the seeds grow up and if they produce fruits the gardener knows that it is his success. The fruits are the presents of the gardener's effort. Students are biologically and socially different seeds. The gardener plants the seeds, but each of them needs different care because each of them has different roads to be reached. Students have different backgrounds, different social lives and different experiences in the world. So they need, special care to get them to the learning atmosphere. If you don't do these, you will be a lonely gardener in the desperate dry field.

Classrooms are fields to plant your seeds. The gardener should be careful while choosing the field. The plants should love the field to grow up. If the land is too dry, the gardener should water the plants. As the students are the plants, teachers should be very careful about the classroom atmosphere. It should be watery, and there should be moist atmosphere for our plants to grow up. If the classroom atmosphere is boring, formal, noisy etc. the students cannot concentrate on the lesson and they cannot learn. Sometimes the key is in teacher's hand, and they can open the door. Think about the "dark room". You light a candle to enlighten the room. If it is still not enough, you light one more candle until you are able to see your way. Isn't it the same thing for the classroom atmosphere? for example, If it is boring, you can change it by a different activity. Don't you think it is like watering your plant????

I am a reader of “A GOOD GARNER’S” book. I read the book to be informed about the plants. I have a small garden and I try to train myself as a gardener. I have ambitions. My garden exposes me into real garden and I experience raising plants. In the future, I want to be the gardener of a very big garden. I want to have too many trees with charming, delicious fruits.

APPENDIX 5: Diary

Dear Colleague,

I am interested in how beginning teachers' beliefs about teaching change and develop and I would like you to keep a journal following the procedures below.

Thank you for your cooperation

Besime Erkmén

1. Write in the journal in the first month of your teaching and also every time after I observe your class. Make entries on a regular basis, such as once or twice a week, or after a lesson that you feel has affected your belief, behaviour, or attitude. It may be useful to spend five or ten minutes after a lesson to reflect on what has taken place in your lesson and record it in your journal.
2. Even if you are uncertain about why some events took place in the class, record it in your journal. What might not have been obvious when written or recorded may later become apparent.
3. When you write in your journal, ask yourself questions like these:
 - What principles and beliefs influence my teaching?
 - Why do I teach the way I do?
 - What was my main objective in the lesson?
 - What roles do my students play in my class?
 - What did the learners actually learn in the lesson? How do I know that they learnt? (How do you check on student understanding?)
 - What teaching procedures did I use?
 - What problems did I encounter and how did I deal with them?
 - Did I do sufficient preparation for the lesson?
 - What were the strengths of my lesson?
 - What were the weaknesses of my lesson?
 - Would I do anything differently if I taught the lesson again?
 - Did I discover anything new about your teaching or your students??

15th May 2016

④ Be careful with Groupwork!!!

Today I realized that the way I divide sts into groups is always same. However, I should find other ways of grouping my students. I don't want same students to be in the same group all the time. I should look for various ways of grouping sts!!

Be careful with Pairwork!!!

Today I asked students to work in pairs. They were supposed to work together and describe the person on their handout. After I gave the instruction, sts started talking about the picture. They used some Turkish and some English. I tried to interrupt their conversation and encouraged them to use English. Then I realized that sts lost their motivation and they started to use all Turkish this time.

Lesson 11:

14th June 2006

Problem: The use of the mother tongue

Solution: Let's think!!!

This is a fact that one of the biggest problems in the use of pairwork and groupwork is the use of the mother tongue by students. Today, I tried to do a groupwork activity with my students. I put them into groups of four and I asked them to think of. As soon as I finished giving my instructions and let them do the activity, they started to use Turkish. I went round the classroom and I tried to encourage the students to use English. I observed that students will naturally slip into their language unless I remind them and prompt them.

APPENDIX 6: Reflections on observations

TABLE 1

NT1		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT1's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT1's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT1's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT1's reflections
	Positive	-Warm-up -Good rapport -T. Friendly, lively, enthusiastic, relaxed atmosphere -Eye-contact -Good management -T \leftrightarrow Sts	-Achieved my aims -Tried to involve sts.	-Good warm-up -Monitored -Eye-contact -Good rapport -relaxed atmosphere -Checks instructions- -Praised sts. -Good management -T \leftrightarrow St.	-Achieved my aims -Eye-contact -Instructions -Praised sts.	-Warm-up -Monitored -Clear voice -Eye-contact -Good management -Relaxed, confident -relaxed atmosphere -T \leftrightarrow St.	-Achieved my aims -Classroom management -Good use of L2 -St. Involvement	-Good warm-up -Clear voice -eye contact -Diverted from lesson plan -St. Involvement -Good management -T \leftrightarrow St.	-Achieved my aims -T \leftrightarrow St -Praised management -Good management -St. Involvement
	Negative	-Late comers -Poor use of blackboard -Presentation stage too long -Little St. \leftrightarrow St.	-TTT -Poor use of blackboard	-Poor use of blackboard -Little St. \leftrightarrow St. -More input needed for the task, some students had difficulty	-Poor use of blackboard -Sts. Unmotivated	-Lacks variety - Little St. \leftrightarrow St.	-Answering irrelevant questions -Teacher-centred	-Lacks variety -Group work St. \leftrightarrow St	-Activities (not communicative)

NT2		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT2's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT2's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT2's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT2's reflections
	Positive	-Good warm-up activity -Various materials- music, pictures, handouts -Good use of BB -Very relaxed atmosphere -T. Enthusiastic, lively -Good rapport -Monitored -Sts \leftrightarrow Sts (L1/L2) -T \leftrightarrow Sts	-Achieved objectives -Positive learning environment -Sts involved	-Good warm-up -Eye contact -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Monitored -Praised -Clear voice -St (L1/L2) -Positive atmosphere	-Active participation -Friendly learning environment	-Good warm-up activity -Variety-cards, OHP, handouts, pictures -Good management -St involvement -Sets time for tasks -T \leftrightarrow Sts	-Achieved objectives -St involvement and motivation	-No warm-up -Revision of essay plan -Confident -Tried to involve sts -Clear voice -Good presentation -Monitored	-Achieved my aim partly
	Negative	-Time not set for activities -Management	-Material	-Confusing presentation (objective not clear) -Management -Late comer -Constantly reminds sts to use English	-Objective shifted -Handout	-St \leftrightarrow St -Oral feedback -Not enthusiastic	-Oral feedback	-T not enthusiastic -T \rightarrow St -TTT -Sts involvement -Classroom atmosphere	-Plans not written -Sts bored -Low participation -Sts not enthusiastic

NT3		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT3's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT3's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT3's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT3's reflections
	Positive	-Warm-up/pre-reading (whole class discussion) -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Good management -Sts involved -Monitored	-Achieved my aims -Pre-reading -Motivation -Monitored	-Good pre-reading activity (Sts involved at this stage) -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Relaxed atmosphere -Good rapport -Monitored	-Achieved my objectives -Pre-reading activity (whole class discussion) -Sts involvement	-Good warm-up activity -Good use of BB -T relaxed -Good presentation -Classroom management	-Achieved my aims -Good warm-up activity -BB	-Warm-up -Whole class discussion -Monitored -T \leftrightarrow Sts	-Good discussion at the beginning -BB
	Negative	-Speech at a low pitch -T. controlled activity	-Post-reading activity needed -Give homework -No praising (they are not children)	-Not well prepared (confusion about an answer) -St \leftrightarrow St -T. Centred	-Not well prepared	-Unclear instructions -T \rightarrow Sts -Sts involvement -No student interaction -Voice	-St involvement -Unclear instructions -Some sts bored	-Reads the instructions from the book -Classroom management -Sts do not respond -Voice	-Did not achieve my aims -Poor/complex instructions -Sts did not understand the topic

NT4		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT4's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT4's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT4's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT4's reflections
	Positive	-Good warm-up -good rapport - T well-prepared -enthusiastic -clear voice -praises sts -walls decorated	-Achieved my aims -I used English	- Good warm-up -Black-board -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Monitors -Praises -Walls decorated	-Almost achieved my aims -St. Centred -Enjoyable lesson	- T confident, enthusiastic -Sts involved, motivated -friendly atmosphere -Group work (L2/L1) -high student interaction -monitors -Clear instructions -card board, OHP -walls decorated	-achieved my aims - Sts highly motivated -motivating activities -Monitored -Clear instructions	-T confident and enthusiastic -Good warm-up -Pictures, flyers -St centred -Pair work -Sts use of L2 -Good rapport -Clear instructions -Walls decorated	-Achieved my objectives -Confident and competent -Sts used the target language -Clear instructions
	Negative	-TTT -Little st interaction -Monitoring -Poor instructions	-Not student centred -Waiting time too long for the questions -Poor instructions -Poor transitions	-TTT -Unclear instructions -T centred -St \leftrightarrow St	-Too dependent on the lesson plan - Too much time on presentation	-loses control during transitions and while eliciting answers	-Noisy during group work -difficult to control sts -Sts use Turkish during group work	-Loses control during transitions	-Coloured pictures would be more effective -Sts used L1 during the preparation stage

NT5		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT5's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT5's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT5's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT5's reflections
	Positive	-Good warm-up -Blackboard -Pair work -Instructions	-Aims achieved -Good warm-up -Instructions -Sts involved -Whole class pronunciation	-T confident and relaxed - Good warm-up -Instructions -Sts involved -Good rapport -Good mng -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Whole class activity	-Instructions -Well structured lesson	-Instructions -Whole class discussion -Pair work (L2) -Group work (L1/L2) -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Sts \leftrightarrow Sts -Monitors	-Instructions -Monitored	-Good warm-up -Instructions -Rapport -Monitors group and pair work St \leftrightarrow Sts(L2) -Classroom mng	-Achieved my aims -Instructions -rapport -Monitored the groups -Sts involved and enthusiastic
	Negative	-St use L1	-Sts not willing or shy	- T centred -St \leftrightarrow St -TTT	-Aims -TTT -Timing -T centred -Blackboard	-Poor rapport -No warm-up -Classroom mng -Blackboard	-Not happy with the lesson -Classroom mng	-too dependent on the book -Time control	-Unprepared -Time control

NT6		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT6's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT6's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT6's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT6's reflections
	Positive	-Good rapport - T enthusiastic -Sts \leftrightarrow Sts (L1/L2) -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Pair work -Monitors -Sts involved -Classroom mng	-Achieved my aims partly -Pair work -monitored -Sts involved	N/A	-Achieved my aims -Picture story -Speaking activity -Sts involved -Classroom mng	-Instructions -Group work (L1/L2) -Monitors -T \rightarrow Sts -Sts involved -Blackboard	-Achieved my aims -Group work -Instructions	-Rapport -Classroom mng -OHP -Role play	-Partially achieved my aims -Enjoyable activity
	Negative	-Poor instructions - No use of blackboard	-Poor instructions -Diverted from the plan -pictures needed -No use of blackboard	N/A	-Sts were not motivated -Activity not modelled -Poor instructions	-Material -T centred -Technical problem -Little St \leftrightarrow St -TTT -OHP-small writing	-Material -Technical problem -OHP	-Unclear instructions -Not enough time was given for preparation -TTT -T centred -Little use of L2	-Unclear instructions -TTT -Not enough time was given for preparation

NT7		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT7's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT7's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT7's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT7's reflections
	Positive	-Rapport -Group work -Monitors -Sets time for the activity -Good explanation of unknown words in L2 -T \leftrightarrow Sts -Sts (L2)	-Achieved my aims -Use of L2 -Group work -Monitored	-Good presentation -Blackboard (drawings) -T confident -Sts involved -Walls decorated -Controlled practice -Monitors -Classroom mng -Instructions	-Achieved my aims -Blackboard (drawings) -Sts involved -Monitored -Instructions	-Rapport -T confident -Seating arrangement -Classroom mng -Instructions -Equipments	-Achieved my aims -Sts involved -Classroom mng -Seating arrangement - Equipments	- Rapport -T confident -Sets time for each activity -L1/L2 -Monitors Classroom mng -Sts involved -Blackboard -Game -Instructions	-Achieved my aims -Monitored
	Negative	-Instructions -Blackboard -Little St \leftrightarrow St -TTT	-Instructions -Blackboard -Sts quiet	-Long presentation -TTT -Little St \leftrightarrow St	-TTT -Long presentation -Controlled practice	-Time mng	-Time mng -Pre-teaching vocab needed		-Couldn't help all the students -Noisy during feedback stage

NT8		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT8's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT8's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT8's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT8's reflections
	Positive	-T↔Sts -Praises sts -Sts involved	-Achieved my aims -Timing	-Warm-up (speaking activity) -Use of blackboard -Rapport -T↔Sts -St↔St (L2) -Presentation	-Achieved most of my objectives -Sts used L2 -Presentation	-Rapport -T confident -Warm-up -Sts involved -Variety of materials- listening, reading, visual aids, coloured cards -Instructions -Group work - Sts motivated -Monitors -T↔St -St↔St (L1/L2) -Classroom mng -Blackboard	-Achieved my aims -warm-up -Sts involved -Visual aids -Instructions -Coloured cards	N/A	-Achieved my aims -Warm-up -Pictures -Monitored -Pictures
	Negative	-Rapport -Sts not motivated -T centred -Instructions -Classroom mng -TTT -Monitors -St↔St -Too dependent on the book	-Warm-up -Instructions -Activity -Sts not motivated -Pre-reading needed -More follow-up questions -No blackboard use -late comers	-Instructions -TTT -T centred Little St↔St	-More examples needed -Late comers		-Time mng -Follow-up questions needed -Use of L2 during group work	N/A	-Sts not motivated -Sts quiet -Diverted from lesson plan

NT9		Module 1 Researcher's Reflections	NT9's reflections	Module 2 Researcher's Reflections	NT9's reflections	Module 3 Researcher's Reflections	NT9's reflections	Module 4 Researcher's Reflections	NT9's reflections
	Positive	-Blackboard -Drawings, realia, pictures	-Blackboard drawings -Realia, pictures -Well-prepared	-Warm-up -T \leftrightarrow St -Monitored -Classroom mng - Pair work -Sets time for the tasks -Rapport	-Achieved my aims -Monitored	-Warm up -rapport -T confident -Sts involved -OHP, pictures -Blackboard -Monitored -Classroom mng -St \leftrightarrow St	-Achieved my aims -Rapport Use of pictures, OHP -Communicative lesson -St \leftrightarrow St	-Rapport -T confident -Group work (L1 and L2) -Monitored -Sts involved -Classroom mng -Instructions -T \leftrightarrow St -St \leftrightarrow St -Variety of activities	-Achieved my aims -Sts involved -Monitored -Instructions -St \leftrightarrow St
	Negative	-T \leftrightarrow St -Long presentation -Classroom mng -TTT -Rapport Late comers -No St \leftrightarrow St	-Aims -Classroom mng -Examples	-TTT - Use of L1 during pair work -T centred -St \leftrightarrow St (last 10 mins)	-TTT -St \leftrightarrow St -While-reading stage -Comprehension questions	-TTT	-TTT	-Group size	-Grouping

APPENDIX 7: Participant information sheet

Project Title: Novice EFL Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching

Introduction:

The purpose of this study is to discover EFL beginning teachers' beliefs and if/how their beliefs change in their first year of teaching.

Information about Participants' Involvement in the Study

Participants accepting the invitation to take part in this study will be interviewed, observed, and requested to keep a journal. The observations will be video-recorded and the interviews will be audio-taped and transcribed.

The transcriptions will be analysed for patterns relating to teachers' beliefs. The tapes and transcripts will be treated strictly confidential.

Participants will take part in three audio-taped interviews lasting about one hour at Eastern Mediterranean University School of Foreign Languages (EMUSFL) or at an alternative location of the participants' choosing. Four observations will be carried out at teachers' classrooms at EMUSFL. Post-lesson interviews will be conducted within 48 hours to discuss the lesson that has been observed. Lastly, one focus group interview which will be audio and video-recorded will be conducted at the end of the academic year.

Benefits

This study may provide insight into participants' way of teaching. In other words, it may enable them to better understand their individual development and change in their teaching.

Risks

No serious risks to participants are anticipated. As mentioned above, all measure will be taken to assure confidentiality and privacy. Participants may voluntarily withdraw from the study if they choose to do so.

Confidentiality

Data gathered in this study will be kept confidential. All the data will be stored in my residence. My supervisor, internal and external supervisors will have access to the data, if they require. No participant shall be mentioned by name in any written or oral presentation of the findings. Pseudonyms will be used. If there is information that participants prefer to keep in confidence or information that might jeopardize confidentiality, that information will be deleted from the transcripts.

Contact Information

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Besime Erkmen at 0533 8475000 or berkmen@gmail.com , my supervisor

Dr. Ian McGrath ian.mcgrath@nottingham.ac.uk or Nottingham University School of Education, Research Ethics Coordinator , Dr. Andrew Hobson at andrew.hobson@nottingham.ac.uk

APPENDIX 8: Participant consent form

Project title: Novice EFL Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching

Researcher's name: Besime Erkmen

Supervisor's name: Dr. Ian McGrath

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.
- I understand that I will be audiotaped/videotaped during the interviews and observations.
- I understand that data will be stored at the researcher's residence and her supervisor or internal and external examiner will have access to it.
- I understand that I may contact the researcher or supervisor if I require further information about the research, and that I may contact the Research Ethics Coordinator of the School of Education, University of Nottingham, if I wish to make a complaint relating to my involvement in the research.

Signed(research participant)
Print name
Date