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**AN ANALYSIS OF MOTIVATION AND BELIEFS OF PRE-SERVICE EFL
TEACHERS' ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING**

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**An Analysis Of Motivation And Beliefs Of Pre-Service EFL Teachers' About Language
Learning And Teaching**

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(Doctoral Thesis)

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Undertaking

I hereby declare that the Doctoral Thesis “An analysis of motivation and beliefs of pre-service EFL Teachers’ about language learning and teaching” that was written by me, has been prepared in accordance with academic and ethical rules, all the sources and materials I have utilized have been carefully cited in the references.

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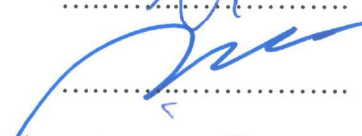

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Özet

İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Dil Öğrenme ve Öğretme Konusundaki Motivasyonlarının ve İnançlarının Analizi

Anaokulundan üniversiteye kadar olan öğrenme tecrübeleri düşünüldüğünde, öğrenme ve öğretme hakkındaki inançlar hem hizmet-içi, hem de hizmet öncesi öğretmenlerin zihinlerine derinlemesine işlemiş ve burada yapılanmıştır. Bu inançlar motivasyon açısından düşünceleri ile beraber öğretmenlerin öğretme davranışları üzerinde oldukça etkilidir. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma hizmet öncesi dönemdeki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dil öğrenme ve öğretme hakkındaki inanç ve motivasyonlarının farklı zaman dilimlerinde nasıl olduğunu ortaya koymayı hedeflemiştir. Çalışma sözkonusu kavramları öğretmen eğitiminin çeşitli aşamalarında: eğitimlerinin ilk yılında ilk üç yıllık eğitim sonrasında ve öğretmen eğitiminin uygulamalı derslerinin tamamlanmasının ardından, araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca çalışmada İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının, dört yıllık öğretmen eğitimi süresince motivasyonları ve inançlarındaki değişikliklerin tanımlanması hedeflenmiştir.

Bu araştırmada karma araştırma metotlarından hem açılımlayıcı sıralı desen hem de yakınsayan paralel desen kullanılmıştır. Çalışma ayrıca uzun süreli çalışma özelliği taşımakla birlikte, odak grupla yapılan bir vaka araştırması olarak da gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmada nicel ve nitel kısımlarında örnekleme Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizce öğretmenliği okuyan öğretmen adayları oluşturmuştur. Veriler altı farklı veri toplama aracıyla elde edilmiştir: Anketler, yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar, yansıtmacı günceler, metafor analiz anketi, ve alan notları. Araştırmada nicel veri araçları, anket ve ölçek, 158 öğretmen adayına uygulanmıştır. Nitel veri yöntemlerinden yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar 34 öğretmen adayı, metafor analiz anketi ise 31 öğretmen adayının katılımı ile gerçekleşmiştir. Yansıtmacı günceler ve saha notları verileri odak grubunu oluşturan 28 öğretmen adayından bir yıl boyunca elde edilmiştir. Nicel verilerin analizi SPSS programı ile, nitel verilerin analizi ise NVivo programı yardımıyla oluşturulmuştur.

Anket sonuçları İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının başladıkları yıl ortalamasının biraz üzerinde inanç düzeyine sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. İlk üç yılın sonunda inançlarının ilk yıla oranla daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Öğretmenlik uygulaması sonrasında en çok dil ve iletişim stratejileri, yabancı dile yatkınlık ve yabancı dil becerileri, motivasyon ve beklentiler kategorisinde önemli bir artış gözlemlenmiştir. Korelasyon analizi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme inançları ve motivasyonları arasında belirgin bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Görüşmeler, saha notları, yansıtmacı günlük ve metafor içerik analizi benzer sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Sonuçlar öğretmen adaylarının öğretme ve öğrenme inançlarında olumlu yönde değişiklikler olduğunu, öğretmen adaylarının eğitimi sonucunda daha yapılandırmacı bir yaklaşım benimsediklerini ve bu konuda daha fazla içerik eğitime ve staj süresince daha motive edici, yönlendirici ve destekleyici bir yaklaşıma ihtiyaç duydukları saptanmıştır. Bu bağlamda öğretmen adaylarına, öğretmen eğitimcilerine ve araştırmacılara önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen, Öğretmen motivasyonu, İnanç değişikliği, öğretmenlik uygulaması, hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimi.

Abstract

An Analysis of Motivation and Beliefs of Pre-service EFL Teachers about Language Learning and Teaching

Considering learning experiences from kindergarten to university, beliefs about learning and teaching are profoundly inserted and constructed in the minds of teachers: in-service and pre-service. These beliefs along with the motivational dispositions of teachers affect their teaching behaviour. Concordantly, the present study aimed at exploring the pre-service EFL teachers' motivation and beliefs about language learning and teaching at different timeframes: in the first year of teacher education, after three years teacher education before the practicum courses in the last year, after the practicum courses, and defining the change processes in pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and motivation over the four years of teacher education.

The present study was adopted both an explanatory sequential design of mixed methods research designs, since the researcher collect and analyze the quantitative data through surveys to enlighten the qualitative one and a convergent design by administering surveys and qualitative data collection instruments such as interviews, reflective journals and metaphor elicitation sheets in concurrent timeframes. The quantitative data collection part of the study consisted of teacher trainees who study ELT training programme at a large public university in Bursa, Turkey. The participants of the qualitative phase of the study were pre-service EFL teachers (PST) at the same university. The data were obtained through six different instruments: survey, scale, semi-structured interviews, reflective journals, metaphor elicitation task and field notes. Belief survey was administered three times to pre-service EFL teachers: at the beginning of the program, before their final year and at the end of the final year. A motivation scale was administered to the same participants. 158 ELT trainees responded to the belief survey and motivation scale. Semi-structured interviews were held with 34 pre-service EFL teachers, metaphor elicitation task with 31 PSTs. The focus group consisted of 28 PSTs. The researcher obtained the data from reflective journals

and field notes through biweekly meetings from this focus group. SPSS for Windows 17.0 was utilized to analyze the survey data and the qualitative data was analyzed by the help of NVivo 10 software.

The survey results indicated that pre-service EFL teachers hold moderately high beliefs in the first year of teacher education. Their beliefs increased after three years teacher education to relatively higher levels. After the practicum courses, an increase in their beliefs about the categories of *language and communication strategies, foreign language ability, motivation and expectation* was observed and they were observed to adopt more constructivist approaches in their beliefs and practices. The comparative analyses also showed that there is a significant relation between pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and motivation. The qualitative data analysis also confirmed the case and also gave insights about the gradual and positive changes in participants' motivation and beliefs about language learning and teaching after the practicum courses. At the end of the process, PSTs claimed a need for training on some methodological aspects and more effective and motivating guidance during the practicum process was observed. In order to meet that needs, several implications were offered for pre-service teachers, teacher educators, program developers and other stakeholders in ELT contexts.

Key Words: Teacher beliefs, Teacher motivation, Belief change, practicum, pre-service teacher education.

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List of Abbreviations

BaLLaT: Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

HEC: Higher Education Council

MoNE: Ministry of National Education

PST: Pre-service EFL Teachers

YÖK: Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu

Chapter I

Introduction

This chapter starts with a concise summary of teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and teacher motivation. This follows with an outline of the theoretical framework, with a specific focus on constructivism and expectancy value theory, the theories that underpin teachers' beliefs and the motivational factors that influence individuals' decision to enter the teaching profession. The next part presents the aims, limitations of the study, and problem statement. The chapter concludes with a statement of the significance of the study.

Background of the Study

Teacher and teaching quality are crucial educational issues that have been on the agenda of the country members of the OECD, including Turkey, for some time (Eurydice, 2012). The demands of teaching in the 21st Century have been well documented recently, and the key roles that teachers' beliefs and motivations play in their pedagogical knowledge have been particularly underlined (see, e.g., Guierriero, 2017).

In educational research, the relation of teachers' beliefs to their professional practices first appeared in Jackson's (1968) book, *Life in the Classroom*, which described the intricacy about the concern of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices (cited in Cummins, Cheek, & Lindsey, 2004). This was followed by an increase in research that examined teacher cognition in diverse areas such as literature, science, mathematics, bilingual instruction, discipline and classroom management, and history as cited by many researchers (Borg, 2003; Cummins et al, 2004; Hall, 2004; Kagan, 1992, Scott, 2015). The field of foreign language teaching has also witnessed an increase in research on teachers' beliefs. An underlying reason for this interest is the important role of beliefs on teachers' decisions related to their practices and thus language improvement (Borg, 2003). Because teachers' beliefs affect the way they interpret events about teaching and their

teaching decisions, they subsequently play an important role in classroom practices of teachers (Woods, 1996). In other words, how teachers act in the classroom is a form of reflection of their beliefs which function like a filter and that “instructional judgments and decisions” are made through this filter (Ashton, 2015; Farrell & Patricia, 2005; Shavelson & Stern, 1981).

The current study discusses two main themes from the framework foreign language teacher beliefs; namely, ‘the conceptualization of teacher beliefs in research’ and ‘the research conducted on/about teacher beliefs’. In addition, a review of studies that have been conducted on the motivational factors that influence individuals’ choices to become a language teacher. Such a review of empirical studies makes it possible to underline the significance of studying these two constructs together in the context of language teacher education.

It is clear from the relevant literature that the study of teacher beliefs is complex. The reason for this difficulty originates from the lack of consensus on the definition of the term ‘teacher beliefs’. For example, Pajaras (1992) indicates that the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs emerges from “definitional problems”, “poor conceptualizations”, and “differing understandings of beliefs and belief structure”. Not surprisingly, there has never been a “consensus among researchers for a clear cut definition of teacher beliefs”. (p.310). Pajares continues to state that the difficulty in arriving at an agreed “working definition” might also be explained by the variety of definitions that have emerged from the diverse fields in which they have been studied.

Another obstacle in defining beliefs is that there is difficulty in distinguishing beliefs and knowledge (Murphy et al, 2004). Pajares (1992) claims that, “beliefs are drawn from judgment and evaluation, whereas knowledge is directly related to objective and verifiable fact” (p. 311). He also stresses that beliefs are more effective than knowledge in terms of understanding “how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behavior” (p. 11). Moreover, there is no clear distinction in the literature between knowledge and beliefs. Grossman, Wilson and Schulman (1989) conclude that “while we are trying to separate teachers’ knowledge and belief

about subject matter for the purposes of clarity, we recognize that the distinction is blurry at best” (p. 31). Verloop (2001) puts the final remark on the issue as “in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions...are inextricably intertwined” (p. 447). The other accepted concepts, in the literature, include ‘explicit propositions’, ‘teachers’ subjectively reasonable beliefs’ ‘implicit theories’, ‘conceptions, ‘personal theories’, ‘personal pedagogical systems’, ‘judgments’ ‘untested assumptions’, ‘perceptions’, ‘pedagogical principles’, ‘theories for practices’, ‘images’ and ‘maxims’ (Breen et al. 2001; Burns 1996; Calderhead 1996; Clark & Peterson 1986; Mohamed, 2006; Richards 1996; Yero 2002).

As a result of analysis and synthesis of other definitions in the field, Borg (2001) puts the final remark on that “...a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment, further; it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour” (p.186). This definition of belief suggests that a person may or may not be aware of his belief and thus a belief may include judgments and be accepted to be accurate by the individual who holds it and that it controls the decisions and actions by the individual.

In order to define the sources of beliefs, Richards and Lockhart (1996) remark that beliefs may include both “subjective and objective dimensions”, and form the “background to much of teachers’ decisions and practices” (p.126). Beliefs are initially formed as a result of individuals’ real-life experiences and education, and strong beliefs about learning and teaching can already be well established by the time a learner finishes his formal education. Beliefs may also stem from other sources in a teacher’s life, such as previous entrenched practices, educational principles, personality factors, empirical evidence, and regulations inspired from a method or an approach (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Regardless of whether the effect of the sources are good or bad, the sources of beliefs about teaching are as diverse as individual characteristics, family, experiences as a learner, classroom background variables, school context, and professional development activities.

A examination of the literature of foreign language teachers' beliefs shows that most of the research has focused on in-service teachers (Blömeke, Hsieh, Kaiser, & Schmidt, 2014; Bowers, 1987; Borg, 2011; Diab, 2005; Erkmen, 2010; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Shinde and Karekatti, 2012; Woods, 2009). Other studies aimed to explore pre-service teachers' beliefs (Assassfeh, 2015; Aypay, 2010; Farrell, 2011; Gürbüz Türk, & Şad, 2009; Güven & Çakır, 2012; İnceçay, 2011; İnözü, 2011; Karabay, 2016; Salı, 2013; Tercanlıoğlu, 2005; Yuan & Lee, 2014). However, a limited number of studies have focused on the change processes of beliefs about teaching and learning English during either teaching practices or teacher education process (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Debreli, 2012; Erkmen, 2010; He & Levin, 2008; Özmen, 2012; Peacock, 2001; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, 2012). Moreover, there has been little research that was aimed at revealing the similarities and differences between either teachers' beliefs and learner beliefs, or teachers' beliefs and pre-service teachers' beliefs (Chatouphonexay & Intaraprasert, 2014; Peacock, 1999; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2011).

A review of the aforementioned research shows that in nearly all of the studies, teacher beliefs were examined in isolation. This may lead to the misunderstanding that beliefs are solely a cognitive construct without any relation to emotions. However, as Vygotsky (1986) affirmed, "thought is not begotten by thought; it is engendered by motivation, i.e., by our desires and needs, our interests and emotions" (p.252). Recently, Schuts and Zembylas (2009) also claimed that individuals' motivational status can be defined as "person-environmental transactions" and that beliefs can serve as "referent points from which individuals' emotional or motivational experiences emerge" (p.202). Current motivational theories, such as appraisal theory, states that beliefs influence the appraisal that is received by an individual, which in turn influences their motivation. Although current models of cognition hold beliefs and motivation as distinct concepts, recent research has shown them to be inextricably intertwined (Clare & Ortony, 2008; Cunningham & Zelazo, 2007; Gill & Hardin, 2014; Gill & Hoffman, 2009).

An examination of the research on teacher motivation reveals that the concepts of motivation, satisfaction or dissatisfaction were explored in isolation. There is a considerable amount of relevant studies that investigate the factors that influenced individuals to become EFL teachers (Dweik & Awajen; 2013; Hastings, 2012; Hiver, Kim & Kim, 2018; Ghengesh, 2013; Igava, 2009; Olulube, 2006) and similar studies that focuses on only pre-service teachers' motivation (Bosnyak & Gancs, 2012; Cheng, Chan, Tang & Cheng, 2009; Eren, 2012; Eren & Tezel, 2010; Eren & Yeşilbursa, 2017a; Eren & Yeşilbursa, 2017b; Kılınc et al, 2012; Kyriacov & Kobori, 1998; Subaşı, 2009; Subaşı, 2010; Thomson, Turner &Nietfeld, 2012; Topkaya&Uztosun, 2012;; Watt & Richardson, 2007; Watt & Richardson, 2008; Watt, Richardson, Klusman, 2012; Watt, Richardson,& Wilkins, 2014; Weissbein, Huang, Ford &Scmidt, 2011).

Another set of studies related to pre-service teachers' motivation focuses on the change processes that they experienced either during practicum processes or teacher education or in profession (Bruinsma& Jansen, 2010; Canrinus & Bruinsma, 2014; Kubanyiova, 2006; Sinclair, 2008). Although there are many studies focusing on motivation of teachers or pre-service teachers, only few studies attempted to explore pre-service teachers' beliefs in association with their motivation and aiming to understand the relationship between beliefs and motivation (Barcelos, 2015; Thomson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012) or beliefs, hopes and professional plans (Eren & Yeşilbursa, 2017; Eren &Yeşilbursa, 2019).

To support the effectiveness of teaching in an EFL classroom, it seems very important to identify the kinds of beliefs teacher trainees hold, along with their beliefs, their motivation, the intertwined concept, need to be considered together.

Theoretical Framework

As Eccles and Wigfield (2002) state, current motivation theories focus on “the interrelationships of beliefs and goals with action to engage in tasks” (p.112). As Watt and Richardson (2015) claim, that it is timely to add a “motivational lens” to our interpretation of

teacher beliefs and to consider “what each has in common” and to conduct research where “productive cross-fertilization may occur”. (p. 204). The current study is based upon this claim.

In order to understand pre-service teachers’ beliefs and motivation, the theoretical perspectives of how we understand beliefs and motivation individually and together will be discussed in the following section.

Constructivist perspective. According to the constructivist view of learning, an individual’s views about the world are constructed via his/her interactions with the environment (Brown, 1996; Pintrich & Groot, 1990). As Swars, Smith, and Hart (2009) state, teacher beliefs from the constructivist perspective are the “mental representations, integral components” (p. 48) of one’s conscious thoughts. They continue to claim that much research on teachers’ beliefs over the last three decades have been conducted with the assumption that teaching, and thus learning, develop if the practitioners have beliefs about teaching and learning which are constructivist and learner-based. Moreover, as Fives and Gill (2015) note, in most of the research on pre-service teacher beliefs, changes in pre-service teachers’ beliefs are attributed to different sources, including methodological courses based on constructivist theory, and the opportunity to reflect on their own beliefs and experiences during teaching practice.

In constructivist theory, personal epistemology consists of general and subject-specific beliefs, and all are socially constructed. Muis, Bendixen and Harlie (2006) emphasize that general beliefs are not related to subject specific beliefs and may be held lifelong. Moreover, research has shown that these epistemologies are consistent with constructivist teaching practices (Muis, 2004; Yang, Chang, & Hsu, 2008). Ravitz, Becker, and Wong (2000) who conducted research on beliefs and practices with a large cohort of teachers in US, state that there are two “overarching approaches to teaching” behind all teacher belief and belief change studies: “traditional transmission instruction and constructivist-compatible instruction” (p.86).

Teacher motivation theories. There are three main motivation theories related to teacher motivation: “expectancy-value theory” (EVT) (Eccles, 2005, 2009), “self-determination theory” (SDT), and “achievement goal theory” (AGT). SDT is known with its focus on the motivation, controlled to autonomous, which is fed with one’s competence to progress. AGT, is on the other hand, based on an individuals’ own beliefs about his or her ability implicitly adopted and result in “performance/ego versus mastery/task goals” (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 229). The current study is based on EVT, which is the theory that underpins Watt and Richardson’s (2007, 2008) FIT-Choice model.

Expectancy-value theory. EVT theory is the motivational theory on which the procedures, analysis and discussion of pre-service EFL teachers’ motivational concepts of the current research will be based. In EVT, individuals’ expectancies, background socialization, experiences and values are important factors influences “their achievement related choices, over and above demonstrated skill and abilities” (Eccles, 2005, 2009). The expectancies in this theory refer to the belief of individuals about how well their performances on a task are. They are developed over time by individuals’ experiences and interpretations of them. EVT also provides coherent and beneficial framework to develop and organize a research focusing the motivation to become teachers since the motivations are mapped constructs in the framework of this theory. It also allows motivation researchers to put “previously identified motivations within an integrative and comprehensive model” which provide additional motivations (Eccles, 2009, p.81).

Approaches to the research on teacher beliefs and motivation. In the development of research on motivations, values and beliefs, the researchers should meticulously consider some macro factors: cultural factors rooted in cultural and social experiences, events and behaviours and micro factors results from the interactions between people in the contexts. (Brown, 1996; Butler, 2012, Fives & Gill, 2015). The researcher also should not fail to notice values, motivations and beliefs cannot exist independently from the individuals’ specific cultural and social contexts. In

this regard, the approaches to the study of teacher beliefs and motivation fall into two categories: *emic* and *etic* approaches.

Emic approaches. Emic approaches consist of the interpretative analysis of observation and interview data, and focus on a specific goal rather than generalization. Emic studies conduct detailed exploration of research phenomenon. They are generally large scale longitudinal studies and attempt to explore how teacher motivation develops, changes and is interpreted in dynamic relations with the relevant factors (i.e student, school, classroom). In emic studies, the focus is mostly on psychological variables rather than situational and contextual factors. The multilevel modelling of emic approaches provide researchers to examine teachers or student teachers within their settings by looking at the impacts of people or school on participants motivation, belief, emotion and engagement (Turner & Patrick, 2008; Watt & Richardson, 2015).

Etic approaches. Etic approaches attempt to describe the research phenomena as adaptable in other cultures. Here, teacher or student teachers' beliefs and motivation are interpreted through broader perspectives such as educational policies, organizational systems, practices in schools or teaching and learning environment. As the participants, teachers and student teachers, practice in mentioned context, their motivation and beliefs will likely be affected by socio-cultural factors in these environments. Unlike emic approaches, etic approaches offer research platforms where teacher beliefs and motivation can be examined across settings and studies and compared across contexts and samples and even studies. As teacher motivation and beliefs are affected by socio-cultural factors, they can be examined in a combination of etic and emic approaches through incorporated data collection methods such as self-report and observation (Fives & Gill, 2015).

Purpose of the Study

The overall purpose of this study is primarily to describe pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and motivation. The specific aim is to examine and understand the ELT trainees' beliefs about language teaching and learning at certain times within the four-year teacher education process and

the factors influencing their motivation to become English language teachers. The current study also aims to trace the changes in their beliefs and motivation during their pre-service education process. In line with these aims, the current study sets out to identify: pre-service EFL teachers' (PSTs) beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning in the first year of teacher education, PSTs' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after three years teacher education before the practicum courses, PSTs' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after the practicum courses, the changes in PSTs' beliefs over the four years of teacher education, PSTs' motivations for becoming language teachers, relationship between PSTs' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their motivation for becoming teachers.

Research Questions

In line with the aim of the current study, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning in the first year of teacher education?
2. What are PSTs' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after three years teacher education before the practicum courses?
3. What are PSTs' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after the practicum courses?
4. Are there any changes in PSTs' beliefs over the four years of teacher education?
5. What are PSTs' motivations for becoming language teachers?
6. Is there any relationship between PSTs' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their motivation for becoming teachers?

Limitations of the Study

As with any scientific study, the current study has a number of limitations that can be addressed in future research. The first is regarding the sample size. The present study utilized convenience sampling method because it focuses on two sets of participants who were registered

on the ELT programme at one university. The first set is a large group of PSTs consisting of 158 participants, and the latter is a focus group of 28 participants that was extracted on a voluntary basis from the larger group. Even though the size of the participants was appropriate to examine the research focus among the variables, future studies based on larger samples and from different universities could provide more comprehensive results.

The second limitation is related to the characteristics of the participants. Although it is critical to explore the pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs and motivation about language learning and teaching, and career choice to be able to see how these constructs intertwine during the first steps of their professional teaching career, further research can be conducted with participants from both in-service and pre-service contexts. In this way, it would be possible to compare the variables at each phase of professional development in order to gain a comprehensive and clear view of the relationships among their beliefs, motivation and actual practices in EFL contexts.

Finally, the current study is descriptive in nature and the findings cannot be interpreted as causal. Hence, experimental or case studies in longitudinal nature in which PSTs' beliefs and motivation towards teaching, professional commitment and development, the impact of their beliefs on their practices or a combination of these factors examined through long-time observations, and surveys before and after the practicum processes are required to present more comprehensive evidence of any existing causal relationship.

Problem Statement

It is crucial to study teachers' beliefs because they act as filters through which teachers perceive and make judgments about their practices. This sometimes result in negative consequences for some learners if they are not assumed, targeted and prepared for in teachers' beliefs system: teachers either not recognize them or undermine their progress indelibaretly. Farrel (2011) also support this view that teachers are often not aware of their beliefs about teaching and learning and even whether these beliefs may help or hinder learning in the classroom. Lucas,

Villegas and Martin (2015) state that while studying teachers' beliefs, we should also focus on what variables are associated with these beliefs. They claim that looking at these variables together can provide more functional coherence than can be found in the studies examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. With such a research focus, researchers can highlight some elements of teachers' knowledge, ability and motivation with specific reference to their beliefs to enhance the quality of teaching and pre-service teacher preparation programmes (Calderhead, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Through the spread of such research findings, pre-service and in-service teachers alike can find opportunities to reflect on their attitudes and to challenge their beliefs and assumptions about self, learning, teaching, learners and other educational concepts. In this regard, researchers need to examine both groups critically for their beliefs by taking into consideration teacher education, current teaching practices, and motivational dispositions (Pajares, 1992). Without such critical reflection, teachers' or student teachers' effectiveness in language teaching contexts might be jeopardized because of misconstruction of learner behaviour, language teaching and learning. (Fives & Buehl, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

A review of the extant literature to date revealed that, to the researcher's current knowledge, no research has yet surveyed the two variables (i.e., teachers' beliefs and motivations) together comprehensively in a longitudinal manner. Therefore, the researcher attempted to explore these two closely related concepts through both quantitative and qualitative procedures over the four-year period of foreign language teacher education. In this way, it is hoped that the findings about what beliefs pre-service EFL teachers' they hold about teaching and learning English, if there are any changes in their beliefs at different stages of teacher education, their motivations for choosing teaching as a career, the relationship between beliefs about language teaching and learning and motivation for teaching, how these influenced their practices, the direction and the content of the changes in these constructs.

Significance of the Study

This study is assumed to be significant in several respects. One of the general purposes of investigating motivation and beliefs is to understand ELT teacher trainees' standpoint which will affect the way they interpret events about teaching and their teaching decisions related to their practices in teaching (Woods, 1996, Borg, 2003). In this regard, as for possible theoretical and practical implications, the present study will attempt to utilize the findings.

The majority of studies on teacher cognition have been based on surveys (see, e.g. Horwitz, 1999; Kunt, 1997; Ravitz, Becker, & Wong, 2000; Yang, 1999). The current study, however, will be conducted with pre-service EFL teachers in three consecutive survey administrations over a four-year period of foreign language teacher education. To the researcher knowledge, no research has yet been conducted in a longitudinal nature with EFL PSTs in three levels of a pre-service teacher education programme. Thus, the uniqueness of the participants contributes to the significance of the study.

The mixed-method design of the current study also adds strength to the current study. Namely, a large group of pre-service teachers was involved to draw a general picture of beliefs and motivation; and a smaller focus group to delve into the deeper details of belief and motivational constructs and the changes. The findings obtained from through different data collection methods at different times, thus, offer insights into PSTs' motivation, beliefs and changes in beliefs during the four-year teacher education programme, and more specifically during the practicum process.

Moreover, the findings of the current study can notify PSTs, teacher educators, policy makers and other stakeholders in ELT field over the beliefs PSTs hold, their motivational dispositions, the change processes, and also which factors cause change in these constructs. In this way, related partners can assist pre-service teachers during their whole teacher education process

at the faculties and during their first years in the profession to maintain teacher development and retention.

Furthermore, the current study aims to draw teacher educators' attention to the fact that beliefs and motivation are intertwined concepts that are critical in understanding how PSTs see and value their profession. Therefore, the stakeholders can develop both the content and procedures of ELT programmes over courses, tasks and practices within the whole process of their education that may have the probability to encourage them to reveal their beliefs and motivation and maintain a more positive attitude towards language teaching.

The comparison of the beliefs and motivation also sheds light to stakeholders, especially policy researchers to explore the connection in and consequent on wider system in which PSTs' self-beliefs are rooted. The findings of beliefs and motivation and underlying factors can give insights about the PSTs actual practices, learner outcomes, as well as ways to sustain PSTs as strong and effective practitioners/professionals in diverse contextual settings.

Chapter II

Literature Review

Teachers' Beliefs

In educational research, the relation of teachers' beliefs to their professional practices has increasingly attracted attention in recent years. The issue first appeared in Jackson's book, *Life in the Classroom* (1968), which described the intricacy about the concern of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practice (cited in Cummins, Cheek, and Lindsey, 2004). Following Jackson's book, the examination of teacher cognition has appealed many researchers in various areas; such as, literature, science, mathematics, bilingual instruction, discipline and classroom management, and history as cited by many researchers (e.g., Borg, 2003; Cummins et al, 2004; Hall, 2004; Kagan, 1992). Teaching a foreign language is also one of those areas in which studying teachers' beliefs have received a great interest. An underlying reason for this interest is the important role of beliefs on teachers' decisions related to their practices (Borg, 2003). Since the teachers' beliefs affect the way they interpret events about teaching and their teaching decisions (Woods, 1996), it subsequently plays an important role in classroom practices. In other words, how teachers act in the classroom is a form of reflection of their beliefs which function like a filter and that "instructional judgments and decisions" are made through this filter (Shavelson & Stern, 1981 cited in Farrell & Patricia, 2005).

Conceptual Framework

As this is a very fundamental issue that has the probability to effect every action in a classroom, related to either teaching or learning, there becomes a considerable need to search on it. Thus, this paper attempts to review the literature on what language teachers believe, think and know, and the relationship between these thoughts and what teachers actually perform in classroom settings. Basically, it begins with a conceptualization of 'What teacher belief is'. Then, within the framework of "research on teacher beliefs", with specific reference to language teacher beliefs within this research is here presented covering two main themes: "the conceptualization of teacher

beliefs in research” and “the research conducted on/about teacher beliefs”. Throughout this chapter, it can be clearly seen that the belief oriented assumptions and the generalizations derived from empirical studies about teachers’ beliefs can help as a mirror to why ‘teachers’ beliefs’ is needed to be studied and how important it is to study teachers’ beliefs.

In the literature, there is a consensus on the idea that making research on teachers’ beliefs is a very complex issue. The rationale behind this difficulty is generally defined in relation to its definition. Pajares (1992) indicates that the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs emerges from “definitional problems”, “poor conceptualizations”, and “differing understandings of beliefs and belief structure”. Not surprisingly, there has never been a consensus among researchers for a clear cut definition of teacher beliefs. The difficulty in defining beliefs might also be explained by the variety of definitions with in the fields in which they have been studied (Pajaras, 1992, p. 314). As beliefs are studied in various fields, it has been problematic for researchers to adopt a particular “working definition” for beliefs.

Another obstacle in defining beliefs is that there is difficulty in distinguishing beliefs and knowledge (Murphy et al, 2004). Pajares (1992: p.311) claims that, “beliefs are drawn from judgment and evaluation, whereas knowledge is directly related to objective and verifiable fact”. It is also claimed that beliefs are more effective than knowledge in terms of understanding “how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behavior” (Pajares, 1992, p.311). Moreover, it is not clearly asserted in the literature that there is a clear distinction between knowledge and beliefs. Grossman, Wilson and Schulman (1989, p. 31) conclude that “while we are trying to separate teachers’ knowledge and belief about subject matter for the purposes of clarity, we recognize that the distinction is blurry at best”. Verloop (2001) puts the final remark on the issue as “in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions...are inextricably intertwined” (p. 447).

Although described as “the most valuable psychological construct” in teacher education, beliefs have been conceded as it is not that much easy to define. There have been different assumed concepts throughout the literature. In an attempt to conceptualize those, Pajares (1992, p.2) names them a “messy construct [that] travels in disguise and often under alias.” The other assumed concepts, in the literature, include “explicit propositions”, “teachers’ subjectively reasonable beliefs” “implicit theories”, “conceptions”, “personal theories”, “personal pedagogical systems”, “judgments” “untested assumptions”, “perceptions”, “pedagogical principles”, “theories for practices”, “images” and “maxims” (Breen et al. 200; Burns 1996; Calderhead 1996; Clark & Peterson 1986; Mohamed, 2006; Richards 1996; Yero 2002).

As a result of analysis and synthesis of other definitions in the field, Borg (2001, p.186) concludes that “...a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment, further; it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour”. This definition of belief suggests that a person may or may not be aware of his belief. Moreover, it is asserted by this definition that a belief includes a judgment and accepted to be accurate by the individual who holds it and that it controls the decisions and actions made by the individual.

In order to define the sources of beliefs, Richards and Lockhart (1996) points that beliefs may include both subjective and objective dimensions and formed the background to much of teachers’ decisions and practices. Beliefs are formed early in their life as a result of an individuals’ education and experience, and strong beliefs about learning and teaching are well established by the time a learner finishes his formal education. Beliefs may also lay back to other sources in teacher’s life, for instance, previous established practices, their personality factors, educational principles exposed, research-based evidence, and principles inspired from an approach or method (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Without regarding whether the effect of the sources are good or bad, the sources of beliefs for teaching certainly vary such as individual characteristics, family,

experiences as a learner, classroom background variables, school context, and professional development activities. The sources of beliefs and/or the determination of the most effective one might be the starting point for a further study. The Figure 1 illustrates the possible sources of teachers' beliefs:

Experience as language learners	➤	It 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.

Figure 1. Sources of teachers' beliefs and the underlying rationales (Richards and Lockhart, 1996).

Constructivist theory and teachers' beliefs. The constructivist pedagogies are an increasing chunk of "teacher education course work" along with the prospects which arise from the intelligent world. In an intellectual world, the knowledge is seen as "generated rather than received, mediated by discourse rather than transferred by teacher talk, explored and transformed rather than remembered as a uniform set of positivistic ideas" (Holt-Reynolds, 2000, p.35). In addition, the character of a teacher is very obvious to progress or to shape the thinking of students through constructivist pedagogies for teacher educators who actually promote the strategies (Holt-Reynolds, 2000).

According to the constructivist view of learning, an individual's views about the world are constructed via his/her interactions with the environment (Brown, 1996; Pintrich, 1990). As Swars, Smith, and Hart (2009) state, teacher beliefs from the constructivist perspective are the "mental

representations, integral components” (p. 48) of one’s conscious thoughts. They continue to claim that much research on teachers’ beliefs over the last three decades have been conducted with the assumption that teaching, and thus learning, develop if the practitioners have beliefs about teaching and learning which are constructivist and learner-based. Moreover, as Fives and Gill (2015) note, in most of the research on pre-service teacher beliefs, changes in pre-service teachers’ beliefs are attributed to different sources, including methodological courses based on constructivist theory, and the opportunity to reflect on their own beliefs and experiences during teaching practice.

In constructivist theory, personal epistemology consists of general and subject-specific beliefs, and all are socially constructed. Muis, Bendixen and Harlie (2006) emphasize that general beliefs are not related to subject specific beliefs and may be held lifelong. Moreover, research has shown that these epistemologies are consistent with constructivist teaching practices (Muis, 2004; Yang, Chang, & Hsu, 2008). Ravitz, Becker and Wong (2000) who conducted research on beliefs and practices with a large cohort of teachers in US, state that there are two “overarching approaches to teaching” behind all teacher belief and belief change studies: “traditional transmission instruction and constructivist-compatible instruction” (p.86).

According to Richardson (1996), beliefs are thought to have two functions in learning to teach. The first relates to the constructivist theories of learning that suggest that students bring beliefs to a teacher education program that “strongly influence what and how they learn. The second function relates to beliefs as the focus of change in the process of education” (Richardson, 1996, p. 105).

The accountable agendas of teacher education help numerous customers. The philosophies of informally arbitrated information are important for these types of communities of classroom. In addition, the pedagogies of constructivist have provided emerge for the participation descriptions along with their stress on “reflecting, inquiring, talking, writing and project-centred learning” (Holt-Reynold, 2000, p.45). The pedagogies of a teacher who is capable for using personal

expertise along with an authority as a teacher for generating a culture of classroom which requests and principles the involvement of students in intelligent errands. The teacher educators who support these types of instructive strategies suppose that the teachers will use them as the backgrounds in which they can directly form well as expand the thinking of the students (Ball & McDiarmid, 1989).

This factor focuses on the engagement of students in the involvement which might be misled for the potential teachers. Moreover, teacher educators already recognise and also comprehend that the constructivist instructions are castoff by the teachers for helping students to raise, modify and learn. In addition to this, teacher educators also recognise that the involvement of students is not an end in itself. However, it is a context or a mean in which the teachers work help the students for thinking, questioning and also revising the comprehension along with learning something related to a concept of teacher for setting out to teach (Holt-Reynolds, 2000). The constructivist pedagogies are an increasing part of teacher education course work. Moreover, the expectations arise from an intelligent world where information is realised as generated rather than received (Glaserfeld, 1991). The accountable agendas of the teacher education aid numerous customers. It is seen in the institutional classroom that the chief customers and potential teachers. In addition, the secondary clients are also seen in the eyes of potential educators. The theories of “socially mediated knowledge” are basic for the classroom communities. There are multiple programs of teacher education implicitly, explicitly and usually completely impulse prospective teachers for implementing few types of “social constructivist epistemology” (Holt-Reynolds et al., 2000).

Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching

The purpose of education might shape the beliefs of teachers related to appropriate factors in the teaching and in the conceptions of teachers in terms of teachers' specialised part. The origins of teachers' beliefs part might form their practices in teaching. To reflect and to attempt for

comprehension the beliefs of teachers can impact the teaching which is critical for the development of teachers along with a change in “role conceptions and in teaching practices” (Tatto, 1998).

When a large and growing body of literature has been investigated, it is clearly seen that there are much studies related to the teachers’ beliefs with diverse focuses. The first large set of these studies were mostly related to the learners’ beliefs about language learning. The learner profile in recent studies ranges from graduate and undergraduate students (Fujiwara, 2011; Saeb & Zamani, 2013; Suwanarak, 2012; Yang, 1999) to high school or secondary school students (Chang & Schen, 2005; Horwitz, 1985; Horwitz, 1988; Liao, 2007; Öz, 2007). The rest of the studies are related to teachers’ beliefs, some focus on in-service teachers (Blömeke, Hsieh, Kaiser, Schmidt, 2014; Borg, 2011; Bowers, 1987; Diab, 2005; Erkmen, 2010; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Shinde & Karekatti, 2012; Woods, 2009) and some studies aimed to explore on pre-service teachers’ beliefs (Asassfeh, 2015; Aypay, 2010; Farrell, 2011; Gürbüztürk, & Şad, 2009; Güven & Çakır, 2012; İnceçay, 2011; İnözü, 2011; Karabay, 2016; Salı, 2013; Tercanlıoğlu, 2005; Yuan & Lee, 2104). The main aim of these studies is to describe what language learning beliefs in-service or pre-service teachers hold in several contexts at certain times. Moreover, limited number of studies focuses on the belief change during either teaching practices or teacher education process (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Debreli, 2012; Erkmen, 2010; He & Levin, 2008; Özmen, 2012; Peacock, 2001). Limited research were also observed aiming to see the similarities and differences between either teachers’ beliefs and learner beliefs or teachers’ beliefs and trainee beliefs (Chatouphonexay & Intaraprasert, 2014; Peacock, 1999; Sadeghi & Abdi, 2011). Additionally, a considerable amount of literature has been published with specific reference to review of belief studies (Fives & Gill, 2015; Gabillon, 2012; Horwitz, 1999; Pettit, 2011; Reynolds, 2000; Rifkin, 2000; Tatto, 1998; Wesely, 2012; Zheng, 2009).

An exploration of language teacher perception is a tremendously complex matter. The most critical factor in the overall cognition of teachers is their experience. This involves the expertise of

teachers of their own learning experience in college or in university either it is good or bad it does not matter. In addition to this, teachers also learn from their own experience and try to manage their involvement in an excellent manner in the future (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Inclination of such research is to explore the “EFL teachers’ pedagogical beliefs through the investigation of not only what beliefs do teachers have of teaching and to learn English in an environment of instructed language (Li et al., 2011).

Moreover, majority EFL teachers also increase their level of awareness by reading multiple articles and also by learning from different sessions or seminars (Barnard & Burns, 2012). The professional experience of teachers also helps them to learn in many different manners. They learn from interacting with their colleagues and with their seniors by having communication in a broader way (Barnard & Burns, 2012; Freeman, 2002). Teachers help other teachers in a learning phase because this process of communication increases the knowledge of every teacher by helping each other in a learning phase. In addition to all this, teachers have powerfully detained the principles which the teachers cannot usually keep in the training (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

According to Cameron and Larsen-Freeman (2008), there are several reasons which are important to comprehend through exploring particular contexts in which EFL teachers can work. Moreover, every context is a system which is complicated as well as dynamic in nature (Barnard & Burns, 2012). In every context, temporal, physical, cognitive, cultural and social aspects interrelate for providing affordances for a practical implementation of beliefs related to learning and teaching. In return, it impacts on beliefs of teachers and what actually they know (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Furthermore, EFL teaching and learning takes place under few temporal and physical boundaries that can affect the capability of teachers or may be their willingness to act according with personal beliefs (Barnard & Burns, 2012). To comprehend practices of teachers must be

strengthened through the awareness of nature of affective and cognitive styles along with strategies between learners (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Beliefs are considered as a dominant paradigm in each castigation that pacts with the behaviour of an individual and learning. The principles of teachers impact the consciousness of the teachers, attitude of the teaching, means of teaching and also the approaches of EFL teaching (Horwitz, 1985). The beliefs of teachers are the thought in order to have a significant part of previous information by which the tutors observe, process as well as action on the material in a classroom (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Freeman, 2002; Munby, 1982).

The opinions of EFL teachers strongly impact teaching behaviour and finally development of learners. The creation of educational beliefs of teachers in teaching and in language process exerts and visible effect on the formation of teaching methods. The practices of EFL teachers along with their beliefs pertaining the teaching and learning of foreign languages among students and trainees, holds grave importance not only for the effectiveness of the teaching method but also for the environment of learning. Moreover, the beliefs of the EFL teachers can either result in motivating the teacher to deliver enhanced performance. On the contrary, a disbelief among the EFL teachers would ultimately result in unsettling the whole procedurerelated toteaching as well as learning. This is the reason, that empirical studies are conducted in a large number, to understand how teachers' beliefs could impact the lesson delivery to the students.

Moreover, it can also bring an improvement in the language of learners in their learning capabilities (Horwitz, 1985). In the last two decades, the researchers of second language have expanded a huge effort on the long term factors of learning a language. The study explains that the discretetestudents differentiate in the usage to learn the policies and approaches (Green et al., 2013). In addition to all this, the researches on the beliefs of language learning started with an initial research in the differences of the individuals among the effective learners as well as the unsuccessful learners. Epistemological beliefs may impact the learning by a link with different

approaches of learning. The “surface learning” focuses on the resulted goals which involves obtaining a qualification (Green et al., 2013).

Tercanlioglu (2005) carried out a quantitative descriptive study on investigating whether gender have a role in motivating student teachers to learn foreign language and engage into teaching that foreign language to the students. Moreover, the research was also intended on identifying whether expectation of learning and belief that teaching is a beneficial career has a relation with motivation to become a teacher student (Tercanlioglu, 2005). The research used a sample of 118 English teaching teachers. The further breakdown of the sample revealed with 73 female and 45 male teachers among the research participants. To attain the objectives of the research, Tercanlioglu (2005) utilised “Horwitz’s Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory” (BALLI). The outcomes of Tercanlioglu (2005) recommended that sexual category does not have an influence on the decision of a student teacher for teaching English as a second language to the students.

The gender differences in teaching English as a foreign language denies the common phenomenon, that female teachers are more skilful and helpful in the development of the students. The fact that more and more male teachers are now engaging into EFL teaching is indicative of the fact that teaching is not merely a profession which yields good financial remuneration, but also is considered as a prestigious profession (Tercanlioglu, 2005). Teachers, in current case EFL teachers, are considered to be the major contributor to the well-being of the society, therefore they hold a respectable position in the society, neglecting the gender roles and biasness (Tercanlioglu, 2005).

The aim of the research is an exploration of “EFL teachers” educational opinions through the investigation of the beliefs of educators. To this point, what could be inferred from the literature reviewed previously to develop a coherent discussion, is that teacher’s belief get effected through numerous factors. Not only the teachers have belief on the career choices, but the motivation to make the career choice should be determined by self and not under the pressure from external

stimulators. The EFL teachers' expectations regarding financial remunerations, career growth and retirement also shapes up the beliefs pertaining what could be achieved while remaining in the same profession, as compare what could have been achieved if the EFL teacher would have made a different career choice. In addition to motivation and expectations, the nature of language which is being taught by the language teacher reduces or increases the level of motivation to stay committed to the teaching career (Li et al., 2011).

It is reported by Peacock (2001) that there very few studies which examines the beliefs of "pre-service EFL teachers" and also many other challenges which are significant for further investigation. For instance, the beliefs can be linked with multiple factors like experience of language learning, academic performance and age. In addition to all these aspects, it is showed by Bacon and Finnerman (1992) that the beliefs of "second language learning" is also expected through the gender of an individual. It was found in the research that women have reported significant amount that they feel motivated towards learning a new language as compared to the students who are male. Bacon and Finnerman (1992) also found that women have greater usage of universal strategies to deal with appropriate input beside with the advanced level of social communication with a language which is targeted. The motivation and expectations of teachers effects the teaching behaviour in a manner that nature of language teacher decreases or increases the motivation for committing to the career of teaching (Li et al., 2011).

In addition to all this, it is crucial for the teachers to adopt different attitudes in a significant manner. It brings opportunities for the teachers, which helps them to grow their culture in their field and make them up to the date according to the new knowledge as well as the information. Moreover, the reflective studies are also very much crucial for the teachers to access themselves and to know their position in their field (Tercanlioglu, 2005).

Moreover, it has also been observed that the majority of the beliefs remain unchanged in the previous researches. The beliefs of the teachers related to the students changes time to time. In

addition to this, the change in those beliefs validates the more positive concepts and ideas of the students along with the few concepts which involves the concept that the teachers are now having the expertise in their beliefs and in their values because they are progressing in their profession now.

Ozmen (2012) supported a longitudinal research for exploring that what the beliefs of the student teachers are concerning about learning a new language and teaching. The study was based on a longitudinal paradigm, carried out over the period of four years. The study was set out in Turkey, in which the researcher selected a sample of 49 student teachers and aimed at tracking any change in belief that might have occurred among the selected 49 student teachers on the course of English Learning Education program. The findings of the primary and secondary research activity carried out by Ozmen (2012) suggested that the student teachers' decision to learn English and engage into teaching profession varied on the course of completing the ELE program. The more engaging they found the course material, the more they felt motivated to believe that learning a new language and teaching would enhance their career skills and the opportunities to excel in their careers. The crux of this study revolved around beliefs and motivation of the student teachers to adopt teaching as a profession. They were of the view that by teaching English language to Turkish students, they will get a chance for further enhancing the communication and collaboration skills. The constructivist view of the findings suggested that student turned teachers for teaching English language were majorly motivated by the fact, teachers are mentors and they receive enormous respect and empathy from the students, which in return further motivates to re learn and teach even more efficiently (Ozmen, 2011; Ozmen, 2012; Wright, 2010;). In the study (Watt et al., 2007), the authors have used present persuasive representations from the works of motivation in order to generate a wide-ranging factors persuading the choice of teaching “(FIT-Choice) scale” in order to ration the aspects which impacts the choice of teaching to begin the “pre-service teacher education candidates”.

They are not practical and also they are not theoretical reflections purely in the professional education (Clandinin, 1989). It was proclaimed by Williams and Burden (1997) that previous beliefs of teachers related to learning of language infuse in to the performances of classroom more than a specific methodology which teachers have already learnt in the duration of their education programs of teaching. In accumulation to this, the fiction on the beliefs of educator gives evidence which shows that beliefs of teacher can be implicit and can also be explicit both (Ainscough, 1997; Borg, 2003; Breen, 2001; Freeman, 1998; Freeman, 2002).

Beliefs about language learning and communication strategies. The EFL teachers' belief associated to "learning and communication strategies" in foreign language environment is mainly based on ensuring to establish an environment, where students or trainees are encouraged to communicate in the foreign language (Green et al., 2013). This needs to be achieved without establishing an appropriate environment in which learners do not feel a sense of being ridiculed while speaking a language. An approach in EFL teachers' beliefs include the striving for attaining highly while organising the efficiency of one time. In relevant research the epistemological beliefs are associated with the approaches of teaching learning and communication strategies (Green et al., 2013).

Pragmatic studies of theories have mainly dedicated (Dubberke et al. 2008; Clark & Peterson, 1986) and on keen EFL teachers of secondary and primary schools (Grigutsch 1996; Leder et al. 2006). In addition to this, for exploring various contributions of teachers in terms of language-cognition is the most complicated factor to be evaluated. At first, the aim to teach the language has been extended in the last few of the years. To comprehend the structure of the linguistics at the level of sentence for communicating with the competence at the higher level of the discourse to the power of the communicative pragmatic. The most critical factor in the overall cognition of the teachers is their experience to teach a language by being aware of how to ease learning and communication in the classroom (Burnard & Burns, 2012).

Beliefs about foreign language aptitude. In the relevant research, it is noticed that the few individuals learn a foreign language or second language with huge amount of ease and added rapidly along with better results as compared to the others. There is a perspective of this process which is an idea of “Foreign Language Aptitude (FLA)”. Moreover, in original, a notion of “Foreign Language Aptitude (FLA)” is assumed as a relatively stable talent to learn a foreign language which is different between every individual (Wen, 2011).

Foreign language learners usually grasp different beliefs related to language learning (Horwitz, 1987). Moreover, different prevailing research recommends that the opinions of learners have the possibility to impact the involvements and activities both as the language learners. The current definitions related to beliefs which are found in the education of foreign language majorly focuses on the thinking process of teachers relate to a nature of foreign languages as well as teaching and learning. In addition, in the past fifteen years, researches of teacher education have made vital advances in the studies of opinions of teachers. Moreover, the construction among teacher beliefs and practice of education that previously established (see Calderhead 1996; Thompson, 1992). In accordance of Brown and McGannon (1998) and Breen (1991), it is settled that the educators had multiple of improper opinions related to in what way second languages are educated and also how it can impact their teaching practices. It is suggested by Brown and McGannon (1998) that it is significant to help trainees echo because “students bring beliefs to a teacher education program that influence what and how they learn” (Richardson, 1996).

Beliefs about motivations and expectations. While it has been generally established that there is a connection among the beliefs of the students and their capability of learning languages. There have not been many studies conducted to explore student expectations, commitment, success and satisfaction related to their classes. Some studies have focused on learner error and interlanguage systems but they fail to regard the entire perspective of the system. One aspect which they seem to neglect is the conceptions of language learning tasks. Some scholars have begun

investigations into this topic. Holec (2005, p. 27), presents the concept that the learner of a language has to undergo a psychological process of becoming unconditioned/decondition which prepares them for learning another language. It effectively eliminates the bias of previous experiences, particularly those tied to language. He also illustrates that learning as a process is ambiguous and offers the comments of different individuals to elaborate.

There is no doubt that an upsurge under the motivation of learners has an essential implication practically. In addition, there is an enhancing identification through the motivational psychology which processes that motivation cannot be eliminated from the complicated socio-contextual factors. Practically, it clearly shows that any instructive suggestions, derived by the experiential study, are not usually generalisable in every situation of classroom.

Moreover, it is also found by Veenman (1984) that EFL teachers graded difficulties in motivating students as the second most thoughtful basis of problem. The first basis of problem is classified as the maintenance of discipline in classroom. There are also other problems faced by teachers which include an operative use of textbooks in the classroom. The problem to increase the motivation factor of students still remains a dominant issue for the experts as well. Moreover, the student exhaustion and standards of unevenness in the classroom are informed on regular basis as the basic interferences for effective teaching practices.

In 1990s, a transfer from community psychological to cognitive-situated perspectives. Due to this shift, an increased focus on motivation of classroom directed to a multiple of publications related to techniques of motivation.

The strategies of motivation in the language classroom are the most inclusive summary. By looking at the universal motivational psychology, a propensity which can be renowned will be same. There are multiple researches which have been conducted in past for recognising numerous reasons. Moreover, those researches also authenticate different motivational theories as compared to progress different techniques in order to increase a motivation factor.

Motivation is a complicated construct of psychology which performs as a straight cause of “second language achievement”. Because of this, huge amount of attention is paid to the variable in “second language acquisition literature”. The term motivation is stated by Gardner (1985, p.28) as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity”. There are multiple representations of “second language acquisition” which conventionally emphasised reputation of motivation as well as attitudes (Dornyei, 2009). For getting a better idea that how motivation can affect the students, it is important to comprehend different kinds of motivation. Basically, motivation is of two types: “intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation” (Mitchell, 2001). Among these two types of motivation, multiple research shows that intrinsic motivation is much more powerful sources as compared to an extrinsic motivation particularly in the long run (Brown & McGannon, 1998).

In addition to this, motivation for learning is identified as an important precursor for outcomes of training (Borg, 2003; Maier, 1973; Noe, 1986). The substantial study had already established the motivation of trainee before training impacts skill-based learning outcomes and cognitive outcomes along with training transfer. The research recommends that beliefs are an important part of mathematics teachers’ competence. Since beliefs are alleged for guiding actions and perceptions, they might be regarded important for an implementation of knowledge in situations of a classroom. Moreover, few of the researches also shows that beliefs of teachers are applicable teaching in regards of attainment of students in mathematics (Klieme & Vieluf, 2009; Staub & Stern, 2002).

The beliefs related to learning a language lies under a domain of affective determinants like anxiety, attitude and motivation. In addition to this, in accordance of Richardson (1996), trust is “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (p.103). Motivation is a factor which moves an individual to do something which involves a beginning of a new and advance career or a course of an initial teacher education. Moreover,

motivation includes energy and also drive for learning, working effectively and also achieving potentially. In addition to this, it plays a major part in interest along with enjoyment of study (Martin, 2003). Furthermore, in accordance of Sinclair, Dowson and McInerney (2006), it is essential for attracting students with the “right motives”. Students who have these types of motives, must be engaged intensely in preparation of their pre-service area along with subsequent lives of professionals.

In the modern years, the debate related to the integrative idea which has been intensified and has been taken into the whole new manner. It is one of the most basic question from which a topic should get started and is related to a united location (Dornyei, 2009). It happens when there is no particular group present in the direction for the learning of the teaching process. Among the motivation researchers of L2, the concept of the integrated orientation has been changed the idea of many of the teachers in terms of having the main features of the learning process (Dornyei et al., 2009). In the context of the L2 motivation along with its identity, the push for the new and the advanced thinking has become very much stronger in the field of the learning. The self-system of motivation presents the primary transformation of the last and the previous thought based on motivation. In addition to this, it also helps the teachers for updating and enhancing their skills and makes them learn to become more advanced in their field of teaching. The motivation of L2 (second language) has been emerging the high part in the process of learning for the teachers. Moreover, it is essential for the teachers to have a better understanding of the different theories, which makes them better in their field regularly (Dornyei, 2009).

Beliefs about nature of language learning. Beliefs of EFL teachers are related to learning of language and teaching gave an important influence on the teaching practices (Ozmen, 2012). It is observed that student teachers’ principles highpoint which shows they carry with them few highly robust thoughts along with the principles related to education. Moreover, it also influences in a way in which student teachers’ process the input in the duration of their program (Pajares,

1992). In addition to this, student teachers' are supposed for using their previous experiences of education program (Kagan, 1992).

The learners' beliefs are linked with the learning of language and also it is measured as a significant variable similar to other differences that are personal in language learning (Horwitz, 1987). In addition to this, the beliefs of teachers are linked with the teaching which provides an essential impact on the practices of teaching (Ozmen et al., 2012). Moreover, the students' teachers are also invented to use the prior experiences of an education program (Kagan, 1992).

Moreover, the previous research indicates that the beliefs which are constructed previously are likely to endure unaffected after graduation. Freeman and Johnson (1998) pointed that "learning to teach is a long-term, complex developmental process that operates through participation in social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching".

The beliefs of learners correlated in language learning are measured as a crucial aspect just like the other personal variances in learning the language. The beliefs related to learning a language is defined as "opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning" (Horwitz, 1987).

The Effects of Teacher Beliefs' on Teaching Practices

In the few disciplines like educational psychology, social psychology and cognitive psychology, the behaviour of humans and learning are considered as the primary concerns. Moreover, in these disciplines, the beliefs are viewed as a significant construct to be investigated in terms of their ensuing influence on the behaviour of people (Gabillon, 2005).

In the foreign language learning context, the study in the previous three decades recommends that the beliefs of individuals have the possibility for impacting both their actions as well as their experiences. The beliefs can impact the motivation of language teacher trainees to learn, the expectations of learning, perceptions of the easy and difficult factors of being a teacher and even the strategies they select in the learning process (Inozu, 2011).

The beliefs are central for any behaviour of human. It also shapes the way in which teachers behave in the classroom. Consequently, the effective and the real change in the practises of teachers can happen only by a change in their beliefs (Inozu, 2011). The common outcome of many studies is that “beliefs function as the focus of change in the process of education” and practices (Peacock, 2001, p. 181).

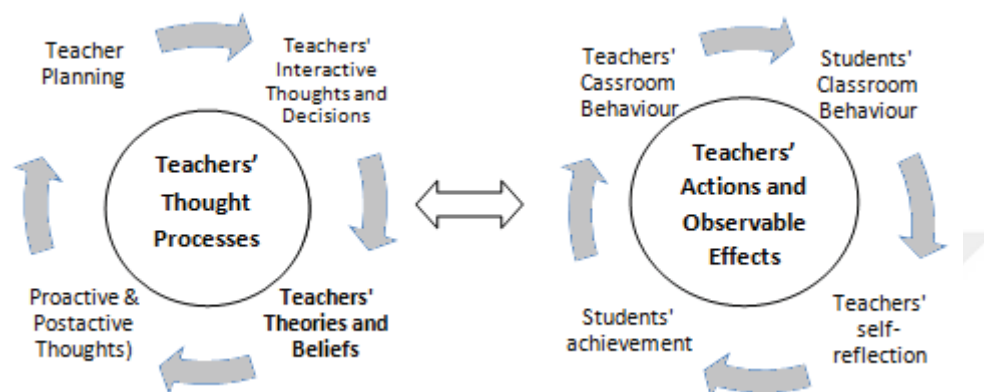


Figure 2. The interaction between teachers' thought processes and actions.

As the Figure 2 above represents teachers' thought processes include their interactive thoughts and decisions, their planning, proactive and post active thoughts, and their theories and beliefs resulting in their classroom behaviour, self-reflection and thus lead to students' classroom behaviour and achievement. All these factors form their actions and their observable effects, and they cycle affecting each other.

Language Teacher Motivation

What we know about language teacher motivation is largely based upon empirical studies that investigate the factors that influence individuals to become EFL teachers (Dweik & Awajen; 2013; Ghengesh, 2013; Hastings, 2012; Hiver, Kim & Kim, 2018; Igava, 2009; Ololube, 2007;) and similar studies that focuses on pre-service teachers' motivation (Bosnyak & Gancs, 2012; Ceheng, Chan, Tang & Cheng, 2009; Eren, 2012; Eren & Tezel, 2010; Eren and Yeşilbursa, 2016; Kılınç et al, 2012; Kyriacov and Kobori, 1998; Subaşı, 2009; Thomson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012; Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2007; Watt & Richardson, 2008; Watt, Richardson,

Klusman, 2012; Watt, Richardson & Wilkins, 2014; Weissbein, Huang, Ford & Schmidt, 2010). These studies attempted to describe what factors influence pre-service teachers' motivation for career choice. Another set of studies related to pre-service teachers' motivation focuses on the change processes that they experienced either during practicum processes or teacher education or in profession (Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010; Canrinus, Bruinsma, 2014; Kubanyiova, 2006; Sinclair, 2008). Additionally, there are a few studies exploring pre-service teachers' both beliefs and motivation (Barcelos, 2015; Thomson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012).

In majority of Western countries, after completing the initial level of education, teachers are projected for continuing their learning through their career. In order to adapt the necessities of change of the society and children, it is important for teachers to practice their career by which they can continue their learning (Day & Sachs, 2004). This CPD (continuing professional development) is supposed as a significant way for enhancing schools, for increasing quality of teacher and to improve the learning of student (Day, 1999; Hargreaves, 2000; Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Verloop, 2001).

The essential actions of CPD for the instructors involves "to update their skills as well as knowledge, collaboration and the reflective activities" (Eraut, 1994; Schon, 1983). The updating happenings give an elementary foundation for reflection and collaboration. In addition, the reflective activities are very essential in order to grow in profession (Eraut, 1994; Schon, 1983). Moreover, the improving consciousness related to the possibility of educator teamwork to encourage the knowledge of teaching.

The factors influencing individuals for career choice involves the three basic types of aspects for which the individuals select the teaching as their career. The three aspects involve "extrinsic motives such as salary, lengthy holidays; intrinsic motives such as interest, personal experience, and intellectual fulfilment, and altruistic motives as wanting to contribute to the growth of another individual" (Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012).

Expectancy value theory and teacher motivation. EVT theory is the motivational theory on which the procedures, analysis and discussion of pre-service EFL teachers' motivational concepts of the current research will be based. In EVT, individuals' expectancies, background socialization, experiences and values are important factors influences "their achievement related choices, over and above demonstrated skill and abilities" (Eccles, 2005, 2009). The expectancies in this theory refers- to the belief of individuals about how well their performances on a task are. They are developed over time by individuals' experiences and interpretations of them. EVT also provides coherent and beneficial framework to develop and organize a research focusing the motivation to become teachers since the motivations are mapped constructs in the framework of this theory. It also allows motivation researchers to put "previously identified motivations within an integrative and comprehensive model" which provide additional motivations (Eccles, 2009, p.81).

The expectancy value theories speculate that for engaging motivated decisions of individuals in specific tasks with their presentation and perseverance can be described a manner that how better they can be able to perform in learning procedure by the rate of their accomplishment. An early classic model of Atkinson, "achievement motivation" combined the concepts of "necessity for achievement, expectancy and value in to a comprehensive theory and initiated a strong tradition of expectancy value theories of achievement motivation" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013).

Moreover, in accordance of main ideologies of expectancy value theories, the motivation factor for performing numerous tasks is the product of two major aspects. First major factor involves "the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and the rewards that successful task performance will bring". Moreover, the second major factor involves "the value the individual attaches to success on that task, including the value of the rewards and of the engagement in performing the task" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013, p.87).

The factors discussed above are all major factors of demotivating a teacher trainee, but all these factors could be covered by providing adequate training and development facilities to the student teachers. Training and development opportunities not only enhance the professional skills and capabilities of an individual, but also help individuals to overcome personal lacking such as enhancing the ability to decide about prospects of future, enhancing the ability to self-motivate under terrible situations, get equip to overcome challenges that could arise during lesson delivery in the class room and reduce the impact of professional shock they receive when they attend the class for the first time and identify the complexities of the profession (Fujiwara, 2011).

Watt and Richardson (2007), contend that the expectancy value theory is specifically helpful to find out the motivation of teachers. The theory helps the teachers to motivate in order to choose the career of teaching by focusing on the beliefs of career related factors (Watt et al., 2007).

Factors Influencing Individuals to Become Teachers

The reasons which influence teacher trainees to choose teaching as a career fall into three categories. The first one is *altruistic reasons* which are related to individuals' vision to accept teaching as a socially worthwhile, and their desire to help pupils be successful and people in society develop. The *intrinsic reasons* is the other category that results from an interest in presenting trainees' knowledge and expertise in the subject matter and also the characteristics of the profession itself. The last category is *extrinsic reasons* which are the effect of aspects of job itself: salary, social status, holidays and other facilities provided (Brown, 1994).

Motivation is the factor which generates a drive among individuals to achieve something or to perform an action. It is the basic pillar of moving ahead in life and achieve milestones. It is motivation, which compels an individual to excel in career. Career choices made by the individuals are also influenced by motivation to excel in a certain field. Teachers chose the profession of teaching because they are motivated to earn money by spreading knowledge among the students and seek further knowledge by enhancing their knowledge so that they could encounter the

eternally altering strains of the profession of teaching (Barnard & Burns, 2012). A motivated teacher would teach for a longer period, seek new tactics and teaching methods by studying teacher training modules and continuously engage in improvement programs (de Vries et al., 2013). These days, retaining teacher is essential for academic institutions as a high turnover rate of teachers would result in inconsistent lesson delivery, thus affecting the knowledge and skills of the students.

By the evaluation of available works on what motivates student teachers to engage into teaching “English as a foreign language”, the researcher has found that majority of them has focused on four motivational factors. The first and foremost motivator identified is the intrinsic motivational factors, it implies that the student teachers engage into training English as a foreign language for achieving personal satisfaction and pleasure (Barnard & Burns, 2012). The intrinsic factors motivation of student teachers is based on the drive that they will contribute to the improvement of the society, spread knowledge among the seekers and pass on the academic values to the upcoming generations. Another factor is the macro factors that have a straight impression on the motivational level of the student teacher to become an English teacher. These extrinsic factors of motivation have a direct relation with the intrinsic components, as the extrinsic factors would only effect the individual when mentally he/she is weak or could not resist the negative influencers’ ability to discourage them to further excel in their teaching career (Watt et al., 2012).

For a school student, becoming a teacher is inspired by the fact that the student found teaching as amusing, respectable and an opportunity to practice authority over others. As a college student, the motivation to becoming a teacher could rest upon the urge to earn good amount of money and earn respect in the social settings, as teaching is considered as a sacred profession. At university level, the motivation to become a teacher could be to further enhance the existing knowledge and share with the new seekers of knowledge, life experiences and academic literature on a particular field (de Vries et al., 2013).

Beliefs about ability is one of the important aspect how individuals relate to the tasks, here teaching. It should be considered when the individuals place it on a task. A number of dimensions is related to this: whether the learner enjoyed the task: intrinsic value; whether it is related to short or long-term goals of the individuals: utility value; whether it is suited to them: attainment value; whether it is worth the effort for success: cost value. (Watt and Richardson, 2007).

Intrinsic career value as a motivational factor. In this scenario, the self-determination theory prescribed by Ryan and Deci (2000) is useful in describing intrinsic motivators and how they are achieved by individuals to fulfil their vocational desires. Ryan and Deci (2000) are of the view that individuals seek to fulfil their desires on the basis of their need to be autonomous, related and competent. Implying the theory on teaching profession provides that individuals seek to teach for achieving autonomy and competence. A teacher would be motivated to teach as he/she will have the autonomy/independence to maintain a desired class environment, develop an instructional plan and apply cognitive skills in maintaining good relationships with the students and other members of the staff. On the other hand, there is competence which is achieved by the teacher with the help of self-belief. The teacher will not only depend on the skills and knowledge to contribute to the development of the students, but also will utilise his/her own competency to overcome the professional and personal obstacles to deliver effective lessons. In this manner, the teacher would achieve a sense of efficacy which would help him/her to develop a sense of being related to the whole process of educating students.

A secondary qualitative study conducted by Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) identified a number of explanatory and conceptual theories prescribed by different scholars and researchers. These theories and concepts identified what motivates an individual to engage with teaching profession and those influencers which have a negative impact on the motivation of teachers to stay in teaching profession.

Now, in this situation, it is significant to explain the reason why young people engage into a profession, or a seasoned professional change one profession for another, is the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation they have regarding the new career. But this motivation is overshadowed by the fact that organisations deploy them to perform a task, which it thinks best fit that person, despite the fact that the individual is not motivated to perform that task (Watt et al., 2012). This is the mere reality of modern capitalist business world, where individuals most of the time does not get what they perceived at the time of achieving a professional degree. They are paid for performing tasks which their organisation thinks is best for them, rather than for performing a task according to their desires. Young people and seasoned professionals with vocational desires, have to follow what their management ask them to follow. This is because, organisations does not operate to fulfil vocational desires of their employees, but to achieve greater profitability and race ahead of their competitors. Same is the case with teaching profession, where teachers does not adopt a lesson plan or teaching method, which they have learned during their training in academics for the teaching profession (Fujiwara, 2011). They are bound to follow the syllabus provided by the school, college or university and engage students into practical and theoretical tasks, which are already prescribed in the prospectus.

Work with children and adolescent as a motivational factor. According to Akyel (1997), “a finding that corroborates a result of Liao’s study was that pre-service teachers never mentioned physical readiness required by a successful teacher, a fact that became obvious during the observations: teaching at elementary schools requires energetic teachers. Previous research found that novice teachers focused on maintaining the flow of instructional activity” (cited in Atay, Kaslioglu, & Kurt, 2010).

According to Kocaman & Cansiz (2012), “The Turkish educational reform in 1997 required that foreign languages (English, German or French), begin at grade 4 instead of 6 and compulsory primary education become eight years. Because the number of learners nearly doubled as a result

of the reform, the Turkish Ministry of National Education had to deal with an acute shortage of foreign language teachers, a deficit met by appointing teachers from other subject areas after a brief in-service education. The newly appointed teachers lacked even minimum linguistic skills and knowledge of language teaching methods and techniques, causing major debates as to the efficiency of their teaching. The problem of teacher shortages was compounded by a lack of materials and overcrowded classrooms” (Kocaman & Cansiz, 2012).

Social pedagogical influences as a motivational factor. The factors influencing teachers’ career choice are being investigated in all over the world. Professionals indulge into professional activities and performing tasks which are against their vocational desires. To assert this, the qualitative exploratory study conducted by Blomeke et al. (2012) could be considered as useful. The researchers carried out a descriptive study which was set out in fifteen countries. The objective of their study was to identify those factors which motivates an individual to engage into teaching profession, and the impact of the motivation on their performance and efficiency in lesson delivery. Blomeke et al. (2012) found that motivation to utilise existing knowledge to enhance it further by engaging into teaching is the most prominent factor among selected sample based in fifteen countries. This motivator was further supplemented by the results depicting that to seek new opportunities for enhancing knowledge is another factor which motivates an individual to adopt teaching profession and serve it for longer time. These are all just few motivators outlined by Blomeke et al. (2012), as there are multiple studies suggesting other factors responsible for motivating a student to become a teacher (Fives & Gill, 2015; Watt & Richardson, 2012).

The current research work revolves around identifying factors of motivation which urges a student to become a teacher. It is established, with the review of literature published in the previous years, that the motivation to become a teacher has a different drive for each student.

Social status as a motivational factor. Watt and Richardson (2007), have designed the task return in their study in order to comprise on the three concepts which they named as “social

status, teacher morale and the salary”. The construct items of social status need participants for rating the judgements of the research related to an extent to which teaching is respected as well as perceived as a “high status occupation”. The morale items of teachers include the judgements related to the morale of teachers and also feeling good by the society. Moreover, the salary items are conceived as the teachers’ perceptions to earn a better salary (Watt et al., 2007).

Watt and Richardson (2007) also generated an antecedent construct of socialisation. The researchers also affiliated with the literature of teacher education that have emphasised the positive impacts of learning experiences and prior teaching (Book, Freeman, & Brousseau, 1985; Borg, 2005; Jantzen, 1981; Lortie & Clement, 1975; Watt & Richardson, 2012), along with the impacts of others which involves friends, family members and colleagues (Watt et al., 2007).

EFL Teachers’ Motivation and their Teaching Behaviour/Attitude

To this point, the literature review was focused on discussing the motivators that drives the urge among in-service and pre-service teachers to teach English as a foreign language and what are the components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, which are discussed below, that generate an urge. Here, it is important to also discuss the negative influencers that could hinder the development of a teacher trainee (Kim and Zhang, 2013) as long as the positive ones. Teaching is considered to be as one of the most rewarding occupation, still there are obstacles and complexities which reduce the urge among teachers to stay intact with the profession.

Extrinsic factors of motivation. Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) listed few of the factors which could prove to be the motivation of student teachers. The first and foremost factor is the nature of the teaching job. If the workplace is prone with stress and extra academic burden is assigned to a student teacher, it could demotivate that individual and develop a sense of urgency to find another occupation. Second most contributing factor to the student teachers’ demotivation is the limited autonomy or authority provided to the teacher student for designing and implementing his/her own curriculum. Beside nature of the job and limited authority, social status which is being

given to teachers is another extrinsic motivation factor which shapes up the career choices in the favour of EFL teaching. Pedagogical influencers such as to get a chance to reflect on career growth and achievement, ability to be open to communication, sense of forming a community and the urge of being innovative and creative also adds to the motivation or demotivation of EFL teachers to engage in the profession.

Intrinsic factors of motivation. Another major factor which demotivates student teachers was lack of self-efficacy among the individuals. Lack of self-efficacy is the ultimate resultant of lacking in the training provided to the student teacher before being assigned a class to teach. Lack of training or inappropriate training would always result, not only in teaching profession but in other professions, in creating obstacles and complexities for the teacher to develop a teaching plan and implement it efficiently. It is resulted by the repetition of assignments handed over to the student teachers or the absence of opportunities to develop their intellect and in further knowledge. Another major factor could be the urge among individuals to work with adolescent and youth also shows a significant role in the motivation of an individual to engage into EFL teaching as a profession. Lastly, intrinsic career values such as the perceived career related risks also play the deciding role in the career choice as an EFL teacher.

The Study of Teachers' Beliefs and Motivation

Research recommended that concepts are critical portion of teachers' competence. As concepts are considered as guide actions and perceptions, they can be referred critical for the implementation of information in classroom surroundings and they might be theorised as a connection among teaching and knowledge. Moreover, several researchers reveal that the belief of teachers are applicable for the consequences of coaching with regard to student accomplishment.

The beliefs of teacher and meta-cognitive characters have possibly be comprised in order to develop a complete model of teachers' abilities and beliefs, and to upsurge the rationality of empirical studies. Despite the widespread argument on opinions, an exact description of the belief

concept, as well as clear-cut differences from other ideas such as beliefs, attitudes or observations, have not yet been recognised. Richardson (1996) established a huge followed though comprehensive definition, in which opinions are observed as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world, that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996).

The teachers comprehend opinions as culturally and socially moulded conceptual concepts, which are developed in informative surroundings with dissimilar historical civilisations that fluctuate greatly among states. Therefore, national designs are predictable that are connected to complete models of relations in a civilisation. Hofstede (1986), such as, differentiates between individualistic and collectivistic cultures. In collectivistic states the relationship of families are essential and worked as driving force for education and learning whereas in individualistic civilisations, students are supposed more powerfully as autonomous topics obtaining information mainly individually on their own (Singelis, Triandis & Bhawuk, 1995).

Pragmatic researches of theories have mainly dedicated on students and on keen teachers of secondary and primary schools. The research “Mathematics Teaching in the 21st Century” (Blömeke et al. 2008b; Fives & Gill, 2015) was the foremost research to associate future lower-secondary teachers’ views in several countries, specifically Bulgaria, Germany, the USA, South Korea, Mexico, and Taiwan. The MT21 consequences exposed “country-specific” arrangements in the teachers’ opinions. The “Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)” (OECD 2009) observed active epistemology of teachers’ opinions on learning and teaching and barbed in the similar way.

Principles about language education are appropriate in the field of affective variables, such as anxiety, motivation and attitudes. Accordingly, Richardson (1996) describes beliefs as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true”. Measuring principles that linguistic learners carry to the linguistic classroom is significant

for both curriculum designers and language instructors as “beliefs are predispositions to action” (Rokeach, 1968, p.34).

Educational psychology assists the plan of the position of opinions that learners hold as a crucial issue of their learning behaviour. Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) uphold that learners who have faith and believe that their study is exciting and vital are more actively involved in the process of learning and more determined in their theoretical work. In addition, teachers need to know their viewers to organise the procedure in classroom procedure so that there is an effective method for learning.

Inspiration is something, which moves individuals for doing something, including “opening a new profession or preliminary teacher education course”. Moreover, inspiration comprises drive and vigour to acquire, effort successfully and attain prospective. Furthermore, it is also an important role in the enjoyment and interest of study (Martin, 2003). Researchers proposes that noticeable inspirations regulate: what actions people do or do not participate in, ‘attraction’; how long they involve in these activities, ‘retention’; and the penetration to which they involve in these actions, ‘concentration’. With regard to teaching and education of teacher, inspirations may, consequently, regulate what appeals personalities to training, how long they endure in their early teacher education courses and consequently the profession of teaching, as well as the amount to which they involve with and concentrate on their profession and the courses. Consequently, defining student teachers’ inspirations to teach could update teacher retention and recruitment.

As it is mentioned by Sinclair, Dowson, and McIntyre (2006, p.56) that it is vital to appeal students with the appropriate purposes. Students with these aims “involve deeply in their pre-service groundwork and their following qualified lives”. This commitment will originate out throughout teacher education, where they will be more interested, more inspired, actively participate and will become instructors who are more likely to remain in the occupation. Several researchers have concentrated on pre-service teachers’ intentions for selecting to follow a

programme of teacher training programme and become teachers. Intentions, which have been stated, are measurable causes, such as professional reasons, job security, love of a subject; and philanthropic reasons, like spirits of responsibility for children.

Such type of reasons has separated in to dissimilar classes, such as, “a two-group category with professional versus material reasons” and “a five-category division, with elements such as social status personal status, and period for the family” (Sinclair, Dowson, and McIntyre, 2006, p.17). The utmost common difference is the three-category difference, which are extrinsic reasons as well as inherent reasons.

The most primal and central postulate of successful teaching attire is the own belief of the teacher. The teacher’s own beliefs and aspirations are what shape up his/her overall teaching proficiency including the teaching attitude, compassionate will and comprehension skills. The teaching behaviour of an individual is what profoundly defines what the teaching behaviour of the teacher would be. All of this cumulates and ultimately projects a significant influence on the progress of pupils (Horwitz, 1985). The role of instructor similarly, is carried onto the language teaching or learning. The psychological attribution of the teacher, his/her motivational characterisation and his/her behavioural portrayal will ultimately influence the language learning ability of the pupils.

In order to effectively teach students a new language, the teacher must evaluate and comprehend the needs and differences of every student. A language teacher must know all aspects of the student's information: what the student likes, what he doubts and what is the language learning background. This information can be used to adjust the language teaching, not trivial matters.

Moreover, in order to effectively provide a robust language learning to the pupils, proficient language teacher uses personal understanding, personal learning theory, social lingual learning

theory, children and adolescent development theory in relation to new languages and then integrates with teaching experience to determine teaching methods (Genesee, 1987).

The teacher's mission is not only to cultivate students' cognitive ability. The teacher also cares about the student's self-concept, how the student comprehends the concept of new language learning, learning in peer relationships, personality development, ambition and civic virtue. Teachers of higher proficiency consider the potential of students in all aspects and determine the content and methods of teaching which can then cultivate the maximum language learning output.

The two basic principles of teaching a language are devoted to the education and well-being of students and the subjects devoted to teaching. Excellent teachers strive to expose students to the social, cultural, moral, and material worlds in their lives, and to use their subjects as a guide to students' exposure to various fields. The teacher should understand the factual information of the language, the core organisational concept, and the method of generating new knowledge. In addition to teaching students the concepts and principles of language that is being learnt, the teachers can also help students ask questions and explore possible solutions.

This discovery process is another significant aspect of language teaching to develop a true understanding of the students. Knowledge cannot be deemed as a narrow low-level understanding, but a rich form that combined skills, sexual orientation, propositions and beliefs and all of these postulates can be deemed relevant to the language learning. Language teachers within effective teaching attributes have high expectations for all students and regard themselves as helpers (Genesee, 1987). To fulfil the responsibility of helping the students, teachers must create, enrich, and change the orientation of teaching, and must be capable for grasping and maintain the interest of pupils in knowledge.

Teachers with smart and improvised methods can use a variety of teaching techniques instead of just being good at one. Lingual teachers should change the teaching in accordance to the different knowledge panaches of students and the needs of diverse environments. Good teachers

will also use various grammatical and lingual resources to know how to mobilise students (Genesee, 1987). A teacher that understands the strengths and weaknesses of various teaching methods and their suitability for different students can be regarded as vital. This is why, it is often being stressed by the experts to provide mental and cognitive support to the children as they have been noted to have the ability to score L2 more easily in comparison to the adults (Horwitz, 1985).

Although, some motivational theories disposed motivation s inborn an intact factor; however, learning ability is not endowed. Motivation is considered as top most affected factor in the success towards learning second language. To understand motivation as its best, there are two fundamental forms of motivation that are intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation relates to the inner affection without assessing or thinking about reward or recognition. On the contrary, extrinsic motivation is entirely related to recognition, thus, intrinsic motivation has longer effects that does not require approval from anyone. Moreover, Motivation can break further into integrative and instrumental orientation which refers to goals that made to improve career goals. In addition to this, the integrative alignment referred to compose derives to being a part of society.

Several opinions thrive into second language approach in a classroom. Lightbown and Spada (2008) stated that “virtually all learners, particularly older learners, have strong beliefs and opinions about how their instruction should be delivered”. Teachers are required to understand such beliefs in a manner to properly motivated students according to their capacity and capabilities. It has been observed after literature search that motivation is by far the most important trait in a learner’s life. Although, a learner can influenced by personal style and belief, but a motivation from teacher is always an affection treatment and a boost for learners. Doing the course, I am intrigued to learn more about motivation and what it can do in a learner’s life and I have become more aware of its altering strategy that can be used in classroom. It has been a long ago that motivation is stated as a precursor toward the positive training outcomes. Colquitt, Lepine and Noe (2000) examined

that incentive important and influenced knowledge outcome in skill acquisition and declarative knowledge.

Factors over Teachers' Beliefs and Teachers' Motivation

There have been identified numerous factors associated with affecting the overall motivation of teachers, among which four have been vouched for by majority studies. Among these, intrinsic motivation is considered among the most commonly agreed upon factor of motivational influence among teachers. Deci and Ryan (2002) define intrinsic motivation as “engaging in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction inherent in the activity” (p. 42).

Among the various connotations associated with intrinsic motivation for teaching, the notions of passing knowledge and values to the future generations, the common drive for educating people and the overall notion of social contribution are the most prevalent. Moreover, the contextual factors correspondingly associated with the intrinsic factors tend to have close relationship with the latter in terms of having equivalent effects on each other. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) state in their studies that “even with the best possible match between a profession and an individual, one’s intrinsic motivation will be inevitably ‘tainted’ by the impact of external conditions and constraints” (p. 163). This implies that the intrinsic factors are also influenced by the negative factors as well due to the fragile nature of the notion. Hence, the teacher disposition is often shaped through the combination of all these factors collectively.

The major derivative from which intrinsic motivation is acquired is the satiation of doing and the consummation for completion of the task. Ryan and Deci (2000) assert that it is quite significant to consider the factors of intrinsic motivation in order to attain enhanced outcomes related to motivation as it can be utilised for substantiated levels of efforts in activities and also in long-term engagement. The intrinsic component itself is claimed to be an induction of two major components of “subject matter” of interest and the “educational process itself” (Csikszentmihályi, 1997). The education process is elaborated as the implication of the teachers’ work being

meaningful and significant. Whereas the subject matter is expounded as being related to the concept of lifelong learning; implying that the teachers themselves be indulged in continuously educating themselves and upgradation of their skills and knowledge.

The notion of intrinsic motivation has been initially contributed to the studies of Deci and Ryan's (1985) "self-determination theory", which is generally defined in terms of three basic human needs which all individuals strive to achieve: "autonomy, relatedness and competence". These needs tend to collaboratively assert the development of personal motivation of all individuals. Among teachers as well, the notion of self-motivation and self-learning is driven by the want to contribute more toward the society, and vice versa.

Wenden (1999) has also examined learner theories related to the aspects of learning language and he examines the different connections between theories and reports gathered from students about strategies that they used in learning language. In consistency with theories, Wenden (1999) discovered that language learning strategies of each student was tied into what their beliefs were about that particular language. She has since then attempted to observe learner conceptions on an individual level to ascertain the presence of common beliefs about learning language amongst a standard/average group of learners.

It has already been observed in many researches that the supposition of a motivation is very much relevant for an engagement of teachers in the profession of teaching. It is observed numerous times that there is a significant role that motivation plays in learning of second language. The teachers need to be motivated in order to get a better and advance results in their learning (Pajares, 1992).

The research related to the beliefs of teachers is not new. There is a number of studies which have been viewed the beliefs as a part of memory that have been based on different levels of experiences of individuals (Csikszentmihályi, 1997). In addition to this, it is also observed several times that knowledge and beliefs are very much related to each other. The beliefs of teachers in learning a language are the personal as well as is also the subjective. Moreover, it mostly reflects

the judgement of individuals along with an interpretation of knowledge on which people get agree on that.

Beliefs of teachers are considered as both entities which are practical and theoretical. However, there are many second language teacher belief researchers observed as the pedagogical beliefs of teachers.

To learn a language in the field of the teaching permeates the overall relationships, which are based on the social issues. Moreover, in the classroom of the language, it has been observed that the company of the other mates impacts the activity of learning and also makes it better to comprehend the language in multiple aspects (Altan, 2006).

Teachers' Beliefs and Motivation in Teacher Education

To comprehend a teacher's beliefs related to learning a language is important for comprehending the strategies of learner and also for planning an accurate instruction of language. However, yet there is no examination that how these beliefs can be different among the groups of learners (Horwitz, 1999). In general, the term belief can be defined as "an individual's judgement of truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgement that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human being say, intend and do" (Pajares, 1992).

A "constructivist approach" get integration in teaching as well as also the teacher training programmes. In addition to all this, constructivism has its primary scope of theory along with the principles in educational philosophy of John Dewey. It is a work of 'Bartlett and Bauer'. Moreover, it works of protuberant instructive philosophers such as Vygotsky, Piaget and Bruner The 'constructivism' shows a construct change from an education based behaviour to an education based on the 'cognitive theory' (Demir, 2006).

The education of constructivism considers it dominant for developing the subjective thinking of students in the social context. Moreover, it also involves "students' judging, organising and interpreting" of the personal experiences. These all factors make the students to construct

learning by their own selves. The procedures of constructivist classroom lead the students “for identifying the subjectivity and biases of existing interpretations” and arriving at their own conclusion in educational contexts. (Scheurman, 1998, p.7).

The beliefs of teachers during a learning of foreign language is the variable which gives them motivation and make them feel that it is important for them. In addition to this, it has also been discussed in this research that the language scholar thinks that beliefs of teachers to learn a foreign language affects the success of learning a language. Moreover, it is also observed that the experiences of learning results in the development of beliefs which are related to a learning of language (Scheurman, 1998).

To comprehend the beliefs of learners is significant as it helps teachers for becoming very much familiar with the approaches and methods of learners. Moreover, the actions of teachers are also influenced by the beliefs of teachers. An act of motivation changes the beliefs of teachers to learn a foreign language. In addition to all this, it has also been observed that an attitude of learning foreign language has a significant impact on beliefs of teachers to learn a new language (Scheurman, 1998).

The position of research of motivation under a ring of an applied linguistics has been ambiguous to few extent. However, majority synopses of an area has been acknowledged its significance (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Moreover, mostly teachers also increase their level of awareness by reading books and also by learning from different sessions or seminars. The professional experience of teachers also helps them to learn in many different manners. They learn from interacting with their colleagues and with their seniors by having a communication in a broader manner (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Moreover, an evaluation of beliefs also matters in the case of learning and also in the beliefs of teachers. The teachers’ beliefs of learning new and advance factors is significant as it is important for them to consider those reliable factors in order to learn anything new in their

profession. At first, an aim to teach the language has been extended in the last few years. A most important factor in an overall cognition of teachers is their experience. An importance of learning different languages in the field of teaching have now become very much advance and every individual is adopting this concept of learning.

The most initial question from which a topic of motivation must be started is related to an integrated orientation of teachers related to the concept of an integrative orientation. It happens when there is no particular group present in an orientation for learning of a teaching process. The self-system of motivation presents the main transformation of last and previous thinking based on motivation. In addition to this, it also helps the teachers for updating and enhancing their skills and make them learn to become more advance in their field of teaching. The learning attitude of teachers must be positive which can bring a positive change in their lives and help them to learn many different and new things in their field.

Moreover, there are multiple characteristics of teachers' beliefs to be considered in order to have a better understanding of the learning process in the lives of teachers. In addition to this, it has been observed for several times that a process of teaching is a dynamic teaching in the lives of teachers during the process of learning. In addition, there are also multiple complications in the lives of teachers during a learning phase. In many scenarios, teachers have to face multiple challenges in developing different types of skills after a learning process.

An educational development of teachers must be advanced and must be improved in order to get a higher level of success in the long run. In addition to all this, an improvement in the education of teacher along with a significance of beliefs of teachers in the learning phase has a purpose to make the career of teachers more advance and better. Moreover, the teachers must possess the characteristics of learning those language in which they have interest. The foreign languages are also important for teachers to be learnt.

The retention of teachers is important to be considered in an educational system. Moreover, in this research, it is observed that a career choice is evaluated as an issue of teaching which is concerned with a problem of shortages of teachers in the world (Bruinsma et al., 2010). In order to cope up with this issue of lack of teachers, a proper attention must be given to the recruitment of teachers, to retention of teachers as well as to an education of teachers. In addition to this, it is essential to evaluate the motivation of potential and prospective teachers for their field and for their better and advance career in a successful manner (Bruinsma et al., 2010).

It has been observed different researches that teachers must have a belief that teachers must explore an international language. It helps them to grow faster and to enhance their capabilities in their field. In addition to this, it also gives them a better future and helps them to develop themselves in order to maintain their career advancement in the future for more extended period of time efficiently as well as effectively. There are multiple recent researches which have evaluated the beliefs of learners related to the learning of language for numerous purposes. In the last fifteen years, different researches on an education of teachers have been advanced the concept of foreign languages. The teachers have practiced it in a broader manner (Bruinsma et al., 2010).

It has been observed by several research papers that action and identity influenced by attitudes and personal beliefs. Doll (1996) cited by Witcher et al (2001) has extracted two important systems of Beliefs in American Public Schools currently; namely progressive and transmissive. To clearly understand the systems which are opposite ends by definitions with a one-dimensional scale of a pedagogical belief. A teacher who provides pre-services tend to define by beliefs of knowledge, teaching, and learning and that too is aligned with a “transmissive model”.

There are different researches which are conducted by Ravitz, Becker, & Wong, (2000) and Witcher et al. (2001) explains, a scholar will arrive into a training program with an “eclectic pedagogical belief”. Even though, the literature has nearly divergence, as not a single literature has shown a potential in entering with the belief that is related to the pedagogical learning capabilities

to take participate with the best practices overhead (National Council of Teachers of English & International Reading Association, 1996; US National Research Council, 1995). These “early experiences strongly influence final judgments, which become theories, here, beliefs, highly resistant to change” (Pajares, 1992, p. 323).

Personal beliefs and practices have gathered at a higher level of education. Pedagogical belief in an education system is certainly traditionally centred along with a lectured-base. However, these practices “...have less to do with the proven effectiveness of the particular practice than the desire to appear legitimate or conform to normative expectations” (Dörnyei, 2003, p 229). Therefore, pre-services teachers are seemed to be acculturated towards the transmissive model; although in the content area of universal tutoring but previously the opening courses in homework programs by teachers even though few of the researches in the literature review have indicated restricted beliefs of pedagogical that are restrained towards the change in education system whereas some literature has shown a positive and optimistic view.

Opportunities are available for pre-service teachers in the observation along with the practice of substitute instructional methods that can be applied in schools that are encouraging towards self-evaluation through reflection on practices. For instance, mentoring, coaching, and modelling that plays a significant role for the pre-service teachers who belief in change (Albion & Ertmer, 2002). Therefore, here reflection can be described as a process from critical to conceptual change.

Reflection is a way of expressing one's intentions which is vigorously but consciously probing one's practises as well as belief that is contributing to conceptual change. The examination of setting goals toward the reflection is facilitated by a belief of change and new meanings of development within a self. Moreover, there is a piece of evidence that the teacher tends to embrace within progressive orientation. Further, it increases the opportunities all over the educational experience of pre-service teachers that embed in the activities that modelled into a progressive

pedagogy that is also a recommended strategy for a change in pedagogical belief. Hence, the ultimate goal of the pre-service teacher is to align the best practices with the belief that can be transferred into a classroom. Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia (1964) is theorised by the values and beliefs in a developmental procedure along with learning philosophies through the response of pedagogical beliefs with a continuum and developed taxonomy. According to the theory beliefs are not supposed to fully internalised until unless values and beliefs are not evidently in action in a response of a change. Thus, it means that there is a match between teaching practices and espoused pedagogical beliefs.

Research has suggested that although there are efforts of pre-service teachers into a model the ideology of latent effects need to be evident into an acculturation of transmissive paradigms in educational institutional. It is encouraged that the educational interventions were certainly able to affect the pedagogical belief along with change; however, it is modest, the important work reign stand still. The changes in belief translate the practice of progressive teaching style. In the framework of Krathwohl et al. (1964), teachers remain as same as if teachers exhibit beliefs of the student beyond the level of responses towards the vignettes on an articulating belief; in case of removing them from the practices (Krathwohl et al., 1964). In short, further study is indeed needed whether teachers or students are in between the transition of professional life, the beliefs are required to exemplify beliefs within the premise of school culture.

In accordance of Cameron and Larsen-Freeman (2008), there are numerous reasons that are significant for understanding by exploring specific contexts in which teachers can work. In addition to this, each context is a proper system that is complex and also vibrant in its nature. Moreover, in each context, there are few aspects which are interrelated to provide affordances for a practical implementation of beliefs which are also linked to teaching and learning. The few aspects involve temporal, physical, cognitive, cultural and social factors (Barnard and Burns, 2012).

The foreign language learners mostly hold different beliefs which are linked to the learning of language (Horwitz, 1987). In addition, there are numerous different researches which suggests that beliefs of learners have the potential for influencing different experiences along with actions as the language learners. The latest definitions of beliefs in the foreign language education primarily focuses on thinking process of teachers which is related to a nature of foreign languages. In addition to all this, the relation between beliefs of teacher and practices of education have already well established (Burnard & Burns, 2012; Calderhead 1996; Thompson, 1992).

According to Brown and McGannon (1998) and according to Breen (1991), it is observed that the teachers have numerous incorrect beliefs which are linked to how foreign languages are learnt and also how foreign languages can influence their practices of teaching. Moreover, it is recommended by Brown and McGannon (1998) that it is essential for helping the echo of trainees as “students bring beliefs to a teacher education program that influence what and how they learn” (Richardson, 1996).

During 1990s, there was a shift in perspectives from social psychological perspectives to cognitive situated perspectives. Because of this shift, there was an increase in focus on motivation of classroom which was directed to numerous publications which are connected with motivation (Alison & Halliwell, 2002; Brown, 1994; Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Williams and Burden, 1997). The strategies of motivation in language classroom have the most comprehensive summary. There are numerous researches that are conducted in past to identify multiple reasons. In addition to all this, those numerous researches also confirm multiple theories of motivation as compared to develop multiple different techniques for increasing a factor of motivation (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2013).

To determine the language in the environment of the classrooms changes by depending on the attitude of the learner along with the methods of the teaching as well as along with the environment of the classroom. There are multiple of the variables in the idea of the learning the

languages. Moreover, the process of the learning has numerous aspects which are also important to be considered by the teachers as well as the students. The learners' beliefs about language learning are measured as an essential variable like many other personal differences in learning a language (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999; Wenden, 1999). In addition to this, it is described by Peacock (2001) that lack of study showed, beliefs of "pre-service EFL teachers". Moreover, there are also different challenges that are important to investigate it further. In numerous Western countries, after the completion of initial level of education, it is expected from teachers to endure the process of learning by their career. Moreover, for adapting the needs of change of children and society, it is essential for teachers that they must practice their career (Day & Sachs, 2004).

The change in the beliefs of the teachers related to the students, shows that the beliefs are not always sustainable. In addition to this, it has also been observed in many of the researches that the researches about the previous beliefs are inconsistent (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999; Wenden, 1999). It is observed that most of the beliefs are unchanged in the prior studies. The teachers' beliefs are linked to the changes of the students in accordance of time (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999; Wenden, 1999). In addition to all this, the alteration in the beliefs legalises the more positive notions along with the concepts of the students with some concepts that includes the notion that teachers are now having the speciality in the beliefs and in their values as they are now getting progress in their profession (Peacock, 2001; Powell, 1992; Wubbels, 1992).

The findings related to beliefs help the teachers in their speciality along with the support in the profession of teaching. In addition to this, it has also examined from numerous researches that most of the beliefs do not even alter time to time and also it is not mandatory that the teachers' beliefs alters in the overall duration of the learning process (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999). Moreover, the numerous of the specialities of the teachers includes the verbal perceptions of the teachers in terms of the multiple observations of the classroom along with multiple events of the classroom (Dornyei, 2005; Wenden, 1999).

In addition, it is also vital to map the verbal analysis of the teachers along with the multiple of the observations of classroom and also along with the beliefs of the teachers that have been already examined in several studies (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999; Peacock, 2001). The gap which is observed in the study includes the significance of the beliefs along with the factor of motivation and the relation of these aspects along with the attitude of learning of the teachers. The link between the above aspects of the teachers' beliefs impacts the study in numerous ways that are also significant to comprehend the overall literature of the research.

Now, the methodology of the teaching has been progressed, and it has made the concept of the learning a little bit different in the recent years. In addition to this, there are multiple of the changes which have been observed in the learning of the language. Furthermore, the languages have also the impact on the behaviours and on the attitudes of the learners (Peacock, 2001; Powell, 1992; Wubbels, 1992). The good learners always have the effect on their attitude while the bad learners do not feel any change in their attitudes since they are not capable of learning those languages in the proper manner. In addition to all this, the attitude of the learners also depends on the factors of the learning the languages (Dornyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1999; Wenden, 1999). Moreover, there are multiple of the strategies which are important for the learning of the languages in which the motivation is the prominent one (Peacock, 2001; Powell, 1992; Wubbels, 1992).

Multiple factors are there that some learners are good in learning the languages while few learners are bad in learning languages (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2013). The development in career of teaching totally depends upon an interest and on the beliefs of teachers while learning the different languages. Few of the researchers also show that motivation and beliefs are two factors which are important for the learning of languages (Clark & Peterson, 1989; Watt & Richardson, 2007). However, few of the researchers also explained that the level of interest of learners has a more significant impact on behaviour and attitudes of learning a language.

In terms of actual participation of teachers in CPD, different countries accept different policies. Although, there are several positions who already have assumed different values for the CPD of instructors on which teachers get access. Moreover, there are different states who participate in the professional development which differs broadly in the overall country (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2009).

Watt and Richardson (2007) implemented the recent influential models from the motivational literature for generating the different comprehensive factors that impacts the choice of teaching. "FIT-Scale" model has been used by the researchers in order to find out the aspects which impact the choice for teaching to start pre-service teacher education candidates. In addition, Watt and Richardson (2007) also explained the aspects that candidates of teacher education are recognised as a major and significant factor in the decision of teachers to teach.

A teacher with robust language grasp can manage the team and set the activities and interaction rules of the students to help students learn to adapt to different roles. Asking the students to talk to one another cannot only help the students develop higher lingual proficiency but will also help them develop the much needed confidence? Teachers with improvised and modern skillset of language teaching have their own way of managing the classroom so that both students and teachers can focus on learning rather than controlling distracting behaviour. The teacher should be able to track student learning of the student and should monitor whether he or she is on the right path of lingual development. Supervising the individual achievements of each student is an often ignored characteristic of successful lingual teaching.

Excellent language teachers use the average learning situation of the whole class to judge the success or failure of the teaching strategy, but also know that some of them are learning fast, and that some pupils can't keep up (Genesee, 1987). The teacher knows a lot of assessment methods and knows that the form of assessment should be different depending on the purpose, timing and

focus. Not only do teachers know the strengths and weaknesses of each form, but they also have the ability to create their own assessments.

There are different model that explains acquisition of second language, the models have highlighted two factors and their essentialities, i.e., attitude and motivation. However, regarding the fact of space restraint, three bilingual model is going to be referred which are educational friendly models. The chosen models are, model of “Second Language Learning” by Lamberts (1974), Gardner’s (1985) “Socio-educational model” of “second language learning acquisition”, and “Motivational self-system” (Dörnyei, 2005). In 1959, Gardner and Lambert developed a scale known as “Motivational Intensity”, the scale used to measure enthusiasm and effort that students expresses to approach in learning of second language. Moreover, Gardner and Lambert (1959) developed “Orientation index”, it was made to identify the types related to motivation which is also associated with the rate of success in learning second language. The index is also a classification of individual’s integrity or instrumentally orientation of learning procedure.

However, the model of Lambert was the initiative model that percussed all the later models of second language learning. The Lambert’s model (1974) explained that the aptitude of individual that emphasised learning ability of a person, and the attitude towards learning are two factors that regard the level of motivation. The motivation in learning is related to the readiness that a person willingly engage in activities of learning a language. Three ingredients that require are aptitude, motivation, and attitude; these factors contribute in a learning proficiency of a learner that is related to the ability of speaking bilingual. The proficiency is related to the levels of self-esteem and one’s self-concept which is profoundly interlinked with the motivation of learning. The results of Lambert’s model (1974) stated two results which are contradicted of each other, because of the consequences that occurred due to the interaction of previous factor, i.e., additive bilingualism.

Gardner model (1985) was a modified version of Lambert’s model that has been researched and tested in different researched to analyse the factors that are related to proficiency of learning.

Gardner model is divided into four stages, the first stage is related to cultural background of individual that also includes friends and family, home, neighbours, and wider community. The second stage is further divided into four variables that has strengthen to affect learning ability of second language, the variables are intelligent, language aptitude, attitudes or motivation, and situational anxiety. The third stage is distinguished of formal and informal environment, and the fourth stage is related to the outcomes of linguistic and non-linguistic. The outcomes are the bilingual proficiency, attitudes, and cultural values. An attitude of learner is perceived with the capacity to own a role of triggering the skills or play a product role.

Moreover, it is not a static model, more like a cyclical that have a cause and effect of both attitude and motivation of a learner. Gardner's model (1985), motivation is an essential factor that involves the combination of desired but with efforts to attain the goals in learning second language along with the affiliated attitude towards the learning capabilities. The most prominent development of Gardner's and his associates work is "Attitude/Motivation Test Battery". The test is a standard that encompass the different components in the four stages of Gardner's' theory of motivation. Thus, the complicated nature of motivation and attitudes has prohibited several other theories to represent and tackle them within its manifold environment. Another question raised by educators and researchers that confronts their role in learning procedure of second language. It is criticised in the paper, Gardner (1988), that the model of Gardner related to second language learning argues that the literature of the research does not offer huge support to it. This article responds to the criticisms by indicating that they are founded as the invalid assumptions of model.

There are numerous questions that have not answered or even mentioned precisely in the brief. For instance, the concept and its relation with gender, need of inter-discipline and combine quantitative such as survey of self-report, the recent trend that analyse different attitude toward multilingualism, or even for that matter the track of the change. Regarding the fact that attitude and motivation cannot be state in numerical because they vary because of people's influences. With the

mere focus on different approaches that represents the teachers interest and also a presence of linguistic models; although it just a norm. Intriguingly, it is to be said that the increasing presence of bilingual programs such as lingua franca can fulfilled the demand of motivational studies that further needs to accompany different context which are applicable and are being implicated. It is required to know by the authorities if they are interested in imply coherent language policies that how the functions are being apply or restricted. Regarding the question it is necessary to understand the attitude that can vary from being favourable to opposition.

The concept of teaching and learning has now become very much progressed in the field of social research, and people are accepting it as a basic tool for improving language teaching and thus learning (Dörnyei & Ushido, 2011). Two of the most crucial factors to be considered during a teaching and learning phase has discussed in this chapter, which are the belief and motivation of teacher candidates. Consequently, teachers should be aware of their beliefs and motivate themselves that they can do anything in their field for getting a better career in teaching.

Chapter III

Method

Introduction

This chapter first describes the researcher's philosophical stance. Secondly, it presents precise information about the research design. As a third step, it describes the research context and participants and data collection instruments. The chapter concludes with the description of the data collection and data analysis procedures.

Research Paradigm

In social sciences, how researchers study different phenomena depends on the way they think. Hence, they need to discern the philosophical background that inform the reasons why they choose the research problems, how they formulate research questions, deal with methodological aspects, and seek ways and instruments to elicit data to find answers for their research questions. Generally, many researchers experience a dilemma whether to use quantitative and qualitative research designs which have distinctive paradigms about the nature of the physical and social world (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2005; Grix, 2004; Pring, 2000). Quantitative research corresponds to the positivistic paradigm, whereas qualitative research corresponds to the naturalistic or constructivist paradigm. Therefore, this section aims to delineate the researcher's motives and philosophical assumptions throughout the present study.

Before carrying out any research, a researcher first needs to determine his/her philosophical viewpoint as either "interpretive" or "positivist. This reflect how the researcher pursue to uncover and interpret the nature of social phenomena. The branches of philosophy that are related to these standpoints are epistemology, that seeks to understand the nature of knowledge, ways of knowing; and ontology, which attempts to explore the nature of existence or reality. The researcher's epistemological and ontological position determines the methods and ways of data collection.

The two main epistemological positions, namely the positive and interpretivist paradigms, differ in how they view the construction of knowledge. The researcher who follows a positivist approach generally adopts the principles of the natural sciences to conduct research in social sciences. These proponents suppose that to be able to claim about “objectivity, the reliability, and usefulness of knowledge” is only possible if the results of a study are based on empirical data. Moreover, they consider knowledge as being objective, tangible, and generalisable (Benton & Craib, 2001). Therefore, these researchers adopt quantitative research methods that can provide them to construe knowledge through statistical analysis. When a positivist view in educational studies is adopted, it means that the investigator is concerned with groups rather than individuals’ action(s) and/or behaviour(s) (Cohen et al, 2000).

Different from the positivist perspectives, interpretivists needs to experience the individuals’ own words to make their emotions, perceptions and beliefs clear enough to be understood. As Bryman’s (1984) stated, the principal point of this approach rely on “the actor’s perspective as the empirical point of departure” (p.78). This is unusual for positivist approach since positivists are not interested in individuals’ relationship with their social worlds. The secondary point of interpretivist approach which is highly related with the first one is that they prefer to observe the phenomena in their natural settings. Namely, the researchers who adopts the interpretivist approach seeks to uncover the individuals’ actions in their social life (Bryman, 2004.) Therefore, the interpretation is doubled: one is the interpretation of the world by individuals and the other one is the researcher’s interpretation of individuals’ interpretation of his/her own world.

The ground where research is structured on our beliefs about the nature of social reality: ontological approach and knowledge of social reality: epistemological approach. The methodological approach, on the other hand, is related to aspects which are being investigated, the

framework of our choices, particular actions and practices that we realize to explore that knowledge.

Ontology is interested in social world and the assumptions related to the nature and form of this social reality. It is generally concerned with the reality and whether it exists without interpretation by individuals. Realism, materialism and idealism are three recognizable positions. The first admits that the external reality is independent of people's thoughts and understanding. The idealism, on the other hand, claims the reality can be grasped only with human thinking and socially constructed interpretation. The claim of materialism is that there is reality but full of only materials and formed of physical world. It also admits that values, experiences and beliefs are the parts of material world but do not have the effect of shaping it.

In terms of ontology, which is concerned with the nature of social reality, Krauss (2005) states that the quantitative research paradigm is based on realism, which underlines that the social reality is "external to the researcher" who investigates it. Qualitative research, on the other hand, depends on a relativistic and constructivist view that views social reality as being "internal to the researcher" and "multi-faceted". Allison and Pomeray (2000) stated that the positivist approach in social science research sees the knowledge of social reality as objective with regard to epistemological aspect, and findings of the research are accurate and the hypotheses are considered as laws, or facts where naturalist approach is accepted as subjectivist that mainly stresses the findings of the research are considered as significant when they align with individuals' own reality.

In positivistic paradigm, quantitative methods are accepted assuitable for the physical world instead of the personal and social world by pursuing generalizable, causal knowledge and some regularities in human action (Greene, 2006; Greene, 2007; Pring, 2000). On the other hand, used in the social sciences, qualitative methods are developed to help researchers understand what connotation people attach to social phenomena. There are several advantages of qualitative

methods which adopt an interpretivist paradigm. Mainly they generate rich, comprehensive data utilizing multiple perspectives to explore the various dimensions and contextuality of social environment from the perspectives of those involved in research process (Krauss 2005, Weinreich 1996).

In educational research, researchers generally draw a distinct picture of quantitative and qualitative traditions when they fail to perform a proper philosophical job in their research (See Table 1). At this point, researchers might explore a new philosophical standpoint that can grasp various research questions to be able to understand the complicated processes in educational research. The “critical educational research” is served as a new approach to educational research by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) that positivist and interpretive paradigms as the endless and incomplete version of social behaviour, in which researchers seek to find out and describe a social situation. As Cohen et al (2000) explains, this critical theory incorporates both the positivist and interpretivist paradigms which investigate to understand and delineate an existing situation as their former theories and views. In the last decades, the strong necessity of discussing the mixed methodology paradigm is highly emphasized. Accordingly, to embrace quantitative and qualitative research, new paradigms were suggested as alternatives; namely pragmatism, critical realism and multiple paradigms. (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007; Greene, 2006).

Table 1

The common contrasts between quantitative and qualitative research

Quantitative	Qualitative
Deals with Numbers	Deals with Words/Meanings
Point of view of researcher	Point of view of participants
Researcher distant to the context	Researcher close
Theory testing	Theory emergent
Static	Process
Structured	Unstructured/semi-structured
Generalization	Contextual understanding
Hard, reliable data	Rich, deep data
Behaviour	Meaning
Artificial settings	Natural settings

Through the last couple of decades, there has been a tendency to use both quantitative and qualitative interpretive studies to define the context in the field of education. In this area, as it is in other areas of social sciences, individuals' understandings, perceptions, motivation and beliefs should not be neglected since they hold the unique values affecting the educational contexts. Therefore, this research study is both quantitative in that it is primarily designed as a survey study, and a qualitative study in that data will be collected through reflective journals, interviews with PSTs and through discussions with PSTs' over the teaching practice and practicum sessions.

Therefore, multiple research perspectives have been adopted in the present study to find out satisfactory responses for the research questions. Accordingly, the researcher attempted to integrate the quantitative/positivist paradigm enabling her to statistically analyze the data gathered

from the survey results with the qualitative/interpretive paradigm to see the changes in EFL teacher PSTs' beliefs and motivation about language teaching and learning via reflective journals of pre-service EFL teachers, biweekly meetings and interviews in order to triangulate the data to embrace the various aspects of beliefs and motivation and the changes in them during teaching experience by the participants.

Research Design

The present study utilized both quantitative and qualitative research methods to achieve triangulation which provide the researcher the opportunity to investigate the convergence, inconsistency or contradiction of the evidence (Greene, 2008).

In general terms, mixed method studies generally support the collection and/or analysis of both “quantitative and qualitative data in a single study” in order to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process (Creswell, 2014a). In mixed method designs, there are two basic and rather conflicting intentions for combining methods: “(a) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (b) to verify one set of findings against the other” (Sandelowski, 2003, p.327). In the first case, the aim is to arrive at a detailed and “complete understanding of a complex matter by looking at it from different angles” (p.329). The latter case is related to the common purposes of triangulation, viz to confirm one's conclusion by introducing agreeable findings accessed through diverse methods. As for belief and motivation research, the first purpose, in particular, makes mixed methods research invaluable, as this method allows researchers to scrutinize issues that are embedded in multi-faceted social and educational contexts.

As Patton (2002) states, each method offers different contributions to social research studies. On the one hand a quantitative research method can provide thorough and generalizable findings, on the other hand, a qualitative research method can provide in-depth, invaluable

information (Ellis, 1994). Hence, employing combination of both methods in a study allows for triangulation of the data to achieve reliable and accurate results.

Following a mixed methods research, the researcher employed both “qualitative and quantitative research methods”. Both methods have been chosen to investigate the beliefs and motivations of PSTs because while quantitative methods yield a more objective, generalizable, and tangible picture of the data, qualitative methods help to interpret the nature of the PSTs’ beliefs about teaching and learning in a more in-depth way. In this way, it is possible to uncover PSTs’ underlying beliefs and therefore determine to what extent PSTs’ beliefs match with their actual teaching practices in the classroom.

Creswell (2014a) explains that there are three basic designs of mixed methods research: “exploratory sequential”, “explanatory sequential” and “convergent” designs. Generally speaking, in sequential designs, the researcher aims to carry a process of the study on the other; in convergent designs, the researcher’s aim is to combine the processes to make the comparison of quantitative and qualitative results possible. In an “exploratory sequential design” study, the researcher first gathers and analyzes qualitative data, and the results subsequently enlighten quantitative data collection (Onwuegbuzie, Bustamante, and Nelson, 2010). The other sequential design, the explanatory one provides researchers to gather and analyze quantitative data first so that qualitative data collection and analysis can be informed. The last mixed methods research design is “convergent” design where the collection and analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data are concurrently realized. Due to the similar timeframes this method is also called as concurrent design in the relevant literature.

The present study was partly adopted an explanatory sequential design of mixed methods research designs, since the researcher collect and analyze the quantitative data through surveys to enlighten the qualitative one. To some extent, it is also convergent since some administrations

of surveys and qualitative data collection such as interviews, reflective journals and metaphor elicitation sheets were gathered in similar timeframes.

Integration Level	Approaches
Basic designs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exploratory sequential Explanatory sequential Convergent
Advanced frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multistage Intervention Case study Participatory—Community-based participatory research, and transformative
Methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Connecting Building Merging Embedding

Figure 3. Levels of integration in mixed methods research (adapted from Creswell, 2014)

Moreover, the current study adopts a longitudinal design to provide extensive evidence concerning the change in PSTs' beliefs. Longitudinal research is an evolving methodology enabling comprehensive data collection and analysis to observe how the phenomenon which is being investigated changes over time (Kosnik, Beck, Cleovoulou & Fletcher 2009). Longitudinal studies utilise repeated and continuous measurements of the phenomena to understand an individual's behaviour, attitudes, beliefs and development over a period of time. These studies are usually observational in nature and employ quantitative and/or qualitative data collection methods with predefined participants. The data also can be tested with an appropriate statistical analysis to observe change over time in either the group as a whole or in a particular individual in the study.

With its longitudinal nature, the current study adopted triangulation in several parts of the study. Triangulation is typically designed to ensure the validity of the entire study by obtaining

data from several resources and/or different data collection procedures. It has mainly four types: “data triangulation”, “researcher triangulation”, “theory triangulation” and “methods triangulation”. In “methods triangulation”, the researcher utilizes different sources of data. It is similar in “methods triangulation”: multiple methods are applied to gather the data. “Theory triangulation” is realized by combining various theories to strengthen the research stance. When the research is conducted by more than one researcher, it becomes “researcher triangulation”. In the present research, methods triangulation was realized in both research design by using mixed methods design and also data collection instruments by utilizing surveys, interviews, journals, metaphor tasks and field notes.

Specifically, in the current study, pre-service EFL teachers are investigated on their entrance to the teacher education programme in a triangulation design. They are given the same survey at the beginning of their final year to see whether there are any changes during the first six semesters of methodological instruction. Finally, the same survey implemented to identify any changes that may have taken place during the teaching experience courses of the last two semesters of the teacher education programme. Additionally, the participants’ beliefs and motivations were investigated through qualitative data collection methods, i.e. reflective journals, interviews, metaphor elicitation tasks to obtain deep and synthesised data on the research domain within a triangulation. Through these data collection methods, the present study aimed at finding answers to the following research questions:

1. What are pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning in the first year of teacher education?
2. What are pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after three years teacher education before the practicum courses in the last year?
3. What are pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after the practicum courses?

4. Are there any changes in pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs over the four years of teacher education?
5. What are pre-service EFL teachers' motivations for becoming language teachers?
6. Is there any relationship between pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their motivation for becoming teachers?

Research Context

The present study was conducted in ELT department of an education faculty where EFL teacher education program was conducted. EFL teachers in Turkey are mostly graduates of ELT teacher education programmes of faculty of education. In Turkey, high school graduates after a university entrance exam become eligible for English language teaching departments (ELT) of faculties of education in Turkey.

However, becoming an ELT teacher in Turkey is not limited to ELT departments of education faculties. Graduates of Science and Letters faculties are also entitled as English language teachers if they complete a one-year pedagogical formation course which is formed of pedagogical content in order to compensate their lack of knowledge about teaching. The Figure 4 below illustrates the scheme of becoming a language teacher in Turkey.

As for the curriculum development of the education faculties, several adjustments and changes in pre-service language teacher education programmes were made in 1998 and 2006 subsequently by utilizing the suggestions by the academics at the ELT departments in Turkey. With a renovation in content of the programme in 2018, 50% and 60% of the programme includes methodological courses, 25 -30% pedagogical courses and 15 – 20% of the curriculum comprises cultural courses. The renovation is basically focused on the development of teacher competencies (Köksal & Ulum, 2018)

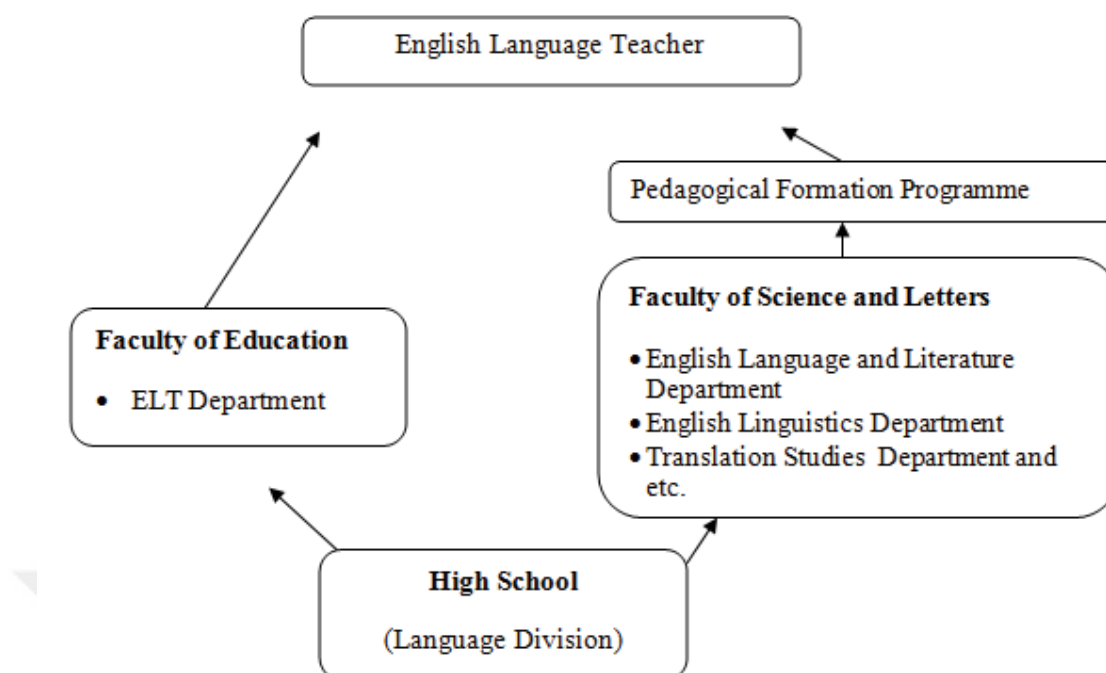


Figure 4. How to become an EFL teacher in Turkey.

The training programme is originally a four- year, eight semester programme. The students enrol a one-year intensive English preparatory in case they do not have the necessary language competence to start the first year in the faculty, that is determined by a proficiency exam administered by each university. All ELT departments follow a standard program by Higher Education Council (HEC - YÖK in Turkish) for training their teacher candidates (Kavak, Aydın & Altun, 2007; YOK, 2007). In four year time, the students take pedagogical and cultural courses. In their first year, they are given basic skills courses in English such as English Grammar, Advanced Reading and Writing Skills, Vocabulary Development, and Listening and Pronunciation, and also pedagogical courses such as Educational Psychology, and Educational Philosophy in Turkish. The students are also given cultural courses such as Turkish Language, History and Computer Skills in their first year at the department. During the second and third year, the syllabus mostly comprises of methodological courses such as English Language Approaches, Teaching Language Skills, Methodology, Teaching English to Young Learners, Educational Technology and Materials Development, and Literature and Language Teaching. In their final year at the

department, the teacher candidates still have methodological courses at the department. They, through teaching practice for the first semester and practicum courses the final semester, were given chance to make observation and teaching in several private and public schools around the university. Teaching practice course basically focus on observation and micro teaching at primary or secondary schools. The main objective of the practicum course is mainly to provide opportunities to the candidates to teach a complete course during a fourteen-week time during the final semester. The candidates who succeeded four year programme have the right to get an ELT teacher diploma. The graduates have the chance to work either in public schools in Turkey after accomplishing the civil service examination or in several schools in private sector (OECD, 2013).

Research Population and Sample

In mixed methods research, the sampling process is a thorough one because the sampling pattern should match the qualitative and quantitative research components. Until recent years, non-random sampling techniques were generally preferred in qualitative studies and random sampling techniques in quantitative studies. However, this dichotomy is not entirely right. Both of the sampling schemes can be applied in both paradigms. Likewise, the sample size issue has often been dichotomized. Qualitative research can be carried out with a small number of participants, but quantitative research requires large samples. This representation is misleading because there are examples of quantitative research with small samples and qualitative ones with relatively large sample size in the research literature (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007).

In the current study, the "convenience sampling" method was utilized to select the participants. This method is a non-probability sampling method in which participants are chosen according to their "accessibility" and "proximity" to the researcher. There are two main reasons for choosing this type of method in the current research. The first is related to the longitudinal aspect of the study. Specifically, the surveys had already been collected as a pre-test before the research proposal was presented, and that the longitudinal design required the researcher to reach

the same set of participants at the beginning and the end of the study to see the similarities and/or differences between the measurements. The second rationale is that as the study utilises a mixed-methods approach, the researcher had to have access to the participants of which a group would be the focus group which forms the qualitative nature of the study. Through piloting, collecting elicitation sheets, keeping reflective journals, conducting interviews and biweekly meetings held with the participants, the convenience sampling on voluntary basis enabled the researcher to document quality, deep and rich data without complications to obtain some insights and detect connections among the different phenomena that are under study. The obvious criticism of convenience sampling is that the participants might not be representative of the entire population. However, the participants in this study were 4th year PSTs of a large public university that the students come from different regions of the country with similar backgrounds and competencies and yet almost representative of EFL teacher trainees in the country (Ok & Önkol, 2007; Orhan & Ok, 2014).

The actual sample as a representative of the population for the current study is a group of pre-service English Language teachers enrolled on the ELT programme of Uludağ University which is a large public university located in the South Marmara region of Turkey. The sample size was 239 during the first phase of the study; however, it decreased to 158 in the subsequent quantitative phases of the study. The decline was caused by several reasons. Some of the participants requested not to participate in the other parts of the study due to insufficient time and heavy workload. Because the study consisted of pre- and post-tests and employed statistical comparison analysis, some participants who had forgotten their pseudonyms and/or codes were also omitted. The researcher dropped other participants because they were not the representative of the larger sample, having grade point averages (GPAs) lower than 2.00 and poor attendance records in almost all courses and practicum processes. As for the qualitative phase of the study, volunteers were asked to participate during the explanation of ethical issues and entailment of the consent forms. The

participants volunteered were again informed of the details, steps and the possible duration of the research study.

Consequently, the survey phase, which was quantitative, of the study was realized with 158 PSTs. The qualitative phase began with a focus group of 31 PSTs at the beginning, and when 3 of them requested to leave, it continued with 28 PSTs to the end of the study. In biweekly meetings where field notes and complementary data were collected, the sample size ranged between 15 to 28 depending on the workloads of the participants in the relevant weeks. Table 2 represents the sample sizes during piloting, survey/quantitative phase and qualitative phases.

Table 2

The number of participants involved in both surveys and qualitative phases.

	Piloting	Survey Phase	Qualitative study Phase			
			Interviews	Metaphor Elicit. Task	Biweekly Meetings	Reflective Journals
4 th year ELT trainees	19	158	34	31	15-28	28

Demographic and socio-cultural characteristics of the participants. The surveys were administered to 158 pre-service PSTs at ELT department in their first year and then during the fall and spring semester of the 2014-2015 academic year. All of the participants were in their final year of the teacher education programme. This section presents the demographic characteristics, the linguistic and socio-cultural background of the survey participants.

The quantitative data were gathered from the respondents ranging in age from 18-35. Of these participants, 130 (82.3%) were between ages 21-23, 15 (9.4%) were between ages 24-26. They were 109 (69%) females and 49 (31%) males (see Table 4.1.).

Regarding economic status of the participants, annual income was chosen by the participants from four bands in increasing of 15,000 Turkish liras (0–15,000 TL to 120,001+ TL); 51 of 158 participants (32.3%) selected very low (0–15,000 TL), 46 (29.1%) selected low (15,001–45,000 TL), 24 (15.2%) average (45,001-60000 TL) and 37 (23.4%) selected (60,001+ TL) high income bands. Of 158 participants, most of them 121 (76.6%) have families with average to low levels of economic status.

The participants' fathers were generally more educated than their mothers; 4 (2.5%) of fathers were 'uneducated', 35 (22.2%) graduated from primary school, 30 (19%) secondary school, 41 (25.9%) from high school, 48 (30.4%) from university. For mothers, 3 (1.9%) were 'uneducated', 65 (41.1%) primary school graduates, 35 (22.2%) had graduated from secondary school, 35 (22.2%) from high school, and 20 (12.6%) from university.

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

		<i>f</i>	%
Age	18-20 ages	8	5.0
	21-23 ages	130	82,3
	24-26 ages	15	9,4
	27-35 ages	5	3,1
	Total	158	100.0
Gender	Female	109	69.0
	Male	49	39.0
	Total	158	100.0
Economic status	VeryLow	51	32.3
	Low	46	29.1
	Average	24	15.2
	High	37	23.4
	Total	158	100.0
Father Education	Uneducated	4	2.5
	Primary School	35	22.2
	Secondary School	30	19.0
	High School	41	25.9
	University	48	30.4
	Total	158	100.0
Mother Education	Uneducated	3	1.9
	Primary School	65	41.1
	Secondary School	35	22.2
	High School	35	22.2
	University	20	12.6
	Total	158	100.0

Table 4 summarizes the findings related to the language and social background that may influence the participants' preferences about English. It presents that 88.6% of the students who

participated in the quantitative phase of the study stated they started to learn English in the primary school. Only 5.1% of them started to learn English in preschool years.

Table 4

Language and Socio-cultural Background of the Participants

		<i>f</i>	%
Age started to learn English	Preschool	8	5,1
	Primary (4th grade)	140	88,6
	Secondary (6th grade)	10	6,3
	Total	158	100.0
Teaching experience	Never taught	65	41.1
	Individual teacher	25	15.8
	Private course	20	12.7
	Both	30	19.0
	Other	18	11.4
	Total	158	100.0
Father occupation	Teacher	18	11.4
	Other	140	88.6
	Total	158	100.0
Mother occupation	Teacher	12	7.6
	Other	146	92.4
	Total	158	100.0

Regarding parents' professions, 18 (11.4%) of the fathers are teachers, other frequently mentioned occupations for fathers were: 140 (88.6%) either self-employed or retired, or labourers, government officials, and farmers. Of the mothers, 12 (7.6%) were teachers, 146 (92.4%) pursued a range of other professions: retired, nurses, labourers, and self-employed.

The results obtained from the preliminary analysis of the demographic part of the motivation scale provides us information about the numbers of the PSTs who had involved in any type of training activities bore enrolling the education faculty (see Table 5).

Table 5

Pre-training Experiences of the Participants

		<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
	YES	56	35.4
Pre-training Involvement	NO	102	64.6
	Total	158	100.0

Focus group. In social sciences research, focus groups yield insights into how individuals at stake think and enable a deeper understanding of the phenomena that is being currently studied. This focus group design can be integrated into a study or can be adapted individually when a specific or a difficult concept is being investigated. The current study utilizes the former way of focus group design. Conducting focus group design provide a researcher the facility to capture deep and rich data through group interviews, group interaction, non-verbal communication and observation (Morgan, 1988; Morgan, 1997; Nagle & William, 2013). In focus group interviews, the researcher both occupies an in-between position of other qualitative research methods and is offered a distinctive identity. The focus groups, on the one hand, may not really substitute for research which is held with individual participants or observation of these individuals. However, they do enable access to the rich data that cannot be easily obtained with either of the aforementioned methods (Morgan, 1988).

As Borg (2003) states case study is the “most widely used approach to qualitative research in education” (p. 433). It is a type of research design and analysis which can be called as a strategy rather than a method. As a methodologist of case studies, Yin (2003) enlightens on the definition and scope of a case study, and also data collection and analysis strategies as follows:

“A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are

not clearly evident. The case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.” (pp. 14)

Many researchers of applied linguistics after post-structuralism, post-modernism, and critical theory emphasize the value of focusing beyond the literal details of a learner's or individual's production or competence. Through case studies in applied linguistics, the researchers might want to dig the interview content to look for a change, social network, power and actions, and the learners' investment in learning English (Duff 2008; Duff 2012). The current study aimed at exploring the phenomena: beliefs and motivation with a deep and rich structure via a case study administered with a focus group during the final year of teacher education. Through case studies the researcher can collect more personal and contextual data from the participants. The researcher in this study through reflective journals, biweekly meetings and semi-structured interviews attempted to portray the beliefs and motivation and track the changes within them.

In the case study part of the current study, most of the parts of qualitative phase were conducted with 28 participants of the focus group. These participants had joined the survey which had been delivered at the very beginning of the study. However, the researcher excluded them from the survey part of the study due to the possibility of their awareness might increase because of the data collection process they would expose to and thus this may distort the data obtained from the surveys. Therefore, this focus group were only involved in the qualitative part of the study. The demographic and social-cultural background of these participants is nearly same with the group of participants in survey phase (see Appendix K). Throughout the study, the focus group interviews that were held biweekly, the metaphor elicitation tasks, and the reflective journals were administered with this group of participants.

Ethical Issues

In any kind of research either in social or hard sciences conducted with human participants, researchers should act responsibly and prioritize ethical issues since a research study may include risks for individuals. There are two main principles in ethics that should be applied in all sciences. Erickson (1986) notifies researchers that participants need to be:

“as informed as possible of the purposes and activities of research that will occur, ...and of any burdens (i.e. 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 participants were given the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix G) after a short explanation. The explanation contained information about data collection instruments, the objectives of the study, the flow of research, the confidentiality issue and declaration of no risk level. They were also assured that only the researcher or the supervisor would have access to the info obtained from written or verbal tools of data collection. As they were given codes as pseudonyms to preserve the anonymity in the study, they felt more relaxed about the confidentiality issue. As they are students at the university, they were worried about who would have access to the data; the researcher re-assured them that any instructors would not be shown any type of data. Moreover, they were told that the participation is voluntary and they were free to withdraw from the study at any time they wanted and besides, this would not be criticised in a negative way. My meetings with each participant lasted between 35 minutes to one hour, and I believe that by providing detailed information about the study, I gained their trust and initially built a strong relationship with the participants.

Consequently, an informed consent form was formed to deliver to the participants. To eliminate the possible risks, the objective of the study, all data collection tools and procedures, the confidentiality issues were clearly mentioned in the form. After meeting with the participants, all

were given the consent form (see Appendix G). After reading the instruction in the form, the participants were asked to sign the Informed Consent Form to avoid any ethical inconveniences throughout the study.

Data Collection Instruments

The purposes of the present study were to examine “beliefs about language learning of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers” and “the relationship between their beliefs about language learning and their motivation to become a language teacher”. Since “beliefs about language learning” have unobservable and complex characteristics, the current study was intended to adapt a mixed method approach using both “quantitative and qualitative research methods” to elicit reliable and comprehensive data.

Throughout the study, five major interdependent data collection instruments were used. First, a survey called the “Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory” (BALLI), (Horwitz, 1988) was administered at three different times: at the very beginning of a teacher education program, first year, at the beginning of the final year and the end of the final year comprised the large part of data collection. Subsequently, the distribution of the modified version of “Factors Influencing Teaching Choice” (FIT-Choice) scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007) provided the second part of quantitative data of the present study.

The BALLI inventory consists of 34 Likert-scale items which are grouped under five categories: “foreign language aptitude”, “difficulty of language learning”, “nature of language learning”, “learning and communication strategies”, and “motivations and expectations”. The original FIT-Choice scale contains 12 motivation factors such as “intrinsic career value”, “job security”, “social influences”; five beliefs about teaching factors such as “expert career”, “high demand”, “social status”), and a single factor for career choice satisfaction (see Appendix A).

Reflective journals, interviews and metaphor elicitation tasks were also used throughout the study to elicit qualitative data.

The data collection procedure of the present study constituted two phases: a quantitative phase, and a qualitative phase. The former aimed at reaching generalisable conclusions about PSTs' beliefs about language learning and teaching utilizing the findings from modified version of BALLI (Horwitz, 1988), and about their motivations for teaching from the adapted version of FIT-Choice scale: En-FIT Coice. The latter aimed at investigating in-depth data about beliefs and motivation of fourth year pre-service EFL teachers by analysing and interpreting the findings from all data sources: surveys, reflective journals, metaphor sheets and interviews. (Watt & Richardson, 2007)

Quantitative data collection instruments. In this section, the data collection instruments which were exposed to quantitative data analysis process were presented. Namely, these are beliefs survey and motivation surveys.

Beliefs about language learning inventory. The BALLI inventory (Horwitz, 1988) was designed to assess learners' views on variety issues related to language learning and teaching. The previous three Horwitz version of BALLI are for different subjects, for instance, one is for students in USA learning a new language which was carried out in 1988. The BALLI version used in this study aims to point out the beliefs held by EFL learners about language learning (See Appendix A). The questionnaire was formed of two sections; the first section contains 34 items and assesses individuals' beliefs in five major areas: (1) "difficulty of language learning" (DLL); (2) "foreign language aptitude" (FLA); (3) "the nature of language learning" (NLL); (4) "learning and communicative strategies" (LCS); and (5) "motivations and expectations (MOT)" (Horwitz, 1999). The second part contains an additional item to elicit further information about the research phenomena by asking "describe any ideas you think about language learning other than those listed

above”. Those 34 items were scored on five-point Likert-scale: (1) “strongly disagree”, (2) “disagree”, (3) “neither agree nor disagree”, (4) “agree”, (5) “strongly agree”.

Table 6 illustrates the constructs within the BALLI survey investigating the BLLTs of pre-service language teachers. It remarks what constructs it holds and which items belong to the constructs given (see Appendix A for detailed information).

Table 6

Belief Survey Constructs

Constructs	Item Numbers
Learning and Communication Strategies (LCS)	6*, 8*, 12, 13, 16, 19, 20*, 24
Foreign Language Aptitude (FLA)	1, 2, 5, 9, 10*, 14, 17, 28, 31
Difficulty of Language Learning (DLL)	3, 23, 32, 33*, 34*
Motivations and Expectations (ME)	4, 18, 22, 27, 29, 30
Nature of Language Learning (NLL)	7, 11, 15, 21*, 25, 26*

*Reverse Items

BALLI was administered three times throughout the study first at the beginning of the first year of PSTs at the faculty, the second at the beginning of their fourth year at the department, and the final implementation was carried out on completion of the practicum courses, namely two weeks before their graduation. A reliability analysis was run on the current data set. Cronbach’s alpha showed the questionnaire to reach acceptable reliability: $\alpha = .87$ for the first measurement, $\alpha = .71$ for the second, and $\alpha = .74$ for the last measurement. Table 7 shows the three measurement reliability scores subsequently.

Table 7

Reliability Statistics of Belief Survey

Belief Survey	α	N of Items
	Cronbach's Alpha	
First Measurement	.87	35
Second Measurement	.71	35
Third Measurement	.74	35

The motivation scale. The original FIT-Choice scale was developed for measurement of teachers' motivation to become teachers (Richardson & Watt, 2006; Watt & Richardson, 2007, Watt et al., 2012). Based on expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983) it consists of items questioning why individuals choose teaching as a career.

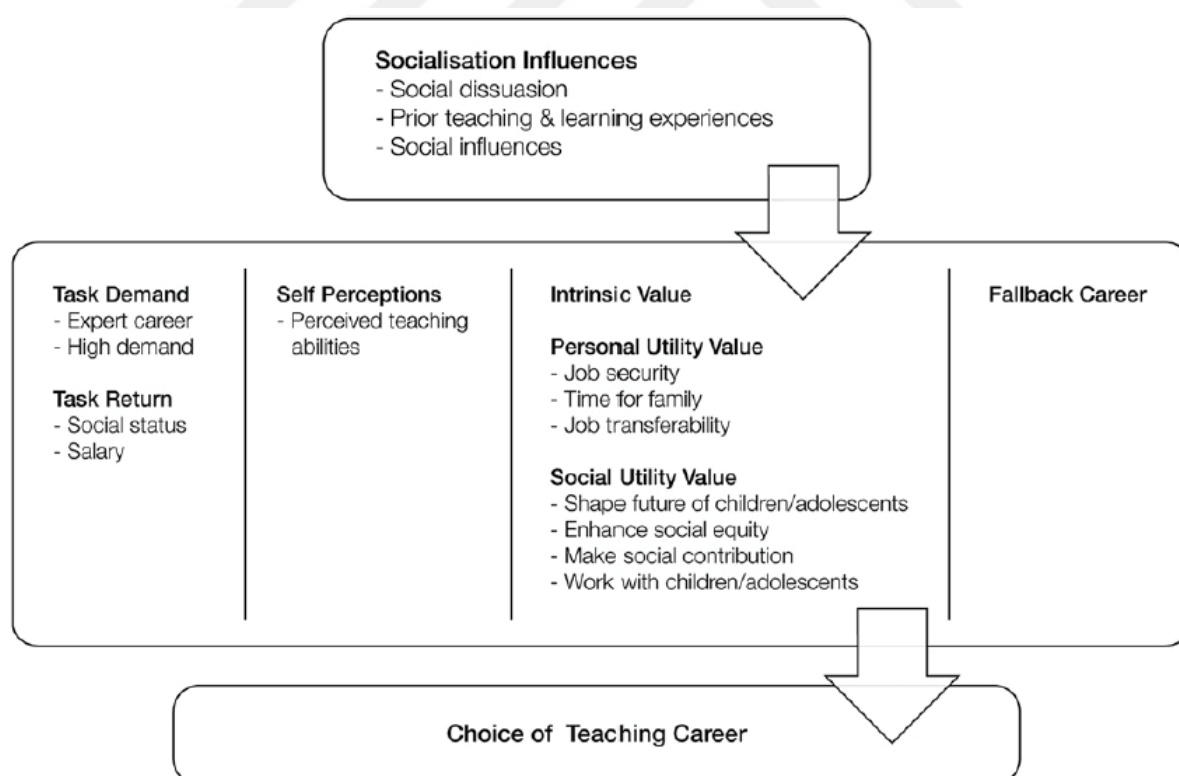


Figure 5. Theoretical model of factors influencing teaching choice as a career (adopted from Watt et al., 2012)

Its framework adopts an integrated approach that it investigates universal motivational factors competing against each other and other identified teacher motivations in different cultural context. The Turkish version of the scale which was developed, tested and validated by Kılınc, Watt and Richardson in 2012 with 2040 PSTs from different branches in several education faculties in Turkey. The necessary statistical analyses (such as confirmatory factor analysis, error variances, no error covariances and latent correlations had been already performed by Kılınc et al (2012) (See Appendix D). These are all realized to avoid any misinterpretations since the scale was translated into Turkish and used in Turkish context which is a totally different cultural setting than the Australian context where the scale was initially developed and validated Figure 5 above illustrates the development of theoretical model of factors of the scale.

The original FIT-Choice Scale consists of three parts: “motivations for teaching”, “perceptions about teaching profession” and “satisfaction with career choice”. During the adaptation process of the instrument, some items in the scale were re-written and some were omitted due to some contextual considerations of the current research context. Namely, the scale was originally developed to collect information about the factors influencing PSTs’ career choice, not particularly for EFL teachers. Eren and Tezel (2010) used the FIT-Choice Scale in an ELT context with a large number of pre-service EFL teachers, however they did not include any factors influencing the participants career choice as English language teachers. Therefore, some considerable changes were done to fill this gap in the current study. First, some contextual words or phrases added where needed (e.g. language, language teacher and EFL). As a second step, a new section, which is related to ELT teachers’ motivation towards language and language teaching, was added. To develop this section, relevant literature was revised and motivation surveys used for ELT teacher/trainee participants in the literature were scrutinized (Bernaus, Wilson & Gardner, 2009; Dweik & Awajan, 2013; Karavas, 2009; Kyriacov, Hultgren and Stephens, 1999; Shinde & Karekatti, 2012; Thomson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012). After having a pool of motivation items, the

ones with the highest reliability and mean scores in the related research were chosen for the current study. Translation and back translation processes were completed, and the item list was sent to three different experts in the field to ensure content validity. After the adaptation process, the FIT-Choice scale was finalized adding a new section consisting of 11 ELT motivation factors. The new scale was nominated as En-FIT-Choice scale. This version was pilot tested with a group of 19 PSTs who would not participate in the actual study. Upon the feedback of both participants and experts, some minor adjustments were made and the survey was given its final form.

Consequently, the scale adapted for this study is consisted of three main categories, and sub-categories involving factors investigating the motivational dispositions of PSTs. It investigates factors related to “ELT motivation”(Section A), nine basic “motivation factors” (Section B) such as “intrinsic career value”, “job security”, “social influences”, “personal utility” and “social utility” and four “beliefs/perceptions about teaching factors” (Section C) including “expert career”, “high demand”, “social status” and “salary” categories. In the scale, a seven point Likert format was utilised and the responses ranged from 7 which means extremely important to 1 that is not all important.

After the distribution of the En-FIT-Choice scale which comprises 11, 40 and 15 items in three main categories, a reliability analysis was carried out and Cronbach’s alpha confirmed the scale to reach acceptable reliability (section A $\alpha = .75$; Section B $\alpha = .93$, and Section C $\alpha = .74$). The Cronbach’s alpha (α) scores were shown in Table 4 below. The third section of the earlier version and the fourth one of the current version is not included in the current study since it does not measure the motivation level of the PSTs, rather it seeks to understand the satisfaction level of the individuals with their choice through social discussions. The other rationale for not including it within the results of this study is that its reliability score were poor in both piloting and actual measurements due to the insufficient number of items in each sub-categories (i.e., three).

Table 8

Reliability Statistics of Motivation Scale (En-FIT-Choice)

Motivation Scale (En-FIT-Choice)	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Section A	.75	11
Section B	.93	40
Section C	.74	15

The table 9 below shows the general sections, categories within that section and the item numbers in the motivation scale (see Appendix D for details). Section A represents “Motivation to become an EFL teacher” and items related to either English language or becoming English teachers. Section B includes items that reflect motivation constructs to become teachers in general such as “intrinsic career value”, “social utility” and “work with children and adolescents”. Finally, Section C consists of items seeking beliefs about the teaching profession in general.

Table 9

Sections and Categories of Motivation Scale

Sections	Categories	Items
Section A Motivation to Become an EFL Teacher	English Language and Teaching (ELT)	A1-A11
Section B Motivation to Become Teachers	Ability (ABL)	B5, B17, B33
	Intrinsic Career Value (ICV)	B1, B7; B11; B38
	Fallback Career (FC)	B10*, B27*, B35*
	Personal Utility (PU)	B2, B4, B13, B14, B16, B22, B23, B30
	Job Transferability (JT)	B26, B34, B37
	Social Utility (SU)	B6, B8, B18, B19, B25, B28, B36, B39, B40
	Work With Children and Adolescent(WCA)	B9, B12, B21, B29
	Social and Pedagogical Influences (SPI)	B3, B15, B20, B24, B31, B32
Section C Beliefs About Teaching as a Profession	Expert Career (EC)	C6, C10, C14, C15
	High Demand (HD)	C2*, C7*, C11*
	Social Status (SS)	C4, C5, C8, C9, C12, C13
	Salary (S)	C1, C3

*Reverse Items

Qualitative data collection instruments.

Interviews. An increasing interest in profound explorations of individual's views, behaviours, actions and beliefs, A tendency has grown among researchers from several domains to use qualitative research instruments to get a detailed report of human beliefs and behaviours within their social contexts. The value of collecting data through interviews is that it builds a holistic photo, interpret words and complicated ideas of the participants as well as it allows interviewees to "speak in their own voice and express their own thoughts and feelings" (Berg, 2007, p.96) other

than other written materials tools of data collection. Additionally interviewing as one of the qualitative approaches of data collection in social science research is dissimilar from quantitative methods with regards to the ability to analyse participants' unique feelings, thoughts, beliefs that any written document full of closed-ended questions can not reveal.

An interview, as a comprising term, is one of the unique ways of accumulating this account of information (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Among various types of interviews, the semi-structured interview is a qualitative data collection tool where the researcher requests participants to repond a series of pre-determined and open-ended questions. In this type, the researcher has more control over the concepts, topics, terms related to the phenomena than in unstructured interviews. The semi-structured interviews also propose equity between the strict focus of “a structured interview” and the flexibility of “an open ended interview” type (Given, 2008). Semi-structured interviews were used in both the early and later stages of investigating the research topic. They also provide reliable, comparable qualitative data for the researcher.

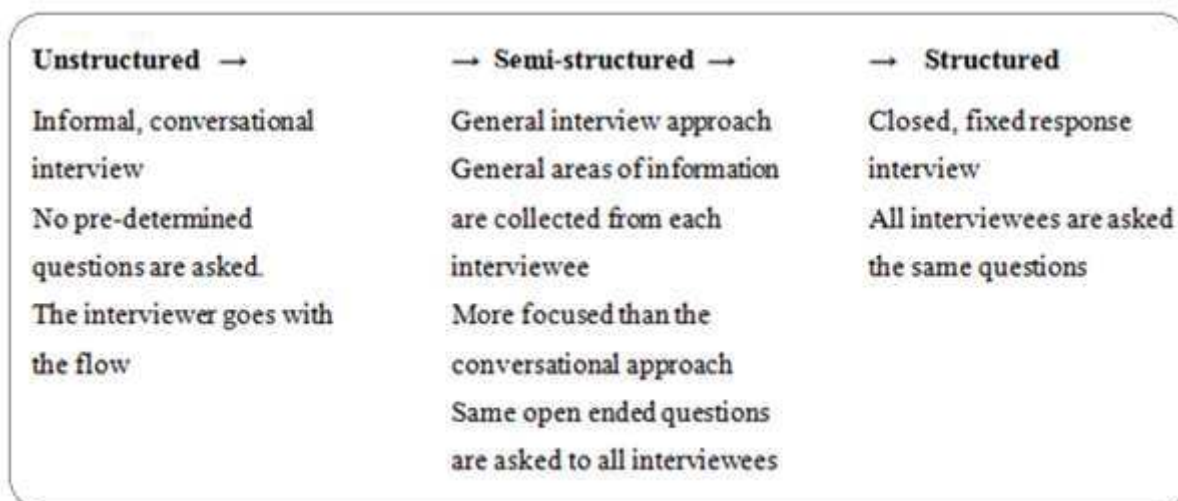


Figure 6. Interview types in qualitative research.

The validity and reliability issues perform in a different way than those of surveys and scales when it comes to the interview. Specifically, validity has two aspects: internal validity and external validity. The former refers to whether a research is really investigating what it is supposed to do, and it seeks answers to the questions whether the differences explored are related to the measurement. The latter tries to find answers to the concept of generalizability. However, the researcher is supposed to be cautious about some factors. While interviewing, to get higher validity through minimising the possible partialities, Cohen, Manion, and Morison (2007) advise to be careful about the following factors:

“the attitude, views and prospects of the interviewer; a tendency for interviewer to see the interviewee on his/her own merits; a tendency for interviewers to seek answers to support their preconceived notions; misperceptions on the part of the interviewer with regard to what the interviewee is saying; and misunderstanding on the part of the interviewee with regard to what is being asked.” (p. 150)

The researcher in the current study primarily was extremely cautious about the above factors during the interviewing. She respected the interviewees' privacy and asked only questions relevant to the research domain.

Reliability can be defined as getting the same results when an instrument is administered several times. However, interviews may have poor reliability levels since they are open to many preconceived opinions (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). Creswell (2009) finds the reliability of interviews as elusive and complains about the lack of research reporting reliable data. Therefore, to maintain validity and reliability, an interviewer should adopt some guidelines such as administering a pilot interview beforehand, not asking leading and/or subjective questions, taking notes during the interviews not to catch non-verbal reactions by the participants, and providing the interviewee an opportunity to summarize and clarify the points if there is any.

Throughout the current study, semi-structured interviews were implemented at the beginning, toward the end, and at the end of the research process. In this way, it was possible to understand what beliefs PSTs held, what their motives were to implement what they had learnt during their teacher education, to see whether there had been any changes in their beliefs and motivational dispositions during their senior year at the faculty (See Appendix B).

Reflective journals. In qualitative research, journals kept by the participants constitute a unique source of reporting what is being experienced in research contexts. Reflective journals are one of the important techniques of data collecting during the practice of various professions from nursing to business administration, from musical education to education and psychology (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Moon, 2006; O'Connell & Dymont, 2011). As Dewey (1933) defines "learning is reflection on experience" and reflective thinking is thinking of any knowledge in a careful, constant and effective way. As a follower of Dewey, Schön (1983) celebrates reflective thinking with its quality of reshaping individuals practices conforming the input that they receive during reflective cycles on their experiences or acts. Schön and Dewey discern at one point that Schön takes on more of an intuitive, artistic approach, whereas Dewey sees reflection as more scientific and objective (Farrell, 2012; Wallace, 1990).

In teacher education, the two main objectives of keeping reflective journals can be given as first improving the PSTs' and their instructors' awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of the learning environment; and second, building up a strong relationship between the PSTs and instructors. Moreover, they serve as both a research and an instructional tool and provide a unique opportunity for teacher educators to hear the voices of PSTs as they reflect on their professional learning experiences (Dunlap, 2006; Lee, 2008). Indeed, teacher educators can also learn about themselves by reading their students' reflective journals (Davis, 2003; Phelps, 2005).

From the perspective of PSTs, keeping a reflective journal can be useful to develop and assess metacognitive abilities, build up self-orientation, collaborative learning, increase responsibility over professional development, and raise awareness about the teaching and learning community (Boud, 2001; Farabaugh, 2007; O'Connell & Dymont, 2011). Additionally, reflective journals provide PSTs to discover a connection between theory and practice. They are also used with "in-service and PSTs" to obtain their perspectives on their own teaching performance (Lee, 2007). While doing so, their supervisors and/or the researchers can elicit invaluable data to foster the quality of the practice, hence teacher education programme.

In reflective journals, the participants are requested to express themselves, "their presuppositions, choices, experiences, and actions" (Mruck & Breuer, 2003, p. 3). Mruck and Breuer remark that such reflective practice intends to clarify that research outcomes have constructed nature and this "originates in the various choices and decisions researchers undertake during the process of researching". In qualitative research, particularly in the field of teacher education, reflection is increasingly situated within critical and constructivist paradigms through teacher/trainee diaries, journals, logs as they are the written accounts of classroom

experiences of teacher cognition, behaviour and culture (Calderhead, 1996; Farrell, 2007; Farrell, 2018; Ortlipp, 2008).

In the present study, the participants were requested to keep reflective journals by responding to several questions after each practice teaching during their teaching practice and teaching experience courses. The questions are generally seeking answers about accomplishing the lesson objectives, strengths and weaknesses of their teaching during teaching practice and practicum, unexpected incidents and difficulties they experienced during teaching practice, divergences from their lesson plans, motivational factors affecting their teaching performance. They were also asked to reflect on anything related to teaching and learning by additional questions (See Appendix E).

Field notes. Field notes as qualitative notes are kept by researchers during the field research, and/or after the observation of certain behaviours that are under scrutiny. They are generally intended to constitute evidence of what is being observed, heard or experienced during the study. Field notes enable researchers to assign meaning to the research phenomenon, and to interpret its ongoing development. They are used by researchers as documentation to produce categories and to understand social situations, the status, and the culture within the research context. Field notes are often recommended in qualitative research as a way of transferring crucial contextual information. Bogdan and Biklen (1982) states that field notes usually have two main types: descriptive and reflective. Descriptive field notes comprise the lengthy factual data parts such as settings, conversations, actions, and behaviours the researchers observe and constitute the summary of journals. These are thorough and meticulous descriptions of what the researchers observe, hear, and experience. The reflective ones are the records of your thoughts, views, concerns, questions and your ideas while you are administering the observation of the research phenomena.

The field notes of the present study were obtained in two ways. The first one is through the researcher's own experiences either during the observation and reflection sessions of teaching practice, practicum courses or academic talks which were planned to get knowledge and gain insights about the phenomena with academics/colleagues and/or PSTs at the department. The other way of composing field notes for the current study was through biweekly meetings conducted with the participants who had attended the focus group data collection phase. The meeting which had originally been planned weekly at the beginning of the study was held biweekly due to the heavy schedule of the participants. In these meetings, the participants were asked to elaborate on the issues that is left unanswered or not satisfactorily answered both in the reflective journals and in the interviews. They were also allowed to talk about anything related to their beliefs and motivation as potential EFL teachers. The researcher was generally in the role of an observer and allowed the participants to start the conversation and chair the meeting and release what they really believe related to their educational and professional life and the factors which motivate and/or demotivate them. The field notes in this study were reviewed as soon as possible after each biweekly meeting. The initial notes were coded and linked to the results of the interview and journal data when and where possible.

Metaphor elicitation task. Lakoff and Johnson (2003) state that metaphor is seen as a reflection of “the poetic imagination”, and it is verbalized with an extraordinary language and also accepted “as a matter of words rather than thought or action” and in fact, the system in which we think and act is essentially metaphorical in nature (p.3). Oxford, Tomlinson and Harrington (1998) describe that metaphor is more than a figurative speech acting as a problem solving way for all fields along with language learning and teaching. They list the benefits of metaphor elicitation for language learning and teaching such as raising the learners' awareness of basic terms, encouraging teachers to reflect on their own teaching and to develop professional expertise (Wan, Low & Li, 2011).

Moreover, metaphors help individuals explain their views and perspectives in compact, creative and inventive ways (Pitcher, 2013). Investigating the PSTs' beliefs about language teaching and learning, and their motivational dispositions through metaphors was considered to be conceivably beneficial. Munby (1986) and Cortazzi and Jin (1999) remark that through metaphor elicitation, a researcher can interpret the teachers' way of thinking and have the chance of observing the way a teacher constructs the educational phenomena. Thus, eliciting metaphors from the teachers functions as a mirror where teachers' beliefs and thoughts can be observable by themselves and researchers. The metaphors constructed by teacher participants constitute a bridge between their theoretical and professional/practical worlds. Barcelos (2003) claims that researchers are criticized for using only questionnaires and interviews to investigate teachers' beliefs, thoughts, emotions and therefore, for cutting the relation of beliefs off real life. Upon this criticism, the researcher carried out a metaphor elicitation task to understand how PSTs see themselves, how they perceive the concept of teaching, what a student reminds a teacher, what kind of environment a classroom is for a language teacher, what motivates them and what demotivates them. Using some clues/stems, PSTs were asked to describe those outlined above. They were given the task sheet and asked to fill it within a week (See Appendix F). The form was formed according to the results of the interviews and partly adapted from the studies by Erkmen, 2010 and Mcgrath, 2006.

At the beginning of the final year of pre-service EFL teachers, 31 participants were asked to identify some education-related concepts such as teaching, learning, teacher, student, classroom, motivation by using metaphors. To reveal participants' inner beliefs, they were provided with some sentences with prompts and requested to complete these sentences in the metaphor elicitation sheet (Appendix F). Toward the end of the study, the participants were involved in semi-structured interviews and at the end of these interviews they were reminded of the metaphors and asked to go back over the metaphors they had generated whether they

wanted to add or change any metaphors. During the analysis of metaphor elicitation data, not all metaphors were accepted as valid. some metaphors were excluded from the analysis process. This elimination was realized because either the participants used just a word not a metaphor or used a metaphor without stating its reasoning. The data analysis of the metaphor elicitation task was performed in two steps. First, all the metaphors generated by the participants were listed . Then, they were categorized according to their similarity to each other and to the ones revealed in previous studies.

Research Schedule

The data collection procedures, tools and date of the implementation and the focus of the procedures are presented in Table 10 below:

Table 10

Timetable of the Data Collection Process

Date	Data Collection Instrument	To understand...	Research Questions
At the first week of November 2012	BALLI survey (pre-test)	Beliefs about language learning and teaching	RQ1
End of September 2015	BALLI survey (pre-test/post-test)	Beliefs about language learning and teaching	RQ2
	FIT-Choice Scale	Participant's educational background, experiences as a student, reasons for choosing EFL teaching, influential people, experience, strengths as trainees, characteristics of effective teachers, beliefs about teaching, expectations/ worries, how they view themselves as teacher candidates.	RQ5
November 2015	Semi-structured interview	Beliefs about teaching and learning The characteristics of good and bad teachers that stand out in their memory, good characteristics of an English language teacher/trainee, learner, classroom	RQ2 RQ3
	Metaphor Elicitation Task	To reflect on concepts being investigated	RQ3-RQ4
October 2015- May 2016	Field Notes-Biweekly Meetings	To determine if their beliefs reflect on their teaching in the practicum.	
	Reflective journals	their strengths and weaknesses of teaching, unexpected incidents and difficulties during teaching, divergence from lesson plan, motivation to teach. Reflection on anything related to teaching and learning	RQ3-RQ4- RQ5
April-May 2016	Semi-structured interview	Strengths as teacher trainees, beliefs about teaching and learning, their self-identity as teacher candidates, belief and motivation changes	R3-RQ4-RQ5
May 2016	BALLI survey (post-test)	Beliefs about language learning and teaching	RQ3

Data Analysis Procedures

The present study utilized both quantitative and qualitative data analysis to answer the research questions that form the backbone of the current study. The following section gives a thorough description of the data analysis procedures. All of the data, namely surveys, journals, interviews, field notes and metaphor elicitation tasks gathered from the participants arranged and filed according to the relation to one another and/or to the dates of collection.

Quantitative data analysis procedures. As for BALLI and En-FIT-Choice surveys, firstly, participants' demographic variables such as age, gender, economic status, starting age to language learning, parental occupations and education, teaching experiences, teachers in their family, orientation experiences and the time of their occupation choice were tabulated and frequencies and percentages produced. The data obtained from responses to the items in two surveys was analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as "frequency", "mean" and "standard deviation" through a statistical program, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Then, statistical tests were employed to provide reliability of the instruments and to see the differences between both in three measurements and between the surveys. First, Skewness Kurtosis test was implemented and results of this reported that values are not between -1 and +1, it was assumed that the scores are not normally distributed. Then, Kolmogorov-Smirnow and Shapiro-Wilk, the tests of normality, were employed. The results of these tests also confirmed the case ($p < 0.01$). After then, Mauchly's Test of Sphericity which is a way to test the assumption of sphericity was employed. According to the result of this test, the most important assumption of ANOVA for repeated measures is not satisfied (see Appendix I) and therefore, the results were compared with FRIEDMAN Test, "non-parametric version of ANOVA for related measures". After the administration of non-parametric Freidman test, in order to see in which pairs of data there is significant difference, pair-wise comparisons were made with Wilcoxon Test. This

process was repeated for all measurements. In order to understand whether time has any impact on PSTs' beliefs, t-test for paired samples was administered to see the differences between the first and second measurements on item basis. To find out the impact of teaching practice and teaching practicum courses over PSTs' beliefs, the test was repeated for these measurements.

As for the motivational dispositions of the PSTs, several statistical tests were employed after the descriptive statistics of the survey data were presented. First, independent samples tests, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and t-test for Equality of Means were employed to find out if there is any difference between the mean scores of different motivational categories and to see the teacher-parent participants and other-occupation-parent participants performed differently in their motivational dispositions.

In order to find out the effects of pre-training over the participants' motivational scores Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and t-test for Equality of Means were again employed. A statistical analysis "Pearson's Correlation Coefficient", which is a test for investigating the relationship between two quantitative, continuous variables, was implemented in order to find out if there is any relationship between the scores of categories in belief and motivation surveys.

Qualitative data analysis procedures. Interviews, metaphor elicitation sheets and field notes were typed under the relevant categories in word documents. The parts of reflective journals where relevant data were also typed and they were analysed according to the categories emerged from the results of the other qualitative data such as interviews, metaphor sheets and field notes. While transcribing the data, the researcher acquainted herself with the data that enabled her to categorize the themes. Figure 7 exemplifies the process of content analysis employed by qualitative researchers.

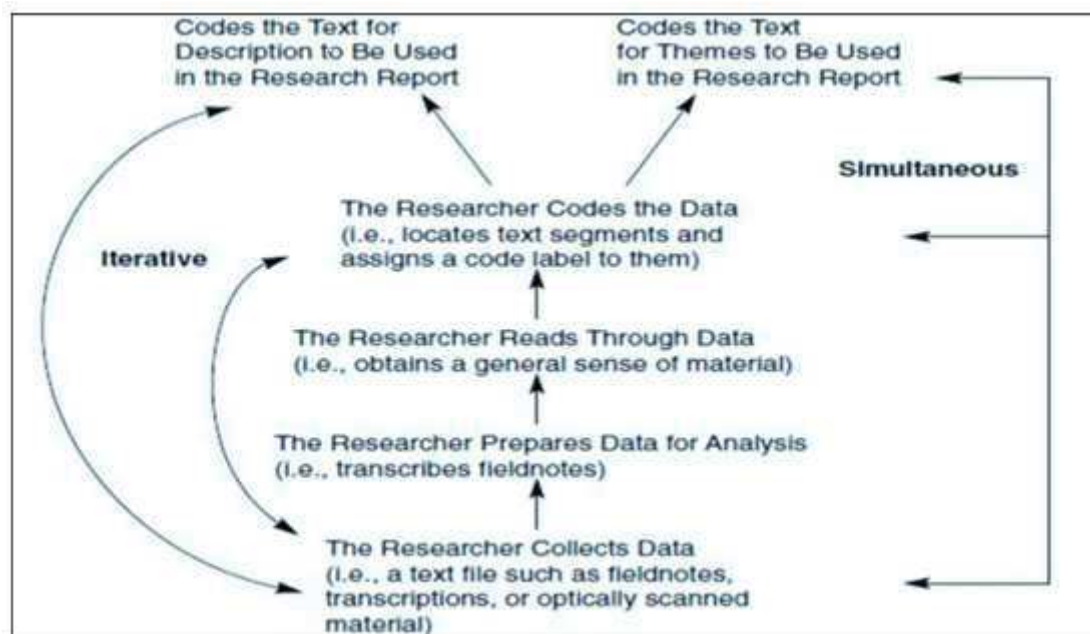


Figure 7. Qualitative content analysis scheme (adapted from Creswell, 2012, p.35).

The data analysis of the interviews started by reading all the transcriptions several times. After reading the raw data repeatedly, NVivo-11 program, qualitative data analysis software, was used for the second step of the analysis. The transcriptions were uploaded into the programme and the statements which were related to the research phenomena and particularly to the research questions were coded. These steps were revisited for the other qualitative types of data. After the researcher completed coding, she investigated through common themes and categories within the codes. Saldana (2009) advises that after coding with words and short phrases the researcher can pre-code, create preliminary jottings to enable the further steps to flow easily. He (2009) also refers to a “codes to theory model for qualitative inquiry” in which codes turn into categories, sometimes to subcategories, then themes and/or concepts are developed of these categories and all either form theories or support the existing theories and thus progressive elaboration of content analysis is completed (p.12) (see Figure 8).

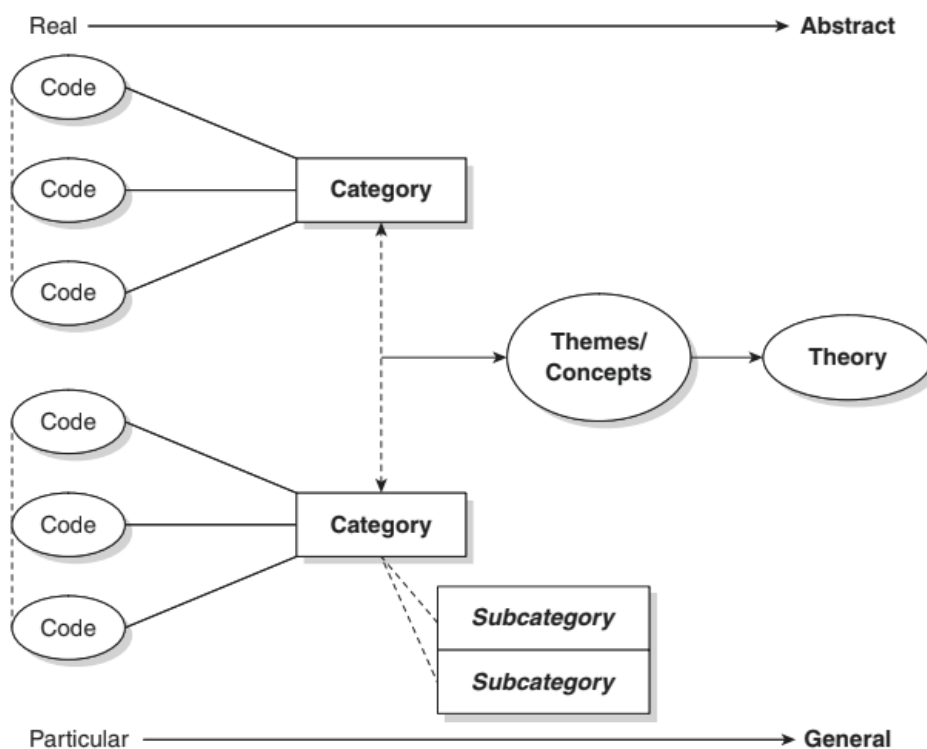


Figure 8. A codes-to theory model for qualitative inquiry.

To enhance the intra-rater reliability, all raw and coded data were revisited repeatedly and controlled to avoid misinterpretations and mismatches. Moreover, the results, here raw and coded data were sent to two experts from the field to provide inter-rater reliability (Bryman, 2004; Saldana, 2009). The score of inter-rater reliability for the categories was 92%. After analysis by two experts, codes and themes were put into their final form of categories.

The analysis of reflective journals is two-fold: once they were visited to explore “PSTs’ motivation and beliefs about language learning and teaching”, being a language teacher, learners, practices as teachers or school environment; they were revisited to find similarities and/or differences in the data from other qualitative tools used in the study. The other reason to do so is to confirm the re-curring themes and to observe whether there’s belief change throughout the study.

Conclusion

In a qualitative study, the most important things are the description of the context and participants and the detailed description of results reinforced with data presented in excerpts from interviews, journals, field notes and similar documents. This thick description is realized in order to increase its negotiable being. All research elements in this study, from research design to research context and data collection instruments were given in details enriched with visuals: tables and figures. Additionally, the results were organized as quantitative and qualitative in separate parts in which research questions were addressed. The findings from the qualitative data were displayed in tables as well as block quotations of the participants' responses to provide a comprehensible report of the data.

To sum up, this chapter firstly addressed the different paradigms of educational research and rationale for setting a mixed method design in this study. Following the presentation of setting and participants, the survey phase was explained in detail including its planning phase, data collection tools and analysis. Besides, the preparation phase of the data collection instruments regarding their reliability and validity was presented in addition to the data collection and analysis procedures. Finally, the ethical standpoint of the researcher was explained in this chapter. The next chapter will present the results of the study.

Chapter IV

Findings

Introduction

This chapter first presents the findings of the quantitative analyses of the data obtained from the first, second and third implementation of BALLI (beliefs of language learning) survey, En-FIT (Motivation) Scale. It then presents the qualitative analyses of the pre-service teacher trainee journals, metaphor tasks and pre-and post semi-structured interviews content analysis.

Quantitative Findings

The present study employed a mixed method design which consists of both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods. In this section, the findings from two survey studies will be presented in relation to the research questions.

The current study aims at investigating the following research questions.

1. What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning in the first year of teacher education?
2. What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after three years teacher education before the practicum courses?
3. What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after the practicum courses?
4. Are there any changes in pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs over the four years of teacher education?
5. What are pre-service EFL teachers' motivations for becoming language teachers?
6. Is there any relationship between pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their motivation for becoming teachers?

Throughout this section BLLT is used to represent pre-service EFL teachers' (PSTs) "Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching", and MD is used to refer their "Motivational Dispositions". Research questions were labelled as RQ.

In this section, first, to find out the ELT teacher trainees' BLLTs and MDs, descriptive statistics of BALLI-1, -2, -3 and En-FIT were calculated. Second, statistical tests were administered to determine any significant differences between BALLI-1,-2, and 3. Third, correlational statistics were conducted to determine any relationships between BALLI-3 and En-FIT.

RQ1: What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning in the first year of teacher education? To answer this question, the participants were asked to complete BALLI-1 at the very beginning of their teacher education programme. The mean scores, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores were calculated for each of the category in BALLI-1 and documented in Table 10. The categories are shown as "Learning and Communication Strategies" (LCS), "Foreign Language Aptitude" (FLA), "Difficulty of Language Learning" (DLL), "Motivations and Expectations" (ME), "Nature of Language Learning" (NLL) in the tables in this section.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics of BALLI-1

1 st Measurement	N	\bar{x}	SD	Minimum	Maximum
LCS	158	3.51	0.81	2.00	5.00
FLA	158	3.42	0.42	1.89	4.44
DLL	158	3.04	0.66	1.60	4.40
ME	158	3.78	0.53	2.33	4.83
NLL	158	3.43	0.69	2.00	4.67

According to the mean scores set out in Table 11, the participants reported moderately high levels of beliefs in nearly all construct categories. The mean scores can be listed as high starting “Motivation and Expectations” (ME) category with a mean score 3,78, it is followed by “Learning and Communication Strategies” (LCS) category with $\bar{x} = 3,51$, then comes “Nature of Language Learning” (NLL) category with $\bar{x} = 3,43$ score, and then “Foreign Language Anxiety” (FLA) $\bar{x} = 3,42$ precedes the category “Difficulty of Language Learning” (DLL) with the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}=3,04$).

The results obtained from the item by item analysis of BALLI-1, the highest means scores were observed in Motivations and Expectations category. The mean score of item 27 ($\bar{x}=4.49$) and item 29 ($\bar{x}=4.50$) were the highest in that category. Item 27 is related to the participants’ motivation to learn English. Most of the participants (95,6%) agreed that “if they learn English very well, they will get better opportunities for a good job”. Item 29 is related to their expectation related to English language learning. Most of the participants (88, 7%) again expressed strong agreement with the expectation that “they want to learn to speak English very well”, that is also related to the importance of communication strategies of language learners (see Appendix G).

RQ2: What are pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after three years teacher education before the practicum courses? To understand what BLLTs the participants had after the first three years of campus-based courses and before their practice teaching, BALLI was re-administered (BALLI-2). In Table 12 below, the descriptive statistics of the analysis of second measurement of participants’ beliefs are shown.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics of BALLI-2

2 nd Measurement	N	\bar{x}	SD	Minimum	Maximum
LCS	158	3.86	0.52	2.13	4.75
FLA	158	3.54	0.37	2.56	4.33
DLL	158	3.19	0.56	1.80	4.40
ME	158	3.95	0.45	2.83	5.00
NLL	158	3.69	0.51	2.00	4.67

As shown in Table 12, when compared to the first measurement in Table 11, moderately higher level of beliefs was performed by the participants. As detailed in table 12, the participants expressed high levels of beliefs in all categories of the survey. The mean scores can be listed as high starting “Motivation and Expectations” (ME) category with a mean score 3.95, it is followed by “Learning and Communication Strategies” (LCS) category with $\bar{x} = 3.86$, then comes “Nature of Language Learning” (NLL) category with $\bar{x} = 3.69$ score, and then “Foreign Language Aptitude” (FLA) $\bar{x} = 3.54$ precedes the category “Difficulty of Language Learning” (DLL) with the lowest mean score ($\bar{x} = 3.19$) among all the categories in the second measurement of beliefs of the participants.

We observe some items reflect higher mean scores than the others in the survey, in order of higher scores to the lower ones: Item 29, 27, 30, 16 and 24. Items 27 ($\bar{x} = 4.76$), 29 ($\bar{x} = 4.61$) and 30 ($\bar{x} = 4.48$) which are placed in ME “Motivations and Expectations” category show strong agreement respectively 96.2% highest and 86.5% the lowest. Items 16 ($\bar{x} = 4.47 / 91.1\%$) and 24 ($\bar{x} = 4.39 / 88\%$) which belongs to LCS “Learning and Communication Strategies” category also show strong agreement with high frequencies (see Appendix G). Here, in the

second measurement, the higher beliefs were presented by the respondents when compared to the scores of the first measurement (See Tables 11 and 12).

RQ3: What are pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning after the practicum courses? The participants re-administered BALLI (BALLI-3) at the very end of their teacher education program after they completed both of their practice teaching courses: teaching experience and practicum. Table 13 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of BALLI-3.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of BALLI-3

3rd Measurement	N	\bar{x}	SD	Minimum	Maximum
LCS	158	3.73	0.55	1.63	4.63
FLA	158	3.95	0.33	3.11	4.67
DLL	158	3.22	0.50	1.80	4.40
ME	158	4.03	0.44	2.83	5.00
NLL	158	3.69	0.51	2.00	4.67

The results in Table 13 show that respondents performed fairly high scores in nearly all categories. In ME category, they declared the highest mean score ($\bar{x} = 4.03$), it is followed by “Foreign Language Anxiety” (FLA) with a mean score of 3.95, FLA is preceded by “Learning and Communication Strategies” (LCS) category ($\bar{x} = 3.73$) then comes “Nature of Language Learning” (NLL) category ($\bar{x} = 3.69$) score, and then precedes the category “Difficulty of Language Learning” (DLL) with the lowest mean score ($\bar{x}=3.22$) for the third measurement.

The detailed item analysis show us that the items with high mean scores are the items from NLL (Item 11: $\bar{x}= 4.39/ 84.8\%$), LCS (Item 16: $\bar{x}= 4.47/ 88\%$; Item 24: $\bar{x}= 4.39/ 91.1\%$)

and ME (Item 27: \bar{x} = 4.61/ 96.2% ; Item 29: \bar{x} = 4.76/ 96.2% ; Item 30: \bar{x} = 4.48/ 85.5%) categories. In other words, 91.1% of the respondents showed agreement with the idea that it is important to practice with audio and video materials for a better communication (Item 24 / LCS). 96. 2% of the participants expressed an agreement with the belief that “if I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job”. And again 96. 2% of the respondents reported an agreement with the belief that “I want to learn to speak English very well” (see Appendix G).

RQ4: Are there any changes in pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs over the four years of teacher education? The descriptive statistics of BALLI-1, -2, and -3 were given in the previous section. To respond to the current research question and thus to see whether there are changes in participants beliefs, we will first present descriptive statistics and test results all of the three measurements.

Table 14

The Mean Scores BALLI-1, -2, and -3.

Categories	1 st Measurement	2 nd Measurement	3 rd Measurement
	\bar{x}	\bar{x}	\bar{x}
LCS	3.51	3.86	3.73
FLA	3.42	3.54	3.95
DLL	3.04	3.19	3.22
ME	3.78	3.95	4.03
NLL	3.43	3.69	3.69

It can be seen in Table 14 that participants hold fairly strong “beliefs about language learning and teaching”. As for the category of LCS, their agreement starts high (\bar{x} = 3.51), then

it increases ($\bar{x}= 3.86$) after three year in teacher education programme. In the final year, a slight decrease is observed in participants' beliefs ($\bar{x}= 3.73$).

In FLA category, a continuous increase is observed in mean scores of the measurements. In the first measurement, the mean score is 3.42, it increases up to 3.54 in the second measurement and in the final analysis of beliefs of the participants, the mean score is observed relatively high ($\bar{x}= 3.95$). Like FLA category, an increase is observed throughout the measurements of beliefs in DLL category, ranging between $\bar{x}= 3.04$ and $x= 3.22$. The mean scores for beliefs in ME category starts high ($\bar{x}= 3.78$) in the first measurement. Then, it increases to $\bar{x}= 3.95$ as a result of the second measurement. In third measurement, the mean score for ME is observed in its highest score ($\bar{x}= 4.03$) of all measurements. Figure 9 presents category based details of the data obtained from belief survey through three measurements by comparing them in a graph. In the graph there are many items which are observable low at the beginning and rises through the third measurements and few items which move in reverse direction.

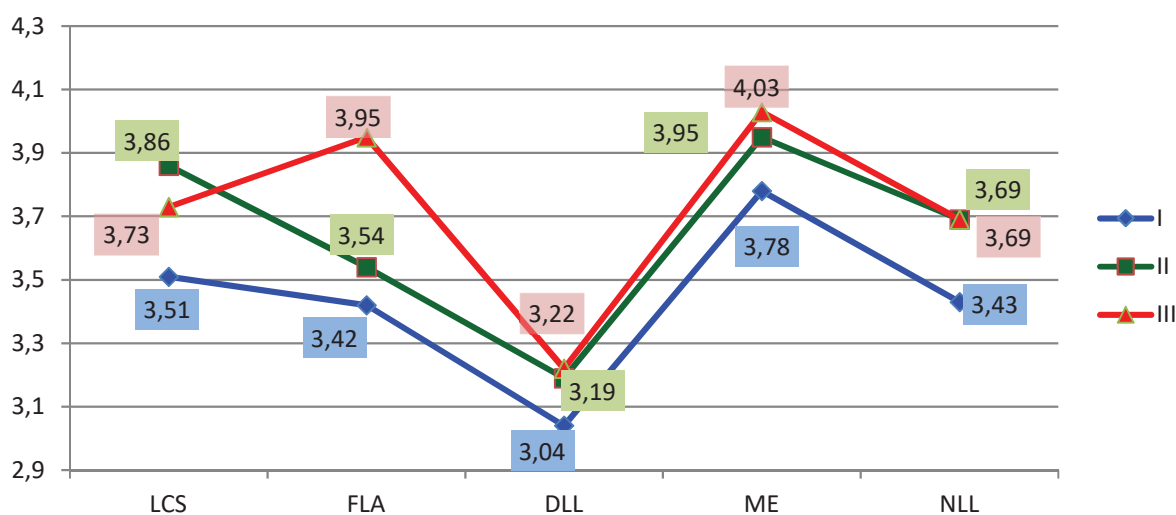


Figure 9. Category based belief change throughout the measurements.

Figure 9 above indicates a category-based analysis of belief change throughout three measurements. It compares the three measurements by indicating the mean scores of each category. It can be seen that while the highest mean scores come from the “motivation and expectation” category and the lowest mean scores belongs “difficulty of language learning” category. Except “language learning and communication strategies” category, all other categories display a consistent increase through all measurement.

It can be also seen in Figure 10 presenting item based details of the data obtained from belief survey through three measurements by comparing them in a graph. In the graph there are many items which are observable low at the beginning and rises through the third measurements and few items which move in reverse direction.

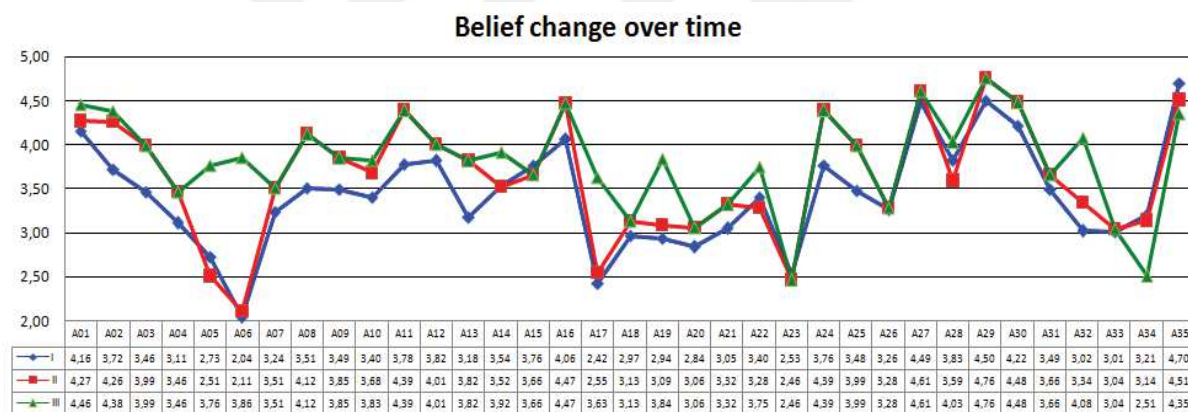


Figure 10. Item based belief change throughout the measurements.

Inferential statistical analysis of belief change during three measurements. A series of statistical tests was employed to explore if there are any significant differences between the measurements of participants’ beliefs over time. On the category-based analysis, first LCS category was exposed to several statistical analyses. In order to apply the most appropriate statistical analysis to investigate the belief change over time, first the researcher wanted to find out whether the scores ensure a normal distribution and can meet the assumption of utilizing parametric tests. After implementation of Skewness Kurtosis test, it was found out Skewness

Kurtosis values are not between -1 and +1, it was assumed that the scores are not normally distributed. Then, Kolmogorov-Smirnow and Shapiro-Wilk, the tests of normality, were employed. The results of these tests confirmed the case ($p < 0.01$). After then, Mauchly's Test of Sphericity which tests the assumption of sphericity was employed. According to the result of this test, the most important assumption of ANOVA for repeated measures is not satisfied (see Appendix H) and therefore, the results were compared with FRIEDMAN Test, "non-parametric version of ANOVA for related measures".

First, in Table 14, it is presented a summary of descriptive statistics of three measurements: mean scores of each category along with the standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores in belief survey. When the results in Table 14 are examined, we can see the increases in the mean scores of all categories during the three measurements.

Table 15

Details of Descriptive Statistics of Categories in Three Measurements.

Measurement	N	\bar{x}	SD	Min.	Max.
1 st Measurement	158	3.42	.415	1.89	4.44
LCS					
2 nd Measurement	158	3.54	.368	2.56	4.33
3 rd Measurement	158	3.95	.332	3.11	4.67
1 st Measurement	158	3.42	.415	1.89	4.44
FLA					
2 nd Measurement	158	3.54	.368	2.56	4.33

Measurement	N	\bar{x}	SD	Min.	Max.
3 rd Measurement	158	3.95	.332	3.11	4.67
1 st Measurement	158	3.04	.659	1.60	4.40
DLL					
2 nd Measurement	158	3.19	.555	1.80	4.40
3 rd Measurement	158	3.22	.497	1.80	4.40
1 st Measurement	158	3.78	.531	2.33	4.83
ME					
2 nd Measurement	158	3.95	.453	2.83	5.00
3 rd Measurement	158	4.03	.436	2.83	5.00
1 st Measurement	158	3.43	.685	2.00	4.67
NLL					
2 nd Measurement	158	3.69	.507	2.00	4.67
3 rd Measurement	158	3.69	.507	2.00	4.67

On the category based analysis, a non-parametric Friedman test was first administered for LCS category. Friedman Test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements. ($\chi^2_{(2,N=158)} = 28.94, p < 0.01$). Table 16 shows

the results of Friedman test for the category of LCS that there is a statistically significant difference between at least two measurements.

Table 16

Friedman Test Results for LCS Category

Test Statistics ^a	
N	158
Chi-Square	28.948
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

^a. Friedman Test

After the administration of non-parametric Friedman test, in order to see between which pairs the significant difference existed, pair-wise comparisons were made with Wilcoxon Test. Table 17 below presents the results of comparisons between BALLI-1 and-2, BALLI-1 and -3, and BALLI-2 and -3.

Table 17

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results for LCS Category

Test Statistics ^a	1 st - 2 nd Measurements	3 rd -1 st Measurements	3 rd -2 nd Measurements
Z	-5.594 ^b	-2.721 ^b	-6.077 ^c
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.006	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test b. Based on negative ranks. c. Based on positive ranks.

It is apparent in Table 17 above that there are statistically significant differences between three measurements. A comparison of the first and second measurements indicate that there is an increase between these two measurements ($z=5,594$, $p<0,01$). On the other hand, the pair-wise comparison of the second and third measurements demonstrates a decrease between the results of participants' beliefs about LCS ($z=2,721$, $p<0,01$).

As for FLA category, Friedman test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements (see Table 17).

Table 18

Friedman Test Results for FLA Category

Test Statistics ^a	
N	158
Chi-Square	28.948
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

^a. Friedman Test

Similar to LCS category, since the most important assumption of ANOVA for repeated measures is not satisfied through Mauchly's Test of Sphericity (see Appendix H), pair-wise comparisons were made with Wilcoxon Test to see in which pairs of measurements there is a significant difference in three measurements of FLA category.

Table 19

Wilcoxon Singed Ranks Test Results for FLA Category

Test Statistics ^a	BALLI-2, -1	BALLI-3, -1	BALLI-3, -2
FLA Category			
Z	-3.354 ^b	-10.129 ^b	-10.355 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

The results of Wilcoxon signed ranked test reveal that there is a statistically significant differences between first measurement and second measurement, ($z=3.354$, $p<0.01$), and a significant difference between second and third measurements ($z=10.355$, $p<0.01$). The results indicated that an increase is observed between both pairs. The mean ranks of the measurements of beliefs in FLA category gradually increased through the third measurement.

In order to see if there are any significant differences between the measurements from DLL category, first the assumption of sphericity was tested through Mauchly's Test of Sphericity. According to the result of this test, the most important assumption of ANOVA for repeated measures is not satisfied (see Appendix H) and therefore, the results were compared with FRIEDMAN Test, “non-parametric version of ANOVA for related measures”.

On the category-based analysis, a non-parametric Friedman test was first administered for DLL category. Friedman Test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements as it is seen in Table 20.

Table 20

Friedman Test Results for DLL Category

Test Statistics ^a	
N	158
Chi-Square	6.168
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.046

^a. Friedman Test

Friedman Test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements. ($\chi^2_{(2,N=158)}=6.168, p<.05$) In order to see in which pairs there is significant difference, pair-wise comparisons were made for three measurements of DLL category through Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test.

Table 21

Wilcoxon Singed Ranks Test Results for DLL Category

Test Statistics ^a	BALLI-2, -1	BALLI-3, -1	BALLI-3, -2
DLL Category			
Z	-3.154 ^b	-3.470 ^b	-1.121 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.001	.262

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

According to the results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, second measurement ranks is higher than the first measurements' ranks, namely there is an increase between BALLI-1 and -

2 ($z = 3.154$, $p < .01$). However, we cannot observe any statistically significant difference between BALLI-2 and -3 of DLL ($z = 1.121$, $p > .05$).

Since the important assumption of ANOVA for repeated measures is not satisfied for ME category, results are compared with FRIEDMAN Test which is the non-parametric version of ANOVA for related measures. Table 21 presents that the results of Friedman Test revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements of the related category in the survey. ($\chi^2_{(2, N=158)} = 74.243$, $p < .01$). Pair-wise comparisons were made with Wilcoxon Test to find out in which pairs there is significant difference.

Table 22

Friedman Test Results for ME Category

Test Statistics ^a	
N	158
Chi-Square	74.243
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

^a. Friedman Test

Table 23

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results for ME Category

Test Statistics ^a	BALLI-2, -1	BALLI-3, -1	BALLI-3, -2
DLL Category			
Z	-4.590 ^b	-6.623 ^b	-5.749 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

Table 23 shows that there is statistically significant difference between BALLI-1 and -2 ($z=4.590$, $p<.01$), and BALLI-2 and -3 ($z=5.749$, $p<.01$) in ME. In sum, the test results revealed that the second measurement was significantly higher than the first one ($z=4.590$, $p<.01$). Moreover, the mean ranks of the third measurement are significantly higher than the second measurement ($z=5.749$, $p<.01$).

Friedman test was also employed for “Nature of Language Learning” (NLL) category (see Table 23). The results showed a statistically significant difference between the results of at least two measurements. ($\chi^2_{(2, N=158)}=35.507$, $p<0.01$). To explore the differences, Wilcoxon test were made for pair-wise comparisons among the measurements.

Table 24

Friedman Test Results for NLL Category

Test Statistics ^a	
N	158
Chi-Square	35.507
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

^a. Friedman Test

To understand if there is any significant differences between the two administration Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was utilized. In Table 24 we can note that there is an increase between BALLI-1 and -2 ($z=4.791$, $p<0.01$). No significant difference between the BALLI-2 and -3 was observed ($z=0$, $p>0.05$).

Table 25

Wilcoxon Singed Ranks Test Results for NLL Category

Test Statistics ^a	BALLI-2, -1	BALLI-3, -1	BALLI-3, -2
DLL Category			
Z	-4.791 ^b	-4.791 ^b	.000 ^c
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	1.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

c. The sum of negative ranks equals the sum of positive ranks.

Table 25 above highlights the significant difference between the BALLI-2 and -1, in other words an inclination of the mean ranks of first measurement of NLL towards BALLI-2. As for the relationship between BALLI-3 and -2, there is no significant difference observed between the two and their mean ranks remained same in both of the last two measurements.

In order to understand whether the first three years of campus-based teacher education have any impact on trainees' beliefs, t test for paired samples was administered to see the differences between the first and second measurements on an item basis (Table 26). Significant differences are observed between the two measurements of most of the items. The mean scores of beliefs of participants increased between the two measurements. During the three years of campus-based teacher education, participants' beliefs about LCS (Items 13,16,20,24), FLA (Items 2,9, 10,14,31), DLL (Items 3 and 32), ME (Items 4, 18, 27, 29, 30), and NLL (Items 7, 11, 21, 25) were strengthened. Only the participants' beliefs about FLA (Items 5-28) and DLL (Item 35) were significantly decreased during these years of teacher education programme. The interview results which will be reported in the following sections also supported these findings.

Table 26

The results of t test for paired samples BALLI-1 and -2

Item	I	II	$\bar{x}_2 - \bar{x}_1$	t	df	Item	I	II	$\bar{x}_2 - \bar{x}_1$	t	df
A02	3,72	4,26	0,54	-5,410	157	A20	2,84	3,06	0,22	-2,731	157
A03	3,46	3,99	0,53	-4,940	157	A21	3,05	3,32	0,27	-3,462	157
A04	3,11	3,46	0,35	-4,420	157	A24	3,76	4,39	0,63	-5,929	157
A05	2,73	2,51	-0,22	2,523	157	A25	3,48	3,99	0,51	-5,052	157
A07	3,24	3,51	0,27	-3,799	157	A27	4,49	4,61	0,12	-3,215	157
A08	3,51	3,85	0,34	-5,664	157	A28	3,83	3,59	-0,24	3,192	157
A09	3,49	3,85	0,36	-3,201	157	A29	4,50	4,76	0,26	-4,348	157
A10	3,40	3,68	0,28	-2,542	157	A30	4,22	4,48	0,26	-4,253	157
A11	3,78	4,39	0,61	-4,911	157	A31	3,49	3,66	0,17	-2,339	157
A13	3,18	3,82	0,64	-6,280	157	A32	3,02	3,34	0,32	-3,374	157
A16	4,06	4,47	0,41	-4,233	157	A35	4,70	4,51	-0,19	4,058	157
A18	2,97	3,13	0,16	-2,049	157						

p < .05

The table 26 lists the belief items which statistically differ between the first two measurements, either in a positive or negative ways above.

To find out the impact of teaching practice and teaching practicum courses over trainees' beliefs, t test for paired samples were employed. According to the results of this test, there is a statistically significant difference between the last two measurements which the surveys administered before and after the senior year of the participants. The participants' beliefs increased between the measurements and this increase was mostly occurred about FLA beliefs (Items 1, 2, 5, 10, 14, 17, 28), and respectively beliefs about LCS (Items 6, 19) and also ME (Item 22). A decline is observed on the participants' beliefs about DLL (Items 34 and 35).

Table 27

The results of t test for paired samples for BALLI-2 and -3

Item	II	III	$\bar{x}_2 - \bar{x}_1$	t	df
A01	4,27	4,46	0,19	-4,021	157
A02	4,26	4,38	0,12	-3,311	157
A05	2,51	3,76	1,25	-12,744	157
A06	2,11	3,86	1,75	-17,067	157
A10	3,68	3,83	0,15	-3,030	157
A14	3,52	3,92	0,40	-7,220	157
A17	2,55	3,63	1,08	-10,188	157
A19	3,09	3,84	0,75	-8,237	157
A22	3,28	3,75	0,47	-6,730	157
A28	3,59	4,03	0,44	-6,309	157
A32	3,34	4,08	0,74	-8,081	157
A34	3,14	2,51	-0,63	8,526	157
A35	4,51	4,35	-0,16	2,014	157

$p < .05$

Table 27 displays the results of the t test for paired samples on item based analysis by providing the mean scores of items in each measurement, mean differences, t and df values and Sig.(2-tailed) / p value ($p < .05$).

RQ5: What are pre-service EFL teachers' motivations for becoming language teachers?. Before analysing the results obtained from the En-FIT, the researcher examined some factors that might affect the motivational level of ELT teacher trainees. The first factor examined was the parents' occupation: teacher parents and others. In order to understand there is a statistically significant difference in participants' motivation scores according to whether their fathers or mothers are teachers. First, the mean scores of "teacher parent" groups and "other occupation parents" group were compared, but no difference was observed between these groups. Secondly, independent samples tests, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and

t-test for Equality of Means, were employed to find out if there is any difference between the mean scores of different motivational categories and to see the teacher-parent participants and other-occupation-parent participants performed differently in their motivational dispositions. The results revealed that neither fathers nor mothers have any significant impact over teacher trainees' motivations to become teachers (see Appendix J).

The other factor which the researcher examined to find out whether it effects the motivational dispositions of the participants is the pre-training involvement of the participants. The participants were asked whether they participate in any type of training activities before teacher training programme. 35, 44% ($f.55$) of the participants indicated that they involved in pre-training activities (seminars, vocational counselling meetings and etc.) related to their profession. These participants were tested whether their motivational scores different from those who had never participated in any kind of training activities before the faculty enrolment. To see whether there is difference between the participants with pre-training and the participants without pre-training, independent samples test, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances and t-test for Equality of Means, was administered.

The participants who involved in pre-training activities performed higher scores than the participants who had never participated in these activities. The higher scores stand out in the categories Job Transferability ($.032 - p < 0.05$) and Social Pedagogical Influences ($.019 - p < 0.05$).

Table 28

Independent Sample Test for Pre-training Involvements

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
MB JT	Eq v assumed	2.37	.126	2.16	156	.032	.488	.225	.042	.933
	Eq v not assumed			2.25	127.879	.026	.488	.216	.060	.916
MB PTLE	Eq v assumed	.179	.673	3.24	156	.001	.615	.189	.240	.989
	Eq v not assumed			3.33	122.352	.001	.615	.184	.249	.980
MB SPI	Eq v assumed	1.51	.221	2.36	156	.019	.431	.182	.070	.792
	Eq v not assumed			2.47	129.165	.015	.431	.174	.086	.776

Table 28 illustrates in which categories the participants with pre-training show significantly higher level of motivation than the participants who had never participated in such activities.

En-FIT was administered to determine the factors that influence the teaching choice of the current participants. Table 29 presents the descriptive statistics for En-FIT. The descriptive data analysis show that teacher trainees had moderately high level of motivation to become language teachers (\bar{x} =4.93; SD=0.97).

Table 29

Category Based Descriptive Statistics of Motivation Scale

	Categories	N	\bar{x}	SD	Min.	Max.
Mot A	ELT Motivation	158	5,60	0.71	2.73	7.00
	Ability	158	5.17	1.19	1.00	7.00
	Intrinsic Career Value	158	5.24	1.40	1.00	7.00
	Fallback Career	158	4.42	0.95	1.67	7.00
Mot B	Personal Utility	158	4.75	1.51	1.00	7.00
	Job Transferability	158	4.64	1.37	1.00	7.00
	Social Utilities	158	5.89	0.91	2.00	7.00
	Work w Children & Adolescent	158	5.59	0.98	2.17	7.00
	Social Pedagogical Influences	158	4.67	1.11	1.00	7.00
Mot C	Expert Career	158	5.83	0.99	2.50	7.00
	High Demand	158	4.96	1.75	1.00	7.00
	Social Status	158	3.77	1.29	1.17	7.00
	Salary	158	3.56	1.52	1.00	7.00

When the mean scores are examined, it is observed that respondents expressed a high value score on the factor of “social utilities” for choosing teaching as a career ($\bar{x}= 5.89$; $SD= 0.91$). In this factor, the items generally mention “making social contribution” “enhancing social contributions in the society” and “shaping future of children and adolescents”. By claiming “social utilities” as a high motivation factor in the scale, participants expressed the ideas: “Teaching will allow me to influence the next generation” ($\bar{x}= 6.28$ item mean score), “Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution” ($\bar{x}= 6.36$), “Teaching allows me to provide a service to society” ($\bar{x}= 6.07$) and “Teaching will allow me to have an impact on children/adolescents” ($\bar{x}= 5.99$). Following the social utility factor, “expert career” was found as the second highest factor of motivation for the teacher trainees ($\bar{x}=5.83$ category mean score). This factor is placed in the perceptions section of the motivation scale investigating the motivational perceptions about the necessity of expertise in teaching profession. They indicated

“Teaching is a profession which requires special talents” (\bar{x} = 6.18, Item 6), “Teaching is a profession which requires high levels of expert knowledge” (\bar{x} = 6.01, Item 10) and “Teachers need highly specialised knowledge” (\bar{x} =5. 57, Item 15).

The third highest construct that was reported by the participants is “ELT motivation”, which includes items related to English language and language teaching (\bar{x} =5. 60 category mean score). The participants pointed out high values to the statements “I choose ELT as profession because...”: “I enjoy the subject I will teach”(\bar{x} =6. 37), “It enables to use/speak English” ”(\bar{x} =6. 07), “English is important to me” (\bar{x} =6. 34), “English helps pupils become more internationally minded” ”(\bar{x} =5. 86) and “English language teaching is a prestigious profession” (\bar{x} =5.53).

The other categories that had high reported means were “work with children and adolescents” (\bar{x} =5. 59), “intrinsic career value” ”(\bar{x} =5.24) and “ability” ”(\bar{x} =5. 17). As a factor influencing teaching career choice, “I would like to have a profession that involves working with children or youth” (\bar{x} =6. 05) statement had the highest value within the category of “work with children and adolescents”. As for the “intrinsic career value” category, the trainees gave the highest importance to the item “I have always wanted to be a teacher” (\bar{x} =6. 37). They also found important the “ability factor” while choosing teaching as a career by stating the item “I have the characteristics a good teacher has” with a high mean score (\bar{x} =6. 03).

In Table 29, it is seen that the least important factors influencing the participants’ career choice are “social status” (\bar{x} =3.77) and “salary” (\bar{x} =3.56). As a “social status” factor, teacher trainees do not believe “Teachers have high work satisfaction” (\bar{x} =3.31). When their perceptions related to “salary”, we observe that they do not believe either “teachers make a good wage” (\bar{x} =3. 81) and “teachers earn a good salary” (\bar{x} =3. 31).The detailed analysis for

other items can be found in Appendix I, the table showing item based descriptive statistics of whole En-FIT.

RQ6: Is there any relationship between pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching and their motivation for becoming teachers? In order to find out if there is any relationship between the scores BALLI-3 and En-FIT, the researcher used Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r), which is a non-parametric test for investigating the relationship between two quantitative and continuous variables. In the test r ranges between +1 and -1. If the value is 0, it represents there is no relationship between the variables. If the value is higher than zero, it indicates there is a positive relationship, that is when the scores of a variable increase so do the scores of other variable.

Table 30 presents the results of the Pearson Correlation test that was run on the BALLI-3 and En-FIT scores. According to the test results, there are positive/uphill relationships between some of the variables. There is a moderate positive relationship between participants' "learning and communication" beliefs and "motivation to become English language teachers" ($r = .51$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$); "foreign language aptitude" beliefs and "motivation to become English language teachers" ($r = .51$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.); "nature of language learning beliefs" and "motivation to become English language teachers" ($r = .58$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.). The results also indicates that there is a relatively strong positive relationship between participants' "difficulty of language learning beliefs" and "motivation to become English language teachers" ($r = .69$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.), "learning and communication" beliefs and "motivation to choose teaching as a career" ($r = .68$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.), "foreign language aptitude" beliefs and "motivation to choose teaching as a career" ($r = .63$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.), and "motivation and expectations" and "motivation to choose teaching as a career" ($r = .63$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.). The relationships between the variables were strengthened in two data sets. The strong and positive association was observed between the participants' "motivation and expectations" and

“motivation to become English language teachers” ($r = .85$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.), and their “motivation and expectations” beliefs and “beliefs about becoming a teacher.” ($r = .73$, $n = 158$, $p = 0.000$.). The results also point out that there are relationships between the other variable sets; however, most of the correlation r values are under 0, 30, weak and not significant as it can be seen in Table 29.

Table 30

Spearman Correlation Test Results

Categories		Motivation Scale Categories			
		MOT-A	MOT-B	MOT-C	
Belief Survey Categories	LCS	.517**	.689**	.280**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	158	158	158
	FLA	.508**	.636**	.258**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001
		N	158	158	158
	DLL	.698**	.128	.211**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.109	.008
		N	158	158	158
	ME	.857**	.630**	.739**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	158	158	158
	NLL	.587**	.198**	.228**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
		N	158	158	158

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To support the findings that were yielded from BALLI- 2, 3 and En_FIT in response to RQs 2-5, qualitative data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews, metaphor analysis, and reflective journals. This section presents the findings of the qualitative data analysis.

Qualitative Findings

Beliefs about learning and teaching English: Semi-structured interview (SSI1). The semi-structured interviews (SSI) were conducted twice throughout the study. The first round was conducted at the beginning of the final year of the participants (SSI1) at around the same time of the administration of BALLI-2. It was aimed at gaining insights into trainees' initial BLLTs by asking them their experiences as learners, to define a good language teacher and their future expectations as trainees. The data that were collected from the interviews aimed to support the quantitative findings in answer to RQ2. The second interviews were held at the end of the final year in order to understand their BLLTs after completing teaching practice and practicum courses, and to observe changes in their beliefs and motivational dispositions as teacher candidates (SSI2). This corresponds to the administration of BALLI-3 and the findings were used to respond to RQ4.

In order to identify the uniformity and shared beliefs and views about teaching, teachers, students, and learning, the data were read repeatedly. These were first coded via NVivo software. Second, these codes were categorised according to their similarities and differences. Then, the main categories, which attempted to respond to the research questions, were obtained from the patterns and regularities within the interview data.

Beliefs about learning English. The analysis of results indicates that the participants released different sets of thoughts for each round of interviews. In the first administration of interviews, the categories forming the main category “beliefs about language learning English can be listed as: “language learning strategies”, “language skills”, “motivation”, and “language

aptitude. The following table summarizes the categories of “beliefs about learning English” according the responses given during the first interviews.

Table 31

The Results of First Interview on Beliefs about Learning English

SSI1	Beliefs about Learning English	<i>f</i>
	Language Learning Strategies	12
	Language Skills	13
	Motivation	14
	Language Aptitude and ability	9

Language learning strategies. During the SSI1, when their beliefs about language learning asked, 12 PSTs (TT) reported that while learning a language, learners should adopt some strategies to improve their language. The following scripts exemplify their beliefs about the importance of learning strategies.

“...students should be aware of their own learning, what his level is, what is needed to be learnt, focus on the areas that he is weak...as me...it is speaking..and organize a plan, when and how much practice he should do...by means of what, just listening the teacher, no...needs too much effort, plans...only if he can succeed...he shouldn’t deceive himself that he can be taught everything at school” (TT3-SSI1). (metacognitive)

“Keeping a vocabulary notebook always works, every student has to have one. She may categorize the words...according to the types of words or where they can be used, academic or daily language...i still keep one, too old, from primary school... these notebooks can be kept for other parts of language learning...one of my friends had voice recordings at high school... useful (phrases) and

sentences, she was used to listen and listen again, useful...” (TT7-SSI1)
(cognitive)

“...language learners should never give up, they should not demoralised when they do not know or remember a word...same while telling something, imagine she forgets a word...use the words you know instead or mime it...if possible....at least behave you are playing silent motion pictures and go on, they should not be shy improving English” (TT12-SSI1). (compensation and affective)

“ Language learners should not talk with Turkish students when you go abroad, find a friend speaking English...in classroom...in fact out of the classroom follow your English teachers to ask something...create opportunities to speak with English teachers, say hello, ask after them...etc. if you have a native in your school, so lucky you are...” (TT15-SSI1) (cognitive and social)

“for instance I am an introvert learner, I should focus speaking...improve my speaking skills...I tried to hang out with a friend who is good at speaking English...I feel ridiculed...have to overcome it..made some plans for the summer to improve myself...yes, awareness is good for success...half the battle..” (TT18-SSI1) (metacognitive)

The quotes above illustrates that the participants value language learning strategies while learning a language. They expressed some strategies such as metacognitive, cognitive, compensation, affective and social important in language learning.

Language skills. The other category obtained from the SSI1 data is “language skills”. The PSTs reported that language skills are important for a language learner to improve their language in a productive way. Speaking skills was top rated skill over other skills with a higher frequency. When they mentioned the language skills, they generally referred to their own

language learning experiences. The following quotes indicates which skills were mentioned by the participants.

“ I used to listen anything in English when I was at high school, news, radio broadcasts, songs...dialogues from course book CDs...listening is a must... for all other skills, especially speaking, if not...not possible to express yourself...just Turkish students understand you...Turkish English though..” (TT8-SSI1)

“we should hear first, the proper examples...by native speakers..if you pronounce well...becomes more comprehensible, not necessary to become an English teacher...one who wants to speak well and understood by others...learn phonetics.” (TT9-SSI1)

“...reading is really important...should be an habit...as it is in mother tongue...it is beneficial for vocabulary development. I gained most of my vocabulary is through books.” (TT15-SSI1)

“grammar comes next...listening and then practice it...are the best way for using a language...I will teach...at least advise...depends their levels and of course school..advise my students to notice the importance of listening and... thus speaking” (TT3-SSI1)

“To be a successful language learner...what I did is to read a lot...still reading...of course speaking is also important...especially for communicating with other people, but the vocabulary...used while speaking comes from your readings...an undeniable fact I think...we always read in our normal life, imagine you don't...” (TT16-SSI1)

“I accept I am not good at speaking but if I do not know enough words...and where to use it...impossible to speak to me...I wrote the new vocabulary on post-its and stick them...visible...at home, we can do it at school... it has a name in

theory (peripheral learning), don't remember now...a good language learner values vocabulary..." (TT19-SSI1)

"I study a lot...to speak English well, to communicate with others, not only as an English teacher candidate...We should speak well and that needs more practice, everywhere...at every opportunity" (TT8-SSI1)

It is clear from these extracts that PSTs underline the importance of language skills in learning a language. Their beliefs about language skills are observed around speaking first, and followed by reading, listening, pronunciation and vocabulary.

Motivation. Motivation to learn a language is the most important factor of language learning beliefs expressed by the participants. The quotes below indicate the underlying reasons why trainees accept it as the most important among the other factors.

"if you're willing to do something, it gets easier...it is the case. If we love language learning, it will be fruitful. The same goes for other subjects...for instance math and my relation..it always fails...and we always break up". (TT12-SSI1)

"the students should need to learn a new language...me to become an English teacher, for the other...to go to a university abroad or to work there..maybe his girlfriend a foreigner...must feel a need." (TT5-SSI1)

"if we teach our students where they can use English, they might get more motivated...if they know their targets...motivated and more willing to learn..use the language..." (TT20-SSI1)

"Motivation is the key to success in language learning...nobody learns...anything that is not interested in. If we are motivated to learn either in the classroom or outside world...by anyone or anything.., we are eager to learn and succeed." (TT7-SSI1)

"future goals, rewards...depending on the learners' age, we, as teachers, should motivate them...a head start...as a warm-up for all lessons that year." (TT18-SSI1)

“ as a learner at the same time, motivation is really important in all fields, if someone is motivated, there is no way to failure...all fields yes, but English is different, you enter a world of different thinking, culture and without motivation, limited progress by the learners” (TT2-SSI1)

Foreign language aptitude and ability. The next factor of beliefs about language learning emerged from the SSI1 data is “foreign language aptitude and ability” The participants accept this category important and indispensable for language learning. The following excerpts were taken from participants’ responses to the questions of beliefs about language learning in the interviews.

“It is hard for a person who is not ready to learn a language, he should be equipped with the abilities to succeed...not similar to maths or some other fields..learn formula and solve..not that much easy.” (TT11-SSI1)

“If you have a potential to learn a language, you learn it, a head start...depends on your tendencies...there are people...whatever you do or how much you help, they can’t learn it...a wall against...of course your performance is equal importance...nothing gained without practicing” (TT18-SSI1)

“most of the language teachers have already a great potential to learn a new language...they get what is taught, use the language better than the others..they are quick wit in their social life” (TT3-SSI1)

Beliefs about teaching English. The second emerging category related to trainees’ beliefs is their “beliefs about teaching English”. The analysis of results indicates that the participants mentioned some categories addressing the main category of teaching English. In the first administration of interviews, the categories consist of sub-categories: “use of mother tongue”, “approaches and methods”, “motivation”, and “error correction”. Table 32 below

summarizes the categories of “beliefs about teaching English” according the participants’ responses given during the first interviews.

Table 32

The Results of First Interview on Beliefs about Teaching English

SSI1	Beliefs about Learning English	<i>f</i>
	Use of Mother Tongue	12
	Approaches and Methods	12
	Characteristics of a Language Teacher	13
	Motivation	11
	Error Correction	8

Use of mother tongue. 12 participants mentioned their preferences for using students’ mother tongue (L1), Turkish in this case, in the classroom. Their comments resulted from both their experiences as learners and perspectives as PSTs. Most of the reported beliefs show us that the participants are against to the idea of using L1 in the classroom (N=10) while few favoured the use of L1 in language classrooms (N=2). The following excerpts show us how they justify their concerns over the use of L1 in EFL contexts.

“...to me, it is appropriate using Turkish in the classroom..my teacher in the primary school used to do it, it did not harm our English development... certainly to a certain amount...sometimes he could exaggerate especially when it is about sports... it (the use of L1) is more appropriate with beginner level students. It’s not that much problem as some of the instructors told here. ”

“a language classroom is language classroom...why we use Turkish...what is our (EFL teachers) function there? To teach Turkish or...?? I am against using L1 in the classroom.” (TT10-SSI1)

“We’re already sources of that language (English), if we speak Turkish, the exposure decreases. Where they will hear the language, at home? Neither my father nor my mother can speak English, what I gained is in the classroom...if the teacher tried every possible ways to teach the topic or vocabulary in English...very seldom she can use L1...better to use English in most cases” (TT12-SSI1)

“in fact it might be facilitative to use L1...we can make use of the similarities, for example while we teach present tense...give examples from Turkish, it will help learners understand fast and easily” (TT21-SSI1)

“remember one of my English teachers...she was constantly using Turkish...she used to start to speak Turkish, the class gave up and went on speaking Turkish... a few of us lost their chance to practice..that’s why I am not good at speaking...I wish she could improve herself and... not ruined her students. At least she could draw something to explain the staff...pretend to say something with her body language. I hope my learners do not remember me as I remember her.” (TT4-SSI1)

“sometimes we can use Turkish in the classroom only when we want to get their attention to me...especially they are getting noisy or bored. We may develop ways...may utter an exclamatory sentence in Turkish, clap your hands at the same time to awake them up, it is not always possible to do it in English, we should improve ourselves in some areas, I know,...” (TT17-SSI1)

“in some courses (content), how I explain it, for example studying on social topic, when the language is a means..for instance during a task which aims at social things or... student’s own life, last week we experience it here, at the faculty. At one point we may stuck and don’t feel confident enough to tell it in English, I think we can let students to use L1 in some cases. ” (TT23-SSI1)

The extracts above show that most of the participants are not in favour of using L1 in the classroom. They appear to feel confident in using the target language in the classroom. On the other hand, a few preferred to be cautious about using L1 while teaching in the actual classrooms.

Approaches and methods. Nearly half of the interviewees mentioned some language teaching methods and approaches when they refer to their own beliefs about teaching English. Among them, the communicative approach, group work and pair work activities, and learner-centred classrooms are the most favourable and frequently mentioned issues. They responded as:

“ being communicative...that is the thing in almost every lesson we hear this. I don't know if I manage to do it in the classroom, but I'll try it in my classroom...it depends the school...a vocational high school for instance, I'll see whether it works...maybe when I become experienced, be more communicative and make my classrooms more communicative” (TT21-SSI1)

“When a teacher always talks... becomes the one who improve their language skills. We should give opportunities to the students. In a communicative language classroom...teacher can implement, for instance a high school with better language proficiency, group work and even projects to get them develop better. In our final year...err I am very excited...we'll see what we can do...” (TT14-SSI1)

“I have always dreamed a learner centred classroom, their needs, interest...we are not given such opportunities...always teacher and teacher's book, don't go beyond the scope of the book, whether it is boring or not, we're neglected and get rid of teachers' book teachers. I will create a classroom atmosphere in which students' can communicate freely, their interested are taken into consideration. Teachers' book can

wait aside, the students will be my priority, I know I have to develop myself.” (TT25-SSI1)

“Grammar will not be my priority, if I have to put it in order of priorities; it becomes the fourth or fifth one. The students will be a part of the (process)...active participants in speaking lessons or the supplier of the day’s topic, active involvement is a must. Teacher centeredness to which we expose in some part of our school life did not actually help us...just I’ll try...the most loved teachers are generally the learner centred ones.” (TT22-SSI1)

“It depends on the size of the classroom but pair work, if not group work would be the most important ones I used in my classrooms. Both of them provide students to express their ideas freely...more English practice during these activities, they can correct each other’s errors and mistakes while pair work” (TT12-SSI1)

“I will not be a teachers’ book teacher as my teachers here advised not to do...not stick to it...even ordinary people can use it: that is what they say. I can develop my own materials and activities. I attempt to be more eclectic... a dash of this a pinch of that approach, it depends...needs, interests, necessities. Sometimes we discuss it with my friends, some find it feasible. To some extent they’re right...in two hours...sometimes not seems very realistic. I think years of experience are important, we may not realize at first, eventually it can be.” (TT9-SSI1)

“Communication in the classroom...always beneficial as we read and see. It should be our main target I think...there are ways of it. I remembered my last year in high school, exam preparation year, our main course teacher struggled to maintain communication as well, but we are reluctant to this. Because we had to prepare for the exam, you know, a written test, no need to communicate...communication was no longer our concern whole year. Now we try to recover.” (TT11-SSI1)

Teacher characteristics. During the interviews one of the factors emerged from the responses of the participants is the description of how to be a good English teacher. When these responses examined there appear two factors: cognitive factors and affective factors in relation to the characteristics of good language teachers. The cognitive characteristics are generally related to the teachers' readiness and language competencies. The affective factors, on the other hand, are related to their profile of physical activeness and mood states. The cognitive and affective factors of teacher characteristics are emerged from the quotes below.

“ a language teacher should be fully equipped, theoretical knowledge, knowledge of world. Since teaching language is like teaching everything, an English teacher should be knowledgeable...reading books...following ELT magazines, joining publishers' seminars, they are very useful. We can observe how things go in ELT contexts.” (TT3-SSI1)

“It is not enough to get higher grades in the exam, it is important to use the knowledge when you become a teacher, I keep my course books even the ones from the first year... the students' expectations...higher from an English teacher, they (English teachers) are cool and expected to be well on many subjects...they are usually the most generalist teachers at school” (TT18-SSI1)

“especially teaching young learners, an English teacher should be creative and enthusiastic...for kids not to lose attention” (TT22-SSI1)

“An English teacher in her first years and so... should prepare lesson plans for her each lesson. Though the topic is well known, she should be well-prepared...might be unexpected situations, questions and students.” (TT11-SSI1)

“ I chose to become a foreign language teacher as I love my English teachers in primary school...to be honest not all of them...the ones who are lively, energetic and who loves

teaching, it is not important to teach young learners, I think someone's loving her job is vital in all levels" (TT6-SSI1)

Motivation. In this part, the responses of the participants were given to exemplify their beliefs about the importance of motivation in language teaching. The participants here emphasize the motivation needs of teachers. They mostly mentioned the sources of motivation as: family, concerned people around (peers, school administrators), and self.

"When I was a little girl, I used to try to teach something to anyone I run across. Teaching was always associated with me in my family environment. My family encouraged me to be a teacher, so glad they did. When I feel motivated to do something, I get more successful...I think everybody do so. Moreover, when I am motivated by people around me, here my beloved family, it doubles, thus, teacher trainees need motivation, hear my voice...(smiles)." (TT14-SSI1)

" my mother is a retired primary school teacher. Once she was given a present by the school administration for her efforts at school, she got very happy. That week, she went school happier than before. We need to be motivated, all human beings...in every profession... present is not a must all the time, a hug, a praise, a smile...the salary increase would be the best. Having a teacher parent, I can say that not only students even teachers need it." (TT21-SSI1)

"When I practice group work in a course, I mean micro teaching in one of the theory classes. I tell myself "you were good, worked hard and succeeded...you will be a good teacher". Of course it results from the comments made by the trainer and my friends not only my thought (smiles). It encourages me to prepare myself for the following practices." (TT3-SSI1)

"It's weird when you spend too much effort and not praised by your peers...in (cooperative) group work activities, I work a lot, sometimes prepare the lesson on my

own...my friends (peers)... not even thank you. Next time you don't want to do it well enough, but it's a matter of pass or fail. I appreciate any nice words from my peers. They look as if I did a bad thing. I know they don't want me to raise the bar but it's nonsense...how we will learn to become good teachers...motivating and to be motivated." (TT25-SSI1)

"I do what I can do for my development as a language teacher. I watch movies, listen to English songs...I chat with people on the internet. I am a member of two ESL cafes on the internet, I take help from other trainees and teachers there while preparing my assignments...very fruitful most of the time. In fact, when I shared something with others...ones who are teachers or about to be teachers, I feel very motivated to improve my English and also to teach it what I learned. (TT12-SSI1)

Error correction. Error correction is the last category which was mentioned several times when the participants were asked about their language teaching beliefs. The quotes below exemplify the error correction techniques in "error correction category" of beliefs: teacher correction, peer correction and using intonation and/or mimes. During the interviews while some trainees preferred teacher correction, some found it not helpful, and some favoured teacher correction or facial expression and/or high intonation to draw attention to the error.

"Errors should be corrected indirectly by the teacher, repeating the same sentence, but this time correct version of course, in another lesson...not be late if the teacher takes their attention to the topic...without naming the student" (TT6-SSI1)

"My English teacher used to correct our errors by repeating right after it was done... we...not offended... we know it is natural..I mean to make errors... I think this is provided by our teacher...natural...not ridiculed". (TT17-SSI1)

“I prefer to be corrected by my teacher... he is the specialist...to let my friends correct me good for nothing...maybe for the higher level of (proficiency)...when the students are mature enough...it can work, but subject-specific”. (TT13-SSI1)

“by raising her voice..or even eyebrows...thus, giving a message ‘you’re doing wrong’ ...my high school teacher’s way of correcting error...after the signs we tried to correct the errors...revising the whole sentences. I can adopt the same way...I ‘ll try in teaching practice.” (TT14-SSI1)

“I may repeat the sentence for my students, the corrected version... certainly. If they say ‘he get up early in the mornings’ ...I say by raising my voice ‘ yees, he gets up...’ and repeat until they can produce the correct version of the sentence.” (TT10-SSI1)

Beliefs about teaching and learning: metaphor elicitation task. The participants were asked to write metaphors symbolizing “a language teacher”, “teaching”, “a teacher trainee” “ a language learner” and “motivation” along with their reasoning through a metaphor elicitation task. The following table illustrates the data pool of the themes of metaphors.

Table 33

Preliminary Analysis of the Metaphors

Category	Metaphors
A language teacher	<i>Helper, guide, sun, juggler, master, flower, candle, mother, father, facilitator, family member, architect, source, gardener, psychologist</i>
Teaching English	<i>Guiding, tourist guiding, blessing, watering, nurturing, teaching the world, fostering, communicating</i>
A teacher trainee	<i>Apprentice, micro-teacher, observer, tape recorder, hard-boiled egg, student, camera, a big learner, clown, young tree</i>
A language learner	<i>Receiver, computer, blossom, flower, blank paper, friend, brother sister</i>
A classroom	<i>Foundation, noisy place, dynamic hall, house, large room, furnished field, bell jar</i>
Motivation	<i>Automatic shift, sunlight, pedal</i>

When the metaphors examined, the participants seemed to be aware of their future roles as language teacher candidates by developing some metaphors such as *architect, facilitator, guide* and *gardener*. With *facilitator* and *guide* roles, they intend to claim that EFL teachers provide guidance for their students and facilitates learning, however here, the students were accepted to construct their own knowledge development. They were also aware of the difficulty of their job by addressing the metaphor *juggler, mother* and *father* which are roles requiring much energy, effort and care to fulfill. They described ‘teaching English’ as *guiding, watering, nurturing* and *communicating*. By *watering* and *nurturing*, “teaching English” was accepted as a performance of attending their students’ needs and interest that also support their growth. When they are to define ‘a teacher trainee’, different metaphors were uttered by the PSTs: *micro-teacher, apprentice, hard-boiled eggs, long time student* and *a camera*. It is understood that all of these metaphors uttered by PSTs represent their passive roles as students nurtured by external sources. To describe ‘a language learner’, they could develop limited metaphors such

as *receiver*, *computer* and *blossom*; thus they see their students something that can be filled with knowledge. The underlying metaphor for ‘classroom’ description, they produced several different metaphors as *noisy place*, *dynamic hall*, *large room*, and *furnished field*. By these metaphors, PSTs express their perceptions as outsiders. Motivation is the category for which limited metaphors developed by PSTs. The participants’ metaphors are *automatic shift*, which emphasizes their need for external motivation, a system that enables them to progress, in other words how much the system steps-up, the more they will develop; ‘sunlight’ as a metaphor explains the need for motivation is vital and with a ‘pedal’ metaphor, trainees emphasizes the cycling nature of motivation coming from either themselves or a belt which represents other individuals in their contexts. The following table presents the results of the metaphor elicitation task by giving the frequencies and percentages.

Table 34

Results of the Metaphor Elicitation Data

Category		<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
A language teacher	<i>guide</i>	6	19,3
	<i>mother</i>	5	16,1
	<i>source</i>	5	16,1
	<i>architect</i>	4	12,9
Teaching English	<i>guiding</i>	7	22,5
	<i>watering</i>	6	19,3
	<i>communicating</i>	6	19,3
	<i>teaching the world</i>	4	12,9
	<i>transferring</i>	3	9,6

Category		f	%
A teacher trainee	<i>micro-teacher</i>	9	29
	<i>observer</i>	6	19,3
	<i>student</i>	3	9,6
	<i>young tree</i>	3	9,6
A language learner	<i>receiver</i>	10	32,2
	<i>computer</i>	7	22,5
	<i>blossom</i>	6	19,3
	<i>blank paper</i>	4	12,9
Classroom	<i>noisy place</i>	8	25,8
	<i>dynamic hall</i>	5	16,1
	<i>furnished field</i>	5	16,1
Motivation	<i>pedal</i>	5	16,1
	<i>sunlight</i>	4	12,9
	<i>automatic shift</i>	2	6,4

As can be seen from Table 34, it appears that trainees mostly conceptualized language learners as *receiver*, *computer*, and *blank paper* that need to be filled with information in a way by the teachers. These findings are consistent with the metaphors of how see themselves. They describe a language teacher as *mother* or *source* from where/whom the students provide necessary information, cared for, guided and helped. The other metaphors of language teachers, *guide* and *architect* are strongly related to how trainees attribute meaning to ‘teaching English’ with metaphors *guiding* and *teaching the world*. The interesting result obtained from the participants when they were asked to define themselves is being a *micro-teacher*. As the students do several micro-teaching assignments during their courses in the programme, they resemble themselves to a micro-size-teacher either functioning as teachers but for only a short

period of time or not mature enough as they are teacher candidates yet. It results in describing themselves as not active participants of the teaching contexts but mostly passive receivers with limited practices. They also see themselves as *observer*, *student*, and *young tree* who are in more passive roles and in the on-going process of receiving necessary theoretical and practical knowledge of teacher education programme.

Having analysed the metaphor related questions in the second administration of the interview, the researcher reaches some different metaphor conceptualizations. The frequencies and percentages of the most frequently mentioned metaphors can be seen in the following table.



Table 35

Results of the Metaphor Elicitation Data from SSI2

Category		<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
A language teacher	<i>cooperative/partner</i>	8	25,8
	<i>gardener</i>	6	19,35
	<i>psychologist</i>	6	19,35
	<i>actress</i>	5	16,12
	<i>fountain</i>	5	16,12
Teaching English	<i>raising a child</i>	7	22,5
	<i>cooking</i>	6	19,35
	<i>watering</i>	6	19,35
	<i>cultivating</i>	4	12,9
	<i>nurturing</i>	4	12,9
A teacher trainee	<i>reflector</i>	8	25,8
	<i>mirror</i>	8	25,8
	<i>actress</i>	5	16,12
	<i>planner</i>	5	16,12
A language learner	<i>plant</i>	9	29,03
	<i>seed</i>	7	22,5
	<i>family member</i>	4	12,9
Classroom	<i>field</i>	9	29,03
	<i>stage</i>	6	19,35
	<i>fairground</i>	6	19,35
	<i>arena</i>	5	16,12
Motivation	<i>supplement</i>	9	29,03
	<i>vital liquid</i>	7	22,5
	<i>fountain</i>	6	19,35

During the second cycle of the interview which was held after practicum courses, the PSTs were shown the responses given to the metaphor task and asked whether there is something that they wanted to change and/or add. Their responses showed us that their metaphorical descriptions differed in nearly all of the sections. When they were asked to define 'a language teacher', they realized it by using the metaphors *cooperative partner gardener, psychologist, actress, and fountain*. The PSTs define being a language teacher as *psychologist* because they claimed that a teacher should be aware of the students' psychological developments both to prepare effective lessons and to provide counselling to some extent. The *cooperative/partner* metaphor supports this description through the intention of working together with the individuals in classroom context and they do not imagine themselves isolated from their students. By involving in the process of their learning with a cooperative role, the PSTs' tendency to avail their students shows us that they started to feature their students' individual differences and interests. The PSTs who resemble 'a language teacher' to an actress expressed that the teacher is the person who provides entertainment into a classroom and brings joy while s/he is teaching English. They also added all the edutainment in the classroom can be enabled after several rehearsals at the backstage. The rationale behind the metaphor *gardener* is similar with the metaphors they develop for 'teaching English' category: *watering, cultivating, raising a child and nurturing*. These metaphors support the *gardener* metaphor by seeing teachers as performers attending their students' needs and interest that also supporting their growth.

Moreover, PSTs see themselves as *reflectors, mirrors, artists and planners*. The *reflector and mirror* metaphors can be accepted as the same category. It has two facets: one is related to the mirroring/reflection of what has already learned at the teacher education programme to the actual classrooms and the other one is the reflection on their own

performances during the practicum courses. The *artist* metaphor was resulted from the necessities in a language classroom where the teachers are accepted to teach as an actor does: with *visuality*, great performance and excitement. They also see themselves as *planners* because they are supposed to write lesson plans for each lesson they teach for their professional development.

Their metaphors *plant*, *seed* and *family member* for ‘a language learner’ category are very similar with the ones they developed for ‘teaching English’ category *watering*, *cultivating*, *raising a child* and *nurturing*. In the classroom category, the results show that *field* metaphor is also similar to the ones stated in ‘a language learner’ and ‘teaching English’ category. The *stage* and *fairground* metaphors are similar to *actress* from both ‘a language teacher’ and ‘a teacher trainee’ categories. The metaphors for the motivation category were listed a *supplement*, a *vital liquid* and a *fountain* all of which emphasize the deep need of PSTs during the practicum courses to understand whether they do well and endure the quality of their way of teaching.

Table 36

Comparison of the results of metaphor analysis in SSI1 and SSI2.

Category	SSI1	SSI2
A language teacher	<i>guide</i>	<i>psychologist</i>
	<i>mother</i>	<i>gardener</i>
	<i>source</i>	<i>actress</i>
	<i>architect</i>	<i>fountain</i>
Teaching English	<i>guiding</i>	<i>raising a child</i>
	<i>watering</i>	<i>cooking</i>
	<i>communicating</i>	<i>watering</i>
	<i>teaching the world (culture)</i>	<i>cultivating</i>
	<i>transferring</i>	<i>nurturing</i>
A teacher trainee	<i>micro-teacher</i>	<i>reflector</i>
	<i>observer</i>	<i>mirror</i>
	<i>student</i>	<i>actress</i>
	<i>young tree</i>	<i>planner</i>
A language learner	<i>receiver</i>	<i>plant</i>
	<i>computer</i>	<i>seed</i>
	<i>blossom</i>	<i>family member</i>
	<i>blank paper</i>	
Classroom	<i>noisy place</i>	<i>field</i>
	<i>dynamic hall</i>	<i>stage</i>
	<i>furnished field</i>	<i>fairground</i>
		<i>arena</i>
Motivation	<i>pedal</i>	<i>supplement/vitamin</i>
	<i>sunlight</i>	<i>vital liquid</i>
	<i>automatic shift</i>	<i>fountain</i>

When the results of the metaphor analysis in SSI1 and SSI2 are compared, some similarities and differences are observed. The PSTs' conceptualization of the metaphors were altered and this reflects the change in their perception of their new roles as practitioners. They described 'a language teacher' mostly as *guide and source* in the first cycle of the interviews. We can see that their responses changed in the post cycle of the metaphor analysis from Table 36 above. After practicing teaching at school, The PSTs proposed more responsible and active roles for being 'a language teacher' such as *psychologist, gardener, and actress*. When they were asked to define what metaphors can be attributed to 'teaching English', their primary responses were *guiding, watering, communicating, transmitting of culture* and *transferring*. In the post interviews, most of their responses were evolved to *raising a child, cooking cultivating* and *nurturing*. Their responses indicated they got more aware of their responsibilities and they wanted to involve in the teaching and learning processes in the classroom addressing the students' needs and interests.

The metaphors for being 'a teacher trainee' developed by the PSTs were *micro-teacher, observer, student, and young tree*. In those responses, they claimed that they are not mature enough to act as a teacher and still in the progress of becoming a teacher. Their responses were changed into relatively more active and aware roles *reflecting* what they learned and on what they attempted to teach, and *mirroring* reflecting the reality (i.e. the classroom, students, strengths and weaknesses described in the practicum processes) itself and introducing meanings to this reality.

While the PSTs saw language learners as *receivers, computers* and *blank papers* that can be directly transmitted the necessary knowledge by the teacher before the practicum process. In the post cycle of the interviews, their responses were observed to have changed to *plant* and *seed* that needs more attention and care by the teacher. The metaphors for 'classroom' were also changed from *noisy place, furnished field* and *dynamic hall* to *field, stage, fairground*

and *arena*. The differences among the metaphors indicated that the PSTs develop metaphors for the classroom either as an outsider or with student identity in the former interview, and they produced metaphors as an insider who is aware of the characteristics of the classrooms in the latter one.

As for the motivation, they produced positive metaphors in both cycles of the interviews and emphasized the need for it before and after the practicum. What the difference between the responses from two interviews is that the emphasis for the need for motivation was considerably strengthened in the latter cycle. The metaphors were uttered by the PSTs were *supplement/vitamin*, *vital liquid* and *fountain*. The metaphors obtained from the responses of PSTs show the strong need for motivation that may lead to abundance in their teaching practices during practicum and future teachings.

Change in PSTs' beliefs and motivation: Semi structured interviews (SSI2), reflective journals and field notes. By this point, the participants' beliefs about language learning English, beliefs about teaching English, their conceptualization of language teacher, teaching English, a teacher trainee, a language learner, classroom and motivation through metaphors and change in this metaphors were analyzed and qualitative findings were presented. In this section, the change in PSTs beliefs about learning English, beliefs about teaching English will be introduced. All the data obtained from post semi structured interviews (SSI2), reflective journals (RJ) and field notes (FN) were utilised to track the changes in PSTs' beliefs and motivation during the final year of teacher education.

Comparison of beliefs about learning English. The participants were asked to reconsider their beliefs about learning English during practicum courses in several contexts. Their reported beliefs were reviewed through reflective journals, SSI2 and field notes taken during the biweekly meetings.

In order to identify the uniformity of shared beliefs and views about teaching, teachers, students, and learning, the data were read repeatedly. These were first coded via NVivo software. Second, these codes were categorised according to their similarities and differences. Then, the main categories, which attempted to respond to the research questions, were obtained from the patterns and regularities within the data obtained from aforementioned data collection methods. After the categorization of PSTs beliefs in each section, they were compared with the ones gathered from the SSI1. During the comparisons, one to one correspondence was not targeted since the number of the belief categories might have increased or decreased due to re-labelling, linking, disagreement-omission, addition, reversal and pseudo change during the experience in practicum courses.

The following table illustrates the belief categories emerged from SSI1 and SSI2, reflective journals and field notes, the frequencies of these mentions and the change processes in their beliefs.

Table 37

Comparison of Beliefs about learning English

Beliefs about Learning English				
SSI1	<i>f</i>	SSI2	<i>f</i>	Change Processes
Language Learning Strategies	12	Language Learning Strategies	7	Awareness/realisation
Language Skills	13	Language Skills	14	Re-ordering
Motivation	14	Motivation	15	Elaboration-polishing
Language Aptitude and Ability	9	Language Aptitude and Ability	10	Elaboration-polishing
		Learners' Individual Differences	10	Addition

As can be seen from the table, there are similar belief categories of PSTs at the end of the programme as they hold one year ago. "Language learning strategies" is one of these

categories that was mentioned but by fewer PSTs. During this phase, the PSTs mentioned the need for strategy training but they claimed that this type of training can be delayed until they become experienced in the profession. Due to some reported priorities, this category of beliefs was found not appropriate in the context and time. The following quotes from the PSTs exemplify the awareness/realisation change process they experienced.

“ strategies are certainly important aspect to succeed in language learning, we can teach some strategies to our students; however...it can wait for a while. *I realized that* first we should provide our students love English lessons...first they should love learning a language, then...they may be trained.” (SSI2)

“ as I am keen learner, there was no need someone to train me about the language learning strategies...I followed my father’s lead (about being strategic). There might be students like me...it is easier to learn a language in that way. During the practicum courses *I became aware of* strategies are not our primary concern...may be later” (RJ)

“Last week I tried to practice reading strategies with the students...a long hour of a reading lesson. They were involved in most of the activities...it was nice for me and motivating to see them like that. During the strategy training, I feel some hesitations on the students part. I think it is not the right time...maybe too early...or they may instilled with instead...” (RJ)

“to be successful learners, they should know how to listen to a song in English...otherwise good for nothing..., but first I feel so...we should prepare them for some other basic components of the lesson” (FN)

“My peer warned me during the reflection session after the course, the students found the ways (speaking, listening strategies) I told them a bit complicated. I think they need more basic ways first, classroom type...” (RJ)

As for “language skills” category, the PSTs expressed the importance of teaching skills (N=12) in the language classrooms they teach. During and after the practicum courses, their responses were not much differed, but the priority of skills was altered by the PSTs. During the SSI1 they put the skills in order of importance as speaking, reading, listening, pronunciation and vocabulary. During the practicum process, listening became prominent in their reflections through journals, interviews and meetings. The quotes below exemplify what language skills they found important to develop during teaching practices.

“ I started to pay more attention to listening while I am teaching now...not surprised they cannot speak well, even most of us (her peers) not good at speaking though, the situation is different now, first they listen then speak. I gave them a list of useful sites where they can find songs, audio stories and etc....in summer I tested it with my cousin, she really progressed. I’ll let them listen for a while, then they’ll produce I guess.”
(SSI2)

“To survive in a foreign country, I’ll teach them to understand what they listen, maybe I can bring audios with different accents. I’ve told them, listen at least two hours a day and read as well...the rest will come easily and quickly” (SSI2)

“the assignment of this week...you know I occasionally forget to give a homework as a complementary...their need in fact...speaking what they really had problems with, they love grammar...why...it is safe...and it is there...honestly it is for teachers as well. I am trying to change it. Just said everyday you’ll listen to an English song and write the words, sentences or whatever you catch, I’ ll see next week...” (RJ)

I advised them to find an audio book and simultaneously read and listen...kill two birds with one stones. Listening and reading skills and may be improve their vocabulary:

third bird..Grammar comes next, I ll try to embed it...as we are taught to do so...I wish I can.” (SSI2)

The motivation category again became one of the categories that was frequently mentioned in the second cycle of the qualitative data collection. It was reconstructed and made related to their students at practicum schools. The PSTs reported their beliefs related to motivation similar to the ones below:

“I think the courses here, for example Methodology, Language Skills, Research Methods, which one or ones I happily...or which of these (content) are remembered by the next year. Of course I love and I am motivated...if I am motivated I love it and vice versa...This is the case in practicum courses, if we motivate our students, the course will make sense for them...if we make them feel important, they will be motivated and would like to attend the lesson of the teacher who cares for him.” (FN)

“Last week I’ve mentioned a student, Sabri, who was really reluctant...this week he attended the lesson, his classmates were surprised...they told it’s his first time speaking English. I got very happy. Last week I praised him a lot...it’s the consequence.” (RJ)

“ learner motivation comes first...this is the first thing we learnt in Educational Psychology at the first year...this’s proven once more this week. During teaching several times I got feedback of it. the more the students are motivated, the more fruitful the lesson is.” (SSI2)

We can create targets for our students, where they will use the language...give examples of foreign friends...for instance two weeks ago I brought photos of my Canadian friends and me together. This was really motivating for them, they started to ask how you meet him, where we can find friends, how we can communicate at the beginning, teach us basic sentences to survive...this is the motivation for them and for me as well”(FN)

“In order to learn something, you need motivation, it is so for learning a language...unless you are super autonomous learner, you need it...my students need it as well. During the last eight weeks I strongly understand the importance of it I will develop myself to motivate them...fully equipped first, I mean the language (the competency)...than teaching skills and at the same time pedagogy. Motivated students: one up...” (SSI2)

“What I remember from my high school English teacher is that he used to talk with us about the motivated people, how much they achieved...I am a graduate of Anatolian Teachers’ High School...motivation is important...especially for novices like us...if you motivate your class, they might get blind to our weaknesses... everything is up to you as a teacher more motivation more learning” (SSI2)

The data obtained from the second cycle of the qualitative data collection process revealed that “language aptitude and ability” category emerged again. The difference of the category than it is in the first set data is that the PSTs are more conscious about the concepts and the necessity of their existing together. Thus they reconstructed their existing beliefs about the language aptitude and ability and by relating it to their teaching experiences at practicum schools. The reconstruction and polishing of their beliefs can be observed in the following quotes.

“after observing the students for four to five weeks, you can easily recognize who are more talented to learn English, who are not...but you also recognize the effort of the ones who are not talented enough. Being cool is not enough, they should spend effort...no pain no gain, in other words the tendency is not solely enough...Hasan who is with a different accent... I told about his story at the last meeting, will definitely be good at English one day. He studies a lot and spend much time on his language improvement....none of his

parents know English...He also started to learn English last year...he is eager to learn.”

(FN)

“The tendency to learn languages...what was the term, I always used to write it with wrong spelling on the exams. That is observable by now; last semester there are four or five students in the classroom. Luckily they were hard working...” (SSI2)

“...we should be aware of the learners’ language abilities, for example our mentor in the practicum school developed an assignment system. She determined the students’ situation related to English learning capacity... every week she gives numbered assignments to her students...some of these assignments with follow-ups... they go to the talented one. Thus the ones who has it (aptitude and ability) don’t get bored and the others not anxious about the difficulty level of the task” (SSI2)

The last category emerged from the second part of the qualitative data is the “learners’ individual differences”. This is also related to the last two categories, motivation and language aptitude/ability, and they were also embedded within the discourse analysed. However, what PSTs uttered during the data collection is analysed for the first time in belief category.

“even learners are aware of who they are and who they are not as a language learner...yesterday a student came in the break and said...teacher you bring very colourful materials to the classroom, it is nice but I am more of a audial learner, what I can do for myself? Even I realized my type after first year at the faculty. I learnt we should be e cautious of these characteristics of learners if we want to be beneficial.” (SSI2)

“It’s important to know yourself as language learner, extrovert, introvert and etc. you can plan your own learning and request your teacher to guide you” (SSI2)

“A teacher should consider their students’ individual differences, some learn fast, some too slow, some are talkative some are not...you can organize your lesson according to it and you don’t fail...it helps you go further in the lesson.” (FN)

“we are different from each other, some are visual- like me- some are audial...sometimes I can be bored in the classroom here when the teacher has the lecturing type...at least she can use the projector, ppt I mean...at least...we are adults...though...while learning and also teaching it should be considered, the types of learners” (SSI2).

Comparison of Beliefs about teaching English. The data obtained from reflective journals, SSI2 and field notes taken during the biweekly meetings reveals that there are similarities and changes in PSTs’ beliefs during the final year of the teacher education programme. The repeated categories are “use of L1”, “approaches and methods”, “characteristics of a language teacher” and motivation. The category of error correction not mentioned by enough participants (N<3) and not included in the table. There is a new emergent of PSTs’ belief which is uttered several times during the qualitative data collection. Table 38 below illustrates the comparisons of language teaching belief categories emerged from SSI1 and SSI2, reflective journals and field notes, the frequencies of these mentions and the change processes in their beliefs.

Table 38

Comparison of Beliefs about teaching English

Beliefs about Teaching English				
SSI1	<i>f</i>	SSI2	<i>f</i>	
Use of L1	12	Use of L1	11	Awareness and realisation
Approaches and Methods	12	Approaches and Methods	10	Pseudo change
Characteristics of a Language Teacher	13	Characteristics of a Language Teacher	11	Pseudo change
Motivation	11	Motivation	16	Elaboration-Polishing
Error Correction	8	No mention	-	
None		Classroom Management	18	Addition/Reordering

About the use of L1, the PSTs beliefs showed us that the participants are against to the idea of using L1 in the classroom (N=10) while few favoured the use of L1 in language classrooms (N=2) during the SSI1. After practicum courses, it was observed changes in their beliefs related to use of L1. Their responses revealed that they realised that their previously held beliefs are not appropriate in the real contexts at practicum schools. They report their beliefs as active practitioners not as a student at the ELT department and a former experienced learner. The examples of their beliefs about using L1 in the classroom are as follows:

“I realized that it is not that much easy to use only English in the classroom; there are many factors that we could not take into consideration. Before the practicum courses, I

stand for using the target language in the classroom but top of the morning to me... it had been too idealistic.” (SSI2)

“I was really determined to establish no Turkish rule in the classroom. I was realized that It was not possible because of two factors First they were used to speak in L1, because their teacher does so. Secondly, their English level is not sufficient enough to apply the rule. So I give up for now...I might realize it in my own classes, of course after a year of instruction with them” (RJ)

“I feel more relax about using L1 in the classroom now. At first the idea made me very anxious for the students’ language improvement. Then I realized it’s not much necessary to be too strict about it. You can use L1...it does not harm your students English level, sometimes might be beneficial...depends on the amount and place...no more rejection”(RJ)

As for ‘approaches and methods’ category, the participants reported similar beliefs. The communicative approach, group work and pair work activities, and learner centred and learning centeredness are the most favourable and frequently mentioned beliefs by PSTs, however the PSTs do not find easy to implement these in the actual classrooms.

“ we experienced the organization of group-work and pair-work last week. It’s really hard to organize; you cannot split the class into two as we do during microteaching at the department. But it is well enough to observe the students completing their tasks with their friends by communicating”(FN)

“ I tried a blend of communicative approach with task based, it has been a bit hard since I do not know the characteristics of students yet. I’ll try again. Hopefully I don’t fail”(RJ)

“learner centred and learning centered can be even integrated. I observed a class blending two...my mentor in this lesson calculated the outcomes by keeping in mind the students’ needs and interest, of course she was not aware of what she did, but she is innately a good teacher. As far as I am concerned it would be really difficult in a new environment, new students and observing eyes of my peers.”(FN)

During the first interviews one of the factors emerged from the responses of the participants is the description of “how to be a good English teacher”. When these responses were examined, two factors were emerged: cognitive factors and affective factors in relation to the characteristics of good language teachers. The cognitive characteristics are generally related to the teachers’ readiness and language competencies. The affective factors, on the other hand, are related to their profile of physical activeness and mood states. PSTs uttered similar beliefs during the practicum process, thus no change is observed in their beliefs related to this category. The following representative quote shows us What beliefs do PSTs hold about “ a good English teacher”.

“A good English teacher should be at least an advanced level learner, no way... he should have extensive world knowledge...competent, knowledgeable teacher with his appropriate attire...lively, energetic, ready to jump and crawl for his learners” (SSI2)

Through the latter cycle of the qualitative data collection, the researcher found out more elaborated and polished beliefs about the importance of motivation in language teaching/ for language teachers.. The PSTs mostly emphasize the motivation needs of teachers by addressing the sources of the sources of motivation. They reconstructed their beliefs by adding different sources of motivation. The following quotes exemplify their beliefs about motivation during the practicum process.

“It is the family who can really motivate you to become a teacher...but your students who provide [prompts] of motivation make you endure ...by attending to the class...by nodding where they see..we really need this...intrinsic, intrinsic...long for extrinsic”(FN)

“totally emotional (smiles)...but money is one of the factor motivating teachers. This the means to survive. I have friend who graduated last year, working in a private school, demoralised and cannot afford...”

“Why we are talking about learner motivation during all courses, why we are not talking about motivation and its effects on us. I should be motivated to make my students motivate.”(FN)

“ the teachers are not rewarded in my country, at least I haven’t heard it. In European countries, teachers are rewarded according to their performance, the evaluation points that they get from the people around: pupils, parents, school administrators and even the janitors. Is it hard? Let’s ask in the next meeting also write to the minister, may be realized when we are assigned.” (SSI2)

“It’s not just paperwork that the responsibility of principal of the school. It is the case in our practicum school, he doesn’t even nod teachers, of course us, too. He expects high performance from the teachers, how is it possible?” (RJ)

The data from RJs, FNs and SSI2 revealed that a new category emerged when the PSTs were asked about their beliefs about language teaching during the practicum process. The PSTs also put their beliefs about classroom management on the primary category because of its vitality and importance for themselves. They repeatedly expressed the importance of “classroom management” by pointing either the problems they faced or its effect on a successful language classroom.

“For at least four weeks, I was getting crazy with the students...either they never listened or just buzzed...feel scared if it continues. When I raise my voice, they start to whisper. Upon the feedback by my supervisor, I start to adjust my instruction...clear, simple, short what she says, it wasn't easy to do it after years of academic language. Whenever I start to give instructions, I feel myself lecturing at a university...was hard to simplify it. It is better now, at least no more buzzes, whispers and puzzled faces” (SSI2)

“I found an interesting activity, in fact a task for this week. I was excited to implement in the classroom...but a big disappointment, 30% participated...even not smiled and kept talking to each other during the whole lesson...I demoralised. I thought it is interesting, appropriate to their age, no level problem in fact, why?...I explored by my mentors comments that I omitted a [pre-task] activity...missing knowledge ruined my day”(RJ)

“some of the girls were constantly talking during the lesson, of course in Turkish and irrelevant... I was getting distracted. They pulled down some of their friends...I thought to warn them but I give up...after several attempts, I found the solution, at least I think so..I've put them in different groups..it wasn't easy to convince them...in these groups I tried to put at least one smart student to get up the group. I think it is ok for now” (SSI2)

“I learned that visuals work well in the classroom...we were taught to do so in our courses, but to observe it's really working is interesting. The weeks that the visuals are not enough...voices come up and then management problems...to settle them down I really tumble”(FN)

“What I learnt is that groups have their own learning styles...they are not interested in some of the lessons. They just sit and look around to the other groups. I am wasting my time reviewing, revising, retelling, paraphrasing, mimes...it's no use...it's solved when I made mixed ability groups...before it I monitored them closely”(SSI2)

“how I fix the use of L1 is still really hard for me, I know their vocabulary is not sufficient but they can involve in the tasks I prepared for them. Because I try to choose interesting topics...I think they need some motivation to attend to the lesson...in English..as I do”(RJ)

“even the mentor still having management problems, there should be one way or the other...solutions...it is not easy as it is at the university...our students are not adults. I think we should be given enough practical knowledge...I mean... about classroom management...need some more knowledge (revision) on it...but practical of course...we know the theory: decide the management problem, search for reasons and create solutions...but how? ...with examples...” (SSI2)

“I use a bell to take their attention to the activity...by starting at least... I read about it at the moment...how to manage a classroom in primary school and high school...totally different from each other. I wish I had more observation of the classes at practicum schools before the final year...to plunge into the arena... a bit scary” (RJ)

“It’s time to revise what we learned about classroom management and try it in order. I now believe that the pre-requisite of the success of a language classroom is setting the classroom rules first...students should feel they are setting the rules but in fact they are not...I assume that what we’ve learned about a well managed classroom a bit utopic. The profile of the learners are rapidly changing...some adjustment needed in our methodology books. Learner centred but teacher guided necessary I think. For instance warm-up is...” (FN)

Conclusion

This chapter started with an explanation of the design adopted: mixed method design. Second, the research questions were presented to clarify the aims of the current study. Third,

the quantitative results which were obtained from several administrations of the two surveys and targeted to answer the research questions were displayed. The details of descriptive, inferential and statistical analysis were given in words and shown in tables. Last, the qualitative results which were gathered from semi-structured interviews, metaphor tasks, reflective journals and field notes were presented both in tables and with quotations by the participants. In the following chapter, the results of the current study will be discussed in relation to the relevant literature.



Chapter V

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

Introduction

The current study aimed at exploring the motivation and beliefs of pre-service EFL teachers about language learning and teaching. In this chapter, the findings are first discussed in comparison to the previous research findings with a focus on similarities and differences. The reflection of the findings of this study and its contributions to the related literature are examined within the thematic framework. The chapter is organized in the light of the research questions of the present study and introduced in five themes: beliefs about language learning, beliefs about language teaching, belief change, motivation and the relationship between PSTs' beliefs and motivation. The chapter concludes with implications that addressed different stakeholders in ELT contexts: PSTs, teacher educators, and governmental organizations such as HEC and MoNE.

Beliefs about Language Learning and Teaching

Initial beliefs. Teacher, teaching quality and teacher education are crucial educational issues that have been on the agenda of the country members of the OECD, along with Turkey, for a while (Eurydice, 2012). The demands of teaching in the 21st Century have been well documented recently, and the key roles that teachers' beliefs and motivations play in their pedagogical knowledge have been particularly underlined (see, e.g., Guierriero, 2017). Therefore the current research started with exploring for a clear and comprehensive description of what beliefs PSTs hold when they enter the ELT department. For this purpose, first year PSTs were asked their beliefs about learning and teaching English. With this description, it was aimed at contributing to the literature in ELT contexts in Turkey in terms of the conceptualization of initial beliefs of first year pre-service EFL teachers.

The analysis of the quantitative data revealed that PSTs held moderately strong beliefs in two belief constructs: motivation and expectation, and learning and communication strategies, however they held rather weak beliefs about nature of language learning, foreign language anxiety and difficulty of language learning. These results match those observed in earlier studies (Chatouphonexay & Intaraprasert, 2014; Diab, 2009; Harmer, 1991; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). As Horwitz (1999) states in her review study of BALLI, Turkish and Asian students tend to be motivated instrumentally when compared to American and European students, who generally tend toward integrative motivation. Allison (2010) support this idea by indicating that a novice teacher should start his/her profession motivated and high expectations to enable his/her learners to motivate. The item analysis shows that PSTs as language learners strongly agree with the idea that if they learn and speak English very well they will have better and several opportunities to get a job. Yang and Peacock (2009) also found out similar findings that learners' initial beliefs about the motivation and expectations related to learning a new language mostly result from their instrumental motives and this finding is also in line with the finding of the current study.

Because the participants of this study were the first-year students at ELT department during the first administration of the survey, it is not surprising to their beliefs on instrumental factors, that is their tendency to hold such a belief depended on their priorities. At this stage they were not very aware of the content area, and their primary concerns were the instrumental needs and expectations from language learning. This situation could be the reason why other constructs, such as nature of language learning, language learning aptitude, and difficulty of language learning, were relatively low. Bendixen and Corkhill (2011) implemented a comparative study to explore personal epistemological beliefs of teachers at different stages of their careers. They examined beliefs in beginning and final year PSTs, and in novice and experienced teachers comparatively. The findings were similar to the current study, and

suggested that PSTs and novice teachers were more likely to hold naive and undetailed beliefs when compared to their more experienced colleagues. Harrison and Lakin (2018) support this finding by stating EFL pre-service teachers generally hold positive beliefs at the beginning of the training programmes when compared to their peers in other programmes.

Another important finding was their strong beliefs about learning and communication strategies among their initial beliefs. This finding differs from Özmen's (2010) study, which found that PSTs held more traditional beliefs about language teaching at the beginning. Özmen explains that this could be because they had studied for a grammar-oriented exam to enter university. However, the findings are broadly consistent with some other earlier studies (Alison, 2010; Debreli, 2012, Wong, 2010). Debreli (2012) indicates that PSTs start teacher education programme with diverse beliefs about learning and teaching English and these are mostly observed to be current teaching approaches of the communicative language teaching (CLT) which are associated with the philosophical basis of the teacher education programmes.

Beliefs before practicum. In the current study, the participants were asked to articulate their beliefs after three-year campus-based teacher education before the practicum courses. The findings revealed that their beliefs were expectedly strengthened in all constructs of beliefs about language learning and teaching and belief change is occurred in a positive way. The remarkable increases were observed again in 'motivation and expectations' and 'learning and communication strategies'. The survey data indicates that their beliefs about instrumental motives were maintained in the second measurement of their beliefs. The participants claimed that they strongly agree to learn a language to get a better job. Moreover, their beliefs about the importance of repetition and practice, and the use of audio-visual materials to improve their language were the most referred belief items agreed by PSTs.

These results are consistent with those of other studies of (Aypay, 2010, Cephe & Yalçın, 2015; Elke, Adriaensens, & Meynen, 2011; Gürbütük & Şad, 2009; Walker et al.,

2012) and indicate that during teacher education PSTs initially preserve their future target beliefs and evaluate their decision to pursue a career in educational contexts. In Philipp, Ambrose and Solder's study (2007) with pre-service teachers, this is also supported that PSTs who develop more sophisticated subject matter related beliefs are the ones holding more instrumental at the beginning of the career planning (cited in Fives & Gill, 2015).

Another finding related to PSTs beliefs was that their beliefs about the importance of learning and communication strategies were increased. This result agrees with the findings of other studies (Alison, 2010; Debreli, 2012; Özmen; 2010; Wong, 2010) in which PSTs relatively hold strong beliefs related to CLT after the field courses that involved in at the ELT department. In Özmen's (2010) study which is also longitudinal in nature, it is stated that while the initial beliefs of PSTs were rather traditional as mentioned above, they started to hold more communicative beliefs when measured after three-years of teacher education.

When the PSTs were asked the possible reasons of their current beliefs and reflect on them during the interviews, there were emerged two main connected rationales for these beliefs. The first was the grammar-oriented university entrance examination and thus the exposure to grammar-oriented lessons at the high school and not want to involve such kind of classes again. The other one was their desire to develop themselves to be able to prepare lessons based on CLT and therefore to provide their future students more communicative environment as it is stated some other studies (Farrell & Patricia, 2005; Farrell, 2009; Farrell, 2018).

Beliefs are temporal and contextual personal constructs which are presumably to change due to some experiences in relevant social contexts (Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 2003). As for teachers, these experiences may derive from their personal lives, their prior experiences as learners, teacher education programmes, and the collaboration with their colleagues. Moreover, Freeman (1992) and Tatto (1998) asserted that PSTs are widely known to come to teacher education programmes with well-established beliefs about learning

and teaching English and they needed to be some revisions, betterment and tweaking. Most of the results of the survey in the current study are line with these sources above about the established beliefs. When BALLI-1 and BALLI-2 results are examined, we also see a positive belief change during the first three year. For the category 'learning and communication strategies', PSTs mostly emphasize the importance of making practice and speaking fluently rather than accurately.

During the second circle of their belief declaration through survey, a decrease was also observed in a single item about the difficulty of language learning. In that belief they started to think their English is not sufficient enough. Moreover, the significant decrease in belief about the difficulty of language learning is strongly related to their beliefs about motivations and expectations category in which they emphasize their desire to speak English well during the second measurement of their beliefs and interviews.

The interview data revealed that PSTs were eager to improve their English and speak better for the sake of teaching it. They claimed that they found themselves not sufficient enough during the micro-teaching activities in the courses. This finding of the current study are consistent with those of Peacock (2001) who compares trainee beliefs and teacher beliefs about language learning and teaching with specific reference to trainees beliefs on four phases as it is similar in cycles of the current study. His participants raised their awareness about the use of CLT at the fourth phase - that is the during practicum phase in the present study- through the observation and actual practices in practicum and rated CLT as the most beneficial method in the classroom. With similar focus and participants, Paşa and Akçay (2015) and Smith et al (2006) also found out that there is a significant increase in PSTs' beliefs about learning and communication strategies over an academic year of teacher education process. The above-mentioned findings thus imply that pre-service teachers starts to project more convenient beliefs

about favourable practices related to their subject field when they get enough theoretical knowledge (Calderhead, 1996; Gill, Ashton & Algina, 2004; Lloyd, 2005; Kagan, 1992).

The interview with PSTs before the practicum process emerged new belief categories for language learning which are 'language learning strategies', 'language skills', 'motivation', and 'language aptitude'. The two categories 'language learning strategies' and 'motivation' had also been rated as high by the PSTs in the two administrations of the survey. The new emergent categories are language skills and language aptitude in the interviews. As for the language skills category, the participants mostly give importance to the speaking skill for a language learner. During the interviews they complained about the lack of appropriate speaking strategies and skills since their high school years. These results are consistent with those of Korkmazgil's (2015) study, which explores the professional development needs of Turkish pre-service teachers and suggest that there are high level of needs in Turkey with regard to develop EFL teachers' speaking skills.

The language aptitude category appeared more frequently in the interviews than it did in the surveys. In this category, before the practicum courses, the participants conveyed the message that individuals who have the innate ability to learn a language are much more successful in learning languages. Çeviktay (2012) also states that the majority of PSTs in his study exploring PSTs beliefs about language learning believed some people have an ability to learn languages more easily with respect to the others who do not have it.

The study mainly explored the PSTs' beliefs about language learning in relation to language teaching. As for beliefs about language teaching, the interview results revealed supportive data to the surveys. During the first interviews, the participants emphasized "the use of mother tongue", "approaches and methods", "motivation", and "error correction". After they attended subject specific theoretical courses at the ELT department, their epistemological

beliefs about teaching English were developed by the help of these courses. In other words, they mostly tend to hold beliefs idealized by the theories they learned or perceived to be.

In relation to use of mother tongue, the findings revealed that PSTs donot agree with the idea that it can be allowed to use L1 in language classroom. Interview data show us that these beliefs result from two sources: first is the theoretical courses in which they are taught to avoid using L1 in their future classes and the second is their aforementioned strong desire to increase exposure to target language for the improvement of speaking skills and develop communication skills in the classroom. The current study, similar to Özmen' (2010) study, found out that their responses to interview related to approaches and methods were strongly related to their inclination to CLT.

On the issue of error correction, they held similar and strong beliefs to the above categories where they justified implicit error correction. The interview data also revealed that the three- year course process result in their idealized beliefs, and thus it shows the impact of teacher education programs over teachers' belief change.

The above-mentioned findings thus imply that the PSTs have high expectations and motivations to teach English by increasing communicative competence of both themselves and their potential students. Here it is clearly seen that beliefs and motivation are strongly intertwined and affect one another (Watt & Richardson, 2015; Fives & Gill, 2015).

As the current study aimed at exploring the beliefs and motivation of pre-service teachers in relation to anything about teaching and learning, they were asked the definitions of some concepts through metaphors. The participants were asked to write metaphors symbolizing 'a language teacher', 'teaching', 'a teacher trainee', 'a language learner' 'classroom' and 'motivation'. Before the practicum process with their beliefs established, they mostly conceptualized language learners as *receiver*, *computer*, and *blank paper* that need to be filled with information in a way by the teachers. These findings are consistent with the metaphors of

how see themselves. They describe a language teacher as *mother* or *source* from where/whom the students provide necessary information, cared for, guided and helped. The other metaphors of language teachers, *guide* and *architect* are strongly related to how trainees attribute meaning to 'teaching English' with metaphors *guiding* and *teaching the world*. The interesting result obtained from the participants when they were asked to define themselves is being a *micro-teacher*. As the students do several micro-teaching assignments during their courses in the programme, they resemble themselves to a micro-size-teacher either functioning as teachers but for only a short period of time or not mature enough as they are teacher candidates yet. It results in describing themselves as not active participants of the teaching contexts but mostly passive receivers with limited practices. They also see themselves as *observer*, *student*, and *young tree* who are in more passive roles and in the on-going process of receiving necessary theoretical and practical knowledge of teacher education programme.

In the related literature, it asserted that, teacher beliefs are the constructs which have the temporal and contextual qualities and may change when exposed to different practices and settings. Here, since the PSTs exposed several courses either theoretical and practical during the first three years of teacher education programme, their responses were shaped in that manner (Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 2003; Robertson, 2001). Moreover, Bekiroğlu and Akkoç (2009) cluster the PSTs beliefs and practices into three categories: traditional, constructivist and transitional. They assert that PSTs generally identified themselves as transitional, which the mix of traditional and constructivist views, at the beginning of the teacher education programmes. They also add that the ones who claim to have transitional beliefs display the inconsistency since their beliefs subject to change. The findings of the metaphor elicitation task are in line with their findings. Before the practicum courses, the PSTs who have beliefs gained from teacher education courses they attended and beliefs from their educational background as learners from diverse settings, tend to reflect transitional metaphors.

Recent literature in teacher education and development focuses on the importance of defining teacher identities (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, Söylemez & Yeşilbursa, 2016; Saban, 2006; Thomas & Beauchamp, 2011, Yeşilbursa, 2012; Yeşilbursa & Sayar, 2014).

Bekereci (2016) studied on the conceptualization of professional identities of EFL student teachers in her thesis and found out similar findings of the current studies' abovementioned findings that student teachers find themselves in between authoritarian and friendly that matches to the transitional model of Bekiroğlu and Akkoç (2011). Unlike the current study, Bekereci found no significant differences in student teachers' conceptualization of professional identities after fieldwork and practicum courses.

Kavanoz (2016), who employed Oxford's (1998) taxonomy of metaphors to find out the conceptualization of teacher roles conducted a study to define teacher roles with PSTs and drew attention to the inconsistency of the findings of metaphor studies with PSTs. Because metaphors provide insights about individuals professional development as they are exposed to theories, different teaching skills during teacher education, the inconsistency in research findings can be plausibly explained the diverse settings the participants come from (Knowles, 1994). The finding related to teachers' roles is in agreement with Kavanoz's study. However, it is only contradictory with her findings in that she found little or no difference in PSTs conceptualization over time.

These results are consistent with those of other studies (Ahkemoğlu, 2011; Yalçın-Arslan & Cinkara, 2016) that were conducted with PSTs about the roles of an EFL teacher. The other metaphor studies (see, e.g. Aktekin, 2013; Asmalı & Çelik, 2017; Yeşilbursa & Sayar, 2014) were not taken into consideration since they were employed with participants who are

actual EFL teachers, and metaphors were not collected through PSTs perspective. Therefore, they were considered out of the scope of the current study.

After the practicum courses, PSTs were asked to reflect on the metaphors they produced before the practicum courses. Their responses showed us that their metaphorical descriptions differed in nearly all of the sections. When they were asked to define ‘a language teacher’, they realized it by using the metaphors *cooperative partner gardener, psychologist, actress, and fountain*. The PSTs define being a language teacher as *psychologist* because they claimed that a teacher should be aware of the students’ psychological developments both to prepare effective lessons and to provide counselling to some extent. The *cooperative/partner* metaphor supports this description through the intention of working together with the individuals in classroom context and they do not imagine themselves isolated from their students. By involving in the process of their learning with a cooperative role, the PSTs’ tendency to avail their students shows us that they started to feature their students’ individual differences and interests.

The PSTs who resemble ‘a language teacher’ to an actress expressed that the teacher is the person who provides entertainment into a classroom and brings joy while s/he is teaching English. They also added all the edutainment in the classroom can be enabled after several rehearsals at the backstage. The rationale behind the metaphor *gardener* is similar with the metaphors they develop for ‘teaching English’ category: *watering, cultivating, raising a child* and *nurturing*. These metaphors support the *gardener* metaphor by seeing teachers as performers attending their students’ needs and interest that also supporting their growth.

It is clearly seen in their identification of the concepts of ‘a language teacher’, ‘teaching’, ‘a teacher trainee’, ‘a language learner’ ‘classroom’ and ‘motivation tend to change when compared to the results of the metaphor tasks they involved before the practicum process. As it is presented in Bekiroğlu and Akkoç (2009) there is a significant development over the practicum process and a disposition of their beliefs about metaphorical expressions from

transitional to constructivist cluster after they experience practice teaching in the real classrooms through one year.

It is encouraging to compare PSTs metaphors of ‘being a teacher trainee’, ‘being a language teacher’ and ‘teaching English categories’ with that found by Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, Söylemez and Yeşilbursa (2016) who explored PSTs metaphors of ‘teachers’ ‘teaching’ and ‘being a PST’ and found that PSTs referred to the concepts such as *gardener* for teachers, *watering* for teaching which are similar to the ones developed by PSTs in the current study.

Moreover PSTs see themselves as *reflectors*, *mirrors*, *artists* and *planners*. The *reflector* and *mirror* metaphors can be accepted as the same category. It has two facets: one is related to the mirroring/reflection of what has already learned at the teacher education programme to the actual classrooms and the other one is the reflection on their own performances during the practicum courses. The *artist* metaphor was resulted from the necessities in a language classroom where the teachers are accepted to teach as an actor does: with visuality, great performance and excitement. They also see themselves as *planners* because they are supposed to write lesson plans for each lesson they teach for their professional development.

Their metaphors *plant*, *seed* and *family member* for ‘a language learner’ category are very similar with the ones they developed for ‘teaching English’ category *watering*, *cultivating*, *raising a child* and *nurturing*. In the classroom category, the results show that *field* metaphor is also similar to the ones stated in ‘a language learner’ and ‘teaching English’ category. The *stage* and *fairground* metaphors are similar to *actress* from both ‘a language teacher’ and ‘a teacher trainee’ categories. The metaphors for the motivation category were listed a *supplement*, a *vital liquid* and a *fountain* all of which emphasize the deep need of PSTs during the practicum courses to understand whether they do well and endure the quality of their way of teaching.

When the results of the metaphor analysis in SSI1 and SSI2 are compared, some similarities and differences are observed. The PSTs' conceptualization of the metaphors were altered and this reflects the change in their perception of their new roles as practitioners. They described 'a language teacher' mostly as *guide and source* in the first cycle of the interviews. We can see that their responses changed in the post cycle of the metaphor analysis from Table 36 above. After practicing teaching at school, The PSTs proposed more responsible and active roles for being 'a language teacher' such as *psychologist, gardener, and actress*. When they were asked to define what metaphors can be attributed to 'teaching English', their primary responses were *guiding, watering, communicating, transmitting of culture* and *transferring*. In the post interviews, most of their responses were evolved to *raising a child, cooking cultivating* and *nurturing*. Their responses indicated they got more aware of their responsibilities and they wanted to involve in the teaching and learning processes in the classroom addressing the students' needs and interests.

The metaphors for being 'a teacher trainee' developed by the PSTs were *micro-teacher, observer, student, and young tree*. In those responses, they claimed that they are not mature enough to act as a teacher and still in the progress of becoming a teacher. Their responses were changed into relatively more active and aware roles *reflecting* what they learned and on what they attempted to teach, and *mirroring* reflecting the reality (i.e. the classroom, students, strengths and weaknesses described in the practicum processes) itself and introducing meanings to this reality.

While the PSTs saw language learners as *receivers, computers* and *blank papers* that can be directly transmitted the necessary knowledge by the teacher before the practicum process. In the post cycle of the interviews, their responses were observed to have changed to *plant* and *seed* that needs more attention and care by the teacher. The metaphors for 'classroom' were also changed from *noisy place, furnished field* and *dynamic hall* to *field, stage, fairground*

and *arena*. The differences among the metaphors indicated that the PSTs develop metaphors for the classroom either as an outsider or with student identity in the former interview, and they produced metaphors as an insider who is aware of the characteristics of the classrooms in the latter one.

As for the motivation, they produced positive metaphors in both cycles of the interviews and emphasized the need for it before and after the practicum. What the difference between the responses from two interviews is that the emphasis for the need for motivation was considerably strengthened in the latter cycle. The metaphors were uttered by the PSTs were *supplement/vitamin*, *vital liquid* and *fountain*. The metaphors obtained from the responses of PSTs show the strong need for motivation that may lead to abundance in their teaching practices during practicum and future teachings.

Moreover, most of the metaphor studies focus on the conceptualizations of the terms ‘EFL teacher’, ‘EFL learner’, ‘teaching’, ‘being a trainee’ either on individual basis or at once. (Ahkemoğlu, 2011; Kavanoz, 2016; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, Söylemez & Yeşilbursa, 2016; Yalçın-Arslan & Cinkara, 2016; Yeşilbursa, 2012; Yeşilbursa & Sayar, 2014). The participants in the present study were also asked to write metaphors referring ‘a language teacher’, ‘teaching’, ‘a teacher trainee’, ‘a language learner’ as well as ‘classroom’ and ‘motivation’. Therefore, the researcher has been unable to find any studies asking for the last two terms to be defined and accordingly, there are no comparative or contradictory results were presented for the findings of them.

Beliefs about Foreign Language Teaching and Learning after the Practicum Courses and Belief Change

The present study aimed at exploring the beliefs of PSTs about language learning and teaching over a four- year teacher education programme. To understand the changes,

development and modifications in their beliefs, beliefs survey was administered three times: at the beginning, after three-year campus-based teacher education courses before the practicum and after the practicum courses, namely at the end of the teacher education. Related discussion of the first two administrations was made under the relevant headings above. In this part, the results of the third administration and the changes in this with respect to the second one were discussed.

A number of early research states that PSTs initial beliefs tend to more teacher-centred models and a transmissive approach, rather than a student-centered model (Hollingsworth, 1989; Thompson 2010), however, current research indicates that PSTs hold more eclectic views about teaching and learning and thus it is difficult to put their beliefs into a single belief category (Thompson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012). As Pop and Turner (2009) and Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) points out that PSTs are also students who enroll teacher education programmes with already shaped views through experiences in the field with a student perspective and thus hold a 'teaching schema' and 'value system about teaching'. These two may act as filters through which PSTs interpret their roles as future teachers and practices within these roles. Therefore the practicum processes are the timeframes where PSTs can regulate their filters according to the theory that was already given and the practice they are supposed to display.

In the relevant literature, it is commonly reported that teacher beliefs, with broader term cognition, are temporal and contextual personal constructs having a quality of stability which are presumably to change due to some experiences in relevant social contexts (Brown, 2000; Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 2003; Robinson, 2001). As for teachers, these experiences may derive from their personal lives, their prior experiences as learners, teacher education programmes, and the collaboration with their colleagues. Its being stable refers to the fact that belief change is not generally expected in the short term, contrarily it requires long

period of time for resulting in development and modification (Borg, 2006; Peterson, 2001). As Kagan (1992, p.76) indicated that belief construction is not easily completed by expressing 'belief accommodation is not easily accomplished' (cited in Fives & Gill, 2015).

Teachers beliefs are generally thought to affect their thoughts that they try to interpret and tackle with the problems in the classroom, therefore beliefs are thought to be influential (Peterson, 2001; Pajares, 1992; Pajares 1993). Although it is not much simple that beliefs affect practices, relevant research suggest that there is in fact a reflective and dynamic relation between these terms. Walker et al. (2012), in their longitudinal study tracing the changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs, put emphasis on the changes in PSTs' beliefs as they proceed through the teacher education process.

Throughout the present study the aim has been to understand if there is change as it is discussed in the literature and if any, to understand the relationship within the teaching experiences of PSTs. The changes were discussed according to the change processes found by Cabaraoğlu, 1999. As Cabaraoğlu and Roberts (2000) state, the direction of the changes gain much more importance when the student teachers first start to experience teaching in real classroom. The beliefs can either be elaborated when they observe and teach students or can be re-ordered according to the prioritization of the educational contexts, the student teacher may get awareness over an issue and reorder their priority. The student teachers can add new constructs of beliefs in light of the problems, sharing and reflections they experienced during practices.

The descriptive results of the survey revealed that a gradual and significant change was observed in two categories: foreign language aptitude, motivation and expectation. The Wilcoxon signed ranked test results also confirmed the case: the two constructs were in a gradual increase during the second and third measurement. The PSTs beliefs about language learning in relation to language aptitude/ability and motivation and expectations were

developed over time. A possible explanation for the gradual change in language aptitude category might be that elaboration and polishing their beliefs about the language aptitude. The qualitative data revealed that they reconstructed their beliefs about this category. During the first qualitative measurement they had conveyed the message that individuals who have the innate ability to learn a language is much more successful in learning languages before the practicum courses and this was in line with the Çeviktay' (2012) results. However, the second circle of the qualitative measurement showed that PSTs were more conscious about the language aptitude concept now believed that it was not solely sufficient to improve one's language and it necessitates the language ability and investment to be successful in language progress. In other words, their responses indicated that without much time and effort by the learner, language aptitude is not enough to survive in language learning. This finding of reconstruction of beliefs by PSTs is in line with Özmen's (2010) study where PSTs improved their beliefs through modifications during the reflective practices.

The other category changed after practicum by the PSTs is the motivation category. They strongly believe that motivation is really important factor both to learn a language and to teach it. The other category that was exposed to change is the language skills category. During and after the practicum courses, their responses were not much differed related to language skills, but the priority of skills was altered by the PSTs. During the SSI1 they put the skills in order of importance as speaking, reading, listening, pronunciation and vocabulary. During the practicum process, listening became prominent in their reflections through journals, interviews and meetings.

In this regard, Fives, Lcatena and Gerard (2015) claim that pre-service or in-service teachers' beliefs about learning can build a foundation for beliefs about teaching. Therefore, the PSTs in this study tend to view language aptitude/ ability, motivation and language skills as

“fixed entities may assume their own instruction must be altered in order to “deliver” content to students in the best way” (p. 255).

There is also a surprising result related to the changing beliefs about language learning that while PSTs beliefs about learning and communication strategies increase between two measurements, namely during theoretical courses, the pair-wise comparison of the second and third measurements demonstrated a decrease between the results of participants’ beliefs about this category. This finding was unexpected and suggests that some beliefs can be modified through the awareness/ realization process. During this phase, the PSTs mentioned the need for strategy training but they claimed that this type of training can be delayed until they observed and knew their students well and become a bit experienced in the profession. Due to some reported priorities, this category of beliefs was found not appropriate in the context and time and not put within the first priorities. This finding is can be supported by Debreli’s (2012) study in which he found that some PSTs first hold certain beliefs (i.e. communicative language teaching), and that they changed these beliefs when they realized that some methods can be only applicable when they had gained experience and confidence in the classroom. These results also match those observed in earlier studies of Diab (2009), Özmen (2010) and Cephe and Çakır (2015).

The qualitative data also indicated that there are changes in PSTs beliefs related to language teaching. The first category that reflected changes is *the use of L1*. They proposed that, after practicum courses, they realised that their previously held beliefs were not appropriate in the real contexts at practicum schools. They reported their beliefs changed through awareness added they started to think as active practitioners not as a student at the ELT department and a former experienced learner and they needed to use L1 when at certain situations in the classroom. The categories that is not either during or after the practicum courses are motivation, and approaches and methods which were really strong positive beliefs before

the practicum. Robinson (2001) indicates that when well established beliefs are exposed to the ideal conditions were not necessarily changed in either ways: positive or negative and may remain same for a while unless there are some changes in the conditions. This view is supportive with the finding above that PSTs are generally involve in better practicum schools with experienced and equipped teachers as they are located in the city centre. Otherwise, their belief might have changed if they did not find appropriate circumstances to pursue their beliefs.

Pintrich (2005) points out that belief change does not always occur in either a positive or negative ways or increase or decrease, sometimes the teacher or student teacher might recognize a new issue in the teaching environment and try to hold new beliefs around it. Cabaroğlu (1999) entitles this change process as *adding*. In order a belief change occur, the relevant research indicates that this belief should be found unsatisfactory and to call a belief unsatisfactory, it should challenge the PSTs. The two cases occurred in this belief's emergence.

When the PSTs were asked about their beliefs about language teaching during the practicum process, they strongly emphasized the importance of issues about classroom management. The PSTs also put their beliefs about classroom management on the primary category because of its vitality and importance for themselves. They repeatedly expressed the importance of "classroom management" by pointing either the problems they faced or its effect on a successful language classroom. Some of the issues emerging from this finding relate specifically to the training needs of PSTs. These findings may help us to understand the importance of issues uttered by practitioners even though they were not explored by previous research.

In this regard, Wright (2005) indicates that classroom management is not a series of procedures to settle down the students in the classroom but forms the basis a language teachers' daily practices, however it is a neglected research issue in language teacher education. The

participants stated that they had difficulties in classroom management during their practice teaching and had a strong desire to develop their management skills. They also complained about the artificial atmosphere of micro teaching administrations and had no chance having to test management skills before practicum.

On this matter, He and Levin (2008) indicates that classroom management is one of the noticeable beliefs as important as organization and planning a lesson and adds teacher educators should help PSTs for better classroom practices when they are concerned about some issues as management in the classroom. Ferguson and Braten (2018) also found out that PSTs value the classroom management skills by questioning themselves in terms of “organizational skills, time management, maintaining order and discipline, and taking a leading role in the classroom” (p.357).

A thick description of belief and belief change in the literature imply that there are enough evidences of proving beliefs affect PSTs both learning and teaching. Accordingly, this leads to an understanding that why PSTs use some filters during the campus-based teacher education courses and not progress as expected (Borg, 2003; Fives & Gill, 2015; Robertson, 2001). Cochran-Smith and Zeichner (2005) also points out that PSTs often proceed in teacher education programmes holding the same beliefs about teaching and therefore it leads to contradictions between the training and teaching, namely theory and practice, in the classrooms. Most of the relevant research indicate that teacher education courses did not do much to prepare PSTs for real life situations and pull the teacher educators’ attention to the possibility of unrealistic, shallow and erroneous beliefs hold by PSTs and some precautions, that is to increase the amount of teaching practices and selective courses due to the needs of PSTs, should be taken to replace these beliefs with update field knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Darling Hammond, LaFors, & Snyder, 2001; Yang, 2000).

Motivations for Becoming Language Teachers

In EVT, individuals' expectancies, background socialization, experiences and values are important factors influences "their achievement related choices, over and above demonstrated skill and abilities" (Eccles, 2005; Eccles 2009). The expectancies in this theory refers- to the belief of individuals about how well their performances on a task are. They are developed over time by individuals' experiences and interpretations of them. EVT also provides coherent and beneficial framework to develop and organize a research focusing the motivation to become teachers since the motivations are mapped constructs in the framework of this theory. It also allows motivation researchers to put "previously identified motivations within an integrative and comprehensive model" which provide additional motivations (Eccles, 2009, p.81).

In order to understand which mapped constructors, in other words factor influences to choose language teacher as a profession, the participants were requested to respond to a motivation scale. The quantitative data revealed that PSTs expressed a high value score on the factor of "social utilities" for choosing teaching as a career. In this factor, there are themes such as "making social contribution" "enhancing social contributions in the society" and "shaping future of children and adolescents". The PSTs expressed their beliefs over motivational factors that "teaching would allow teachers to influence the next generation" and "teachers make a worthwhile social contribution", "teaching allows teachers to provide a service to society" and "teaching allows teachers to have an impact on children/adolescents". Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) describes 'altruistic reasons' to choose teaching as a profession as seeing 'teaching' as a socially worthwhile and important job, and also an aspiration to help children succeed and a strong hope to help society improve. In this regard, the altruistic reasons were frequently expressed by the participants in the current study.

The present finding seems to be consistent with other research which found similar findings so as to social utility factors. Igawa(2009) investigating different groups of EFL

teachers' initial motivation also found out that a group of participants in her study chose to teach English with specific motivations such as to “support students” and “to contribute to the society”. One of the other studies which found social utility factors for motivation to become language teachers is Kavanoz's (2016) study who found social utility factors as the initial factors and were observed to be changed as student teacher proceed in the profession. The findings of the current study are also consistent with those of Topkaya and Uztosun (2012) who also found social utility and intrinsic factors as the primary factors affecting the teacher choice.

These results agree with some findings of other studies, in which “the factors influencing teaching choice as a career” and social utility was found among the top rated factors of motivation (Eren & Tezel, 2010; Kılınc et al., 2012; Richardson & Watt, 2005; Thomson, Turner & Nietfeld, 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2008; Watt et. al, 2012).

In the relevant literature, it is clearly seen that teachers or student teachers expressed more extrinsic factors as their rationale to choose teaching as a career in developing countries than when compared to English speaking, developed countries (Fives & Buehl, 2011; Fives and Gill, 2015; Klasen, Hannok & Betts, 2011; Watt et al., 2011). In this regard, the present study might suggest promising results both teacher education departments which target training quality teachers and the teaching institutions at which the PSTs will be employed after graduation.

The other study is also Ferguson and Braten's study (2018) in which the beliefs about the role of motivation in learning and teaching was emerged surprisingly as a category of belief. They drew a general picture through their main result that learners should be motivated to learn and teachers who want to be motivated should motivate their learners through variation and activation: the keys to motivation. They also emphasized the need for research for exploring motivation in learning and teaching accordingly.

Moreover, Kyriacou, Hultgren and Stephens (1999) list some of the motivation studies to draw attention to the most frequent factors effective in entering the profession. They exemplify studies of PSTs in different countries as far afield as South Africa (Leemers, 1998); Brunei Darussalam (Yong, 1995); the USA and the UK (Reid & Caudwell, 1997) and the factors respectively “wanting to work with children”, “wanting to contribute to society” and “enjoyment of teaching” (p.375).

Consequently, Richardson and Watt (2014) puts some final remarks on the issue that the pro-social and altruistic motivation factors draw student teachers to the teaching profession along with the intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The pro-social and altruistic factors range from love, dedication to learners to some personal and moral values in order to contribute to the society and act as an attempt for reducing social inequality in educational contexts (Hiver, Kim & Kim, 2018). Watt et al. (2012) emphasizes the issue that according to the expectancy value theory individuals assign a social value to the teaching profession as well as an individual appraisal that they attain to the profession.

Following the social utility factor, “expert career” was found as the second highest factor of motivation for the PSTs to choose language teaching. This factor was placed in the belief section of the motivation scale investigating the motivational beliefs about the necessity of expertise in teaching profession. The participants see their future career as a career that needs expertise to fulfill it.

As for intrinsic reasons to choose teaching as a career, Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) list some aspects such as the job activity itself, the activity of teaching children, and an interest in using their content knowledge and expertise. This finding is also in line with the finding that was captured in the belief section where the PSTs see themselves as not well equipped to implement some aspects during teaching such as strategy training, communicative language teaching and classroom management and want themselves to improve to meet the standards of

their career to be experts in the field. There again appears the needs analysis of PSTs in some areas of teacher education such as professional needs, teaching practices and challenges during the education process.

The third highest construct that was reported by the participants is “ELT motivation”, which includes items related to English language and language teaching. The participants pointed out they’ve chosen ELT as profession because they enjoy the subject they will teach representing the intrinsic motivation to become English teachers. They also claimed that the factor that influence them to choose English language teaching as a profession is that their desire to “work with children and adolescents”. This finding is associated with the finding of the social utility factors as the most important factors influences individuals to choose teaching as a career. Since both are related to result in socially responsible behaviour in educational contexts, they bring about promising positive development as the signs of raising standards of teacher development in Turkey in regard to career teaching.

The findings of the present study indicated that the participants articulated altruistic and intrinsic reasons for becoming English teachers as the most powerful ones, but none of them uttered solely one type of reasoning, instead a combination of the two was found both in quantitative and qualitative phases of the current study. The relevant research from the literature align with these findings that they also observed the dominance of the combination of altruistic and intrinsic reasons as effective motivators for career choice (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Pop & Turner, 2009; Richardson & Watt, 2005; Watt & Richardson, 2008)

Within the results of the study, it was seen that the least important factor influencing the participants’ career choice is the “social status factor, which is the most repeated factor in the some of the relevant studies in Turkish context (Kızıltepe, 2008; Öztürk, 2015). Kızıltepe (2008) studied the sources of motivation and also the demotivation for student teachers and

found out social status is among the important factors for motivation to become teachers. Moreover, Kim and Kim (2014) found out that most of the EFL teachers in Korea put the lack of 'social status' among the detrimental factors of motivation. The extrinsic reasons such as social status and salary were the least mentioned factors by the participants that is very promising for enduring the teaching career with altruistic and intrinsic reasons.

Another finding of the current study showed that any demographic characteristics of the participants was found not related to forming their motivation, and their motivation was formed regardless of their demographics. Accordingly, no significant relation was found between their motivational dispositions and their gender, age and year of study English and this finding is align with the findings of similar studies (Richardson & Watt, 2005; Thompson et al., 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2008).

The Relationship between Pre-service EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Motivation

The studies of teacher quality, teacher burnout and teacher attrition worldwide, it becomes vital to understand both why individuals leave the profession, what initially motivates them to choose teaching as a profession, and how their beliefs about teaching and learning aligned with the rationale of their motivation. In order to understand the relationship between the beliefs and motivations of pre-service teachers, the present study administered both belief and motivation surveys and qualitative data collection instruments as complementary. Upon the analysis of all instruments, there was a strong relationship found between the aspects of the two variables.

The correlational test results revealed that there was a strong relationship between the constructs "difficulty of language learning beliefs" and "motivation to become English language teachers", "learning and communication" beliefs and "motivation to choose teaching as a career", "foreign language aptitude" beliefs and "motivation to choose teaching as a career"

and “motivation and expectations” and “motivation to choose teaching as a career” (r The relationships between the variables were strengthened in two data sets. The strong and positive association was observed between the participants’ “motivation and expectations” and “motivation to become English language teachers” and their “motivation and expectations” beliefs and “beliefs about becoming a teacher.” Since one of the general purposes of investigating motivation and beliefs is to understand ELT teacher trainees’ standpoint which will affect the way they interpret events about teaching and their teaching decisions related to their practices in teaching (Borg, 2003; Woods, 1996), the relationship between the two constructs is very promising for teacher development.

As opposed to Woods’ (1996) BAK (beliefs, assumption-knowledge) theory, Barcelos (2015) starts with a pioneering attempt for belief and motivation research with the BEI (beliefs, emotions, identities) perspective and explores the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and emotions. She draws attention to that research in psychology often claims that beliefs and emotions profoundly influence one another. Emotions shape beliefs in multidimensional ways, either they might create beliefs, sometimes alter them due to the situations or make beliefs stronger or weaker and then beliefs can shape emotions in turn (Dörnyei & Ushido, 2011; Fives & Gill, 2015). As Saban (2003) and Thomson et al. (2012) indicated that most relevant research addressed solely on specific reasons of teachers to enter, remain, and leave the profession, however little research has been done to explore PSTs reasons to choose teaching as profession and beliefs about teaching. The findings of the current study suggest that a research framework in which motivation and beliefs of PSTs provide beneficial evidence to the teacher educators and researchers to help PSTs to shape their career plans and approaches, strategies to future classroom practices.

While changing individuals’ beliefs and motivation, as the power structures of teacher education, the teacher educators, mentor teachers, several parties in EFL environment should

know they, in fact, construct their identities and be cautious about teaching, guiding and reflecting when teacher education contexts. The findings of the study revealed that the strong relationship between beliefs and motivation can help researchers to explore the ‘constructable’ world of PSTs through first research and accordingly education.

Implications

The current study presents implications in order to increase the quality of English language teacher education in Turkey. There are two concerned parties: pre-service EFL teachers and teacher educators and HEC. The last part comprises of suggestions for further research based on the limitations of the current study.

Implications for pre-service EFL teachers. In order to confront PSTs’ unrealistic, erroneous and shallow beliefs related to learning and teaching, all parties should start to work within the sources: first PSTs themselves. First, they should be willing to involve in the professional development process. Second, they need to study their field work extensively to be aware of the theoretical basis of their profession and unveil the theoretical weaknesses and gain competence in most parts. Third, they could make as many observations of real teaching as possible to expose to different practices in the field. Fourth, they might be open to criticism by their peers or trainers through reflective practices. Fifth, they might watch for every opportunity to involve in professional development activities ranging from the seminars, colleagues’ clubs, to the events of special interest groups.

Implications for teacher educators and HEC. To develop motivational factors for teaching profession accordingly to reduce attrition and to ensure retention, the primary responsibility is on teacher educators. They might primarily make analysis of their trainees’ beliefs on certain intervals through different methodologies. After the analysis, focusing on the content, sources and development of these beliefs would be helpful to understand better with what beliefs PSTs come to the teacher education programme and recognize any irrelevant

beliefs and misconceptions PSTs may hold and thus to develop PSTs beliefs according to the objectives of the current teacher education programme.

Moreover, teacher educators can assist PSTs be aware of their beliefs and how they affect their practices through reflective practices. They can also support them to develop metacognitive awareness over their beliefs and their reflection in practices. As the beliefs affect what they PSTs implement, it is important to shape PSTs beliefs in teacher education programme and thus to enable them to act according to the shared beliefs and values. Therefore, when PSTs become to be aware of their beliefs, articulate and connect them, they can be able to mentor their colleagues and PSTs in the future. Finally, teacher educators who are aware of their trainees' beliefs in collaboration with the cooperating teacher at practicum schools can provide assistance to PSTs to support them on their strengths and weaknesses in relation to their beliefs and in the change processes of their beliefs.

Finally, in light of the findings, the program developers and/or policy makers in HEC might better recognize the different types of PSTs through their traditional and constructivist beliefs and their particular motivational profiles and thus might revise the ELT teacher education program and arrange new compulsory and selective courses according to the professional needs of PSTs. They may also add much practical courses within the programme in order to meet the reflective teaching needs of PSTs. Teacher educators might also be aware of the diversity of the PSTs profiles, objectives and needs so they can counsel them into profound understanding of teaching practices and thus provide productive field experiences. Through the counseling, the PSTs might have developed appropriate objectives for their careers, healthy choices, and reasonable expectations for their daily practices as teachers and also keen appreciation for the career they involved in.

In light of the reflective evaluation of the PSTs, there is also need much more observation in the actual classroom before they start teaching at practicum schools. The

concerned parties might also re-organize and plan the practicum processes and add an observational practicum course on the second or third year of the programme.

Implications for further researchers. Through a mixed methods design, the current study was conducted with the participation of pre-service EFL teachers studying in a public university. Regarding this limitation, in a further study, the mixed- method design can be pursued in ELT departments nationwide. Such a study can reveal the institutional and contextual differences and make contribution to the validation of teachers' beliefs and get a broader description of the research phenomena.

As data collection instruments, surveys, semi-structured interviews and reflective journals were used to define the belief and motivation of PSTs and the changes over time, a further study which utilizes observation of PSTs teaching at the practicum might provide a clear understanding of the effect of beliefs over their practices.

The researchers who are interested in studying either pre-service or in-service teacher beliefs should be clear about the kinds of belief they investigate. Although it seems challenging, it is appropriate to study all belief types since they are intertwined. Although to conduct a longitudinal research to trace the changes for a period as it is in the current study, for further research, it would be better to follow PSTs through their career, at least first few years, to understand whether their beliefs change or develop in actual practices. Up to now, teacher beliefs research has been constituted either case-studies or one time surveys or a mix of both as the current study adopted. As for further studies, longitudinal, multiple cases, collaborative either national or international in nature in many different settings would be more comprehensive to understand the career development of the teachers.

It is also important to conduct research about beliefs of experienced teachers', teachers who involved in the profession with different educational background, i.e. formation certificate, and part-time or full-time teachers working at private schools or courses to compare if their

beliefs or sources are different from each other. Moreover, the beliefs of EFL teachers working in cities and rural areas can also be investigated to see the contextual differences and the training needs according to the contexts in which they teach English. The findings and comparative analysis may suggest ELT educators to develop explicit and theory-compatible beliefs in their pre-service teachers. Another further research suggestion would be to make meta-cognitive analysis of teachers' beliefs whether to see some beliefs are more likely change than others. A research can also be applicable to understand the sources of beliefs of pre-service or in-service EFL teachers respectively at the beginning of teacher education program and at the novice years.

Finally, the researchers who are interested in teacher cognition should not study teachers' beliefs in isolation. They should necessarily investigate beliefs with relation to any affective factors within the context such as motivation, hope, expectation, value and satisfaction since they are strictly intertwined in especially educational contexts.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A : BALLI Survey

Dear Teacher Trainees,

The following questionnaire has been developed to identify your views about language learning. Your answers will be kept completely anonymous and confidential and will not be used for some other purposes except this research. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

A. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statement. The choices indicate:

5 STRONGLY AGREE 4 AGREE 3 NEUTRAL 2 DISAGREE 1 STRONGLY DISAGREE

1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I believe that I can speak English very well.	5	4	3	2	1
5. People in my country are good at learning foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
6. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	5	4	3	2	1
7. It is necessary to know about English speaking cultures in order to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
8. You shouldn't say anything in English, until you can say it correctly.	5	4	3	2	1
9. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	5	4	3	2	1
10. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
11. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I enjoy practising English with the native speakers I meet.	5	4	3	2	1
13. It is OK to guess, if you don't know a word in English.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
15. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.	5	4	3	2	1
16. It is important to repeat and practise a lot.	5	4	3	2	1
17. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	5	4	3	2	1
18. People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I feel timid (shy) when speaking English with other people.	5	4	3	2	1
20. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	5	4	3	2	1
21. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I would like to learn English so that I can get to know the British / Americans better.	5	4	3	2	1
23. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1
24. It is important to practise with videos and audio materials(i.e. MP3.)	5	4	3	2	1
25. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects.	5	4	3	2	1
26. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my native language (Turkish).	5	4	3	2	1
27. If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.	5	4	3	2	1
28. People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	5	4	3	2	1
29. I want to learn to speak English very well.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I would like to have British/American (English-speaking) friends.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.	5	4	3	2	1
32. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.	5	4	3	2	1

Please select only one option that reflects your view most

<p>33. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak the language very well?</p>	<p>5 Less than a year 4 1-2 years 3 2-3 years 2 3-5 years 1 You cannot learn a language one hour a day.</p>
<p>34. English is a (.....) language. (Please select only one option that reflects your view most)</p>	<p>5 Very difficult 4 Difficult 3 Medium 2 Easy 1 Very easy</p>
<p>37. My level of English:</p>	<p>1 Elementary 2 Lower-Intermediate 3 Intermediate 4 Upper-Intermediate 5 Advanced 6 Fluent</p>

Thank you for your participation in the survey. Please mark by the choice that corresponds to you the best and fill in the blanks as requested.

Nickname: _____ Age: _____

When did you start learning English?

Pre-school _____

Primary school _____ Grade _____

Secondary school _____ Grade _____

Gender: _____ Female _____ Male

Year _____1 _____2 _____3 _____4

Have you had any teaching experience?

_____ No, I have never taught before.

_____ Yes, I have been an individual teacher.

_____ Yes, I have taught in a private course.

_____ Yes, I have taught both as an individual teacher and a course teacher.

_____ Other, please specify: _____

Is there any teacher in your family?

_____ None

_____ My mother and/or My father _____ Other, please specify: _____

Appendix B: Interview Questions

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (English Version)

Dear teacher trainees,

The interview has been planned to identify your views about language teaching and learning and being an EFL teacher. The info obtained from the interview will be used in a research study, and your identity will be kept confidential. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

1. Can you remember your worst learning experience as a student?
2. Can you remember your best learning experience?
3. What do you think made you successful in learning English?
4. What should our students do to become successful in learning English?
5. Why did you want to become an English teacher?
6. Did anyone have an influence on your decision?
7. How do you describe a good, effective teacher?
8. What do you want to achieve this year as an EFL teacher trainee?
9. Do you think you might encounter any difficulties this year?
10. Do you have any worries about yourself or your teaching?
11. What strengths do you think you have as a teacher trainee?
12. What kind of learning environment do you want to create in your classes?
13. How will you correct students' errors if there are any?
14. Can you now describe yourself using a metaphor?
15. Do you want to add anything to what we have been talking about?

Appendix C: Interview Question (Turkish version)

Sayın Öğretmen Adayı,

Bu görüşme dil öğretimi ve öğrenimi, İngilizce öğretmeni olma hakkındaki görüşlerinizi ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla düzenlenmiştir. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen bilgiler ve görüşleriniz bir doktora tezinde kullanılacak ve görüşleriniz gizli tutulacaktır. İşbirliğiniz ve çalışmaya katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkürler.

İsim:

Yaşınız:

Staj Okulu:

1. İngilizce öğrenirken en kötü öğrenme tecrübeniz neydi? Neden?
2. İngilizce öğrenirken en iyi öğrenme tecrübeniz neydi? Neden?
3. İngilizce öğrenirken nelerin sizi başarılı kıldığını düşünüyorsunuz?
4. Öğrencilerinizin İngilizce öğrenme konusunda başarılı olmaları için ne yapmaları gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?
5. Neden İngilizce öğretmeni olmaya karar verdiniz?
6. Kararınızı etkileyen kimse oldu mu?
7. İyi ve etkili bir İngilizce öğretmeni nasıl olmalıdır?
8. Bu yıl bir İngilizce öğretmen adayı olarak neyi başarmak istiyorsunuz?
9. Bu yıl ne tür zorluklarla karşılaşacağınızı düşünüyorsunuz?
10. Öğretmen adayı olarak kendinizle ve öğretim şeklinizle ilgili endişeleriniz var mı? Varsa bahseder misiniz?
11. Öğretmen adayı olarak güçlü yanlarınızın neler olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
12. Öğrencileriniz için sınıfta nasıl öğrenme ortamı yaratmayı planlıyorsunuz ?
13. Eğer varsa öğrencileriniz yanlışlarını nasıl düzeltmeyi düşünürsünüz?
14. Metafor kullanarak kendinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız? (Öğretmen, mum ışığı)
15. İngilizce öğrenimi/öğretimi ve İngilizce Öğretmeni olmak hakkında eklemek istedikleriniz:

Appendix D: En- FIT Motivation Scale

Motivation Scale (FIT Choice)

Sayın Öğretmen Adayı,

Bu anket öğretmen olma yönündeki kararınızda etkili olan faktörleri belirlemek amacıyla oluşturulmuştur. Eğer yardım ederseniz çok memnun olacağız.

I. KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1. Nickname Kod Numarası:

1. Cinsiyet: erkek kız

2. Yaş:(yıl) +.....(ay)

3. Bu bölümü (öğretmenliği) kazandığınız yıl ailenizde beraber yaşadığınız kaç kişi vardı:

4. Babanızın mesleği:..... Annenizin mesleği:

5. Babanızın eğitim durumu:

İlkokul Ortaokul Lise Üniversite Master Doktora

6. Annenizin eğitim durumu:

İlkokul Ortaokul Lise Üniversite Master Doktora

7. Medeni haliniz: evli bekar 8. Evli iseniz kaç çocuğunuz var:

9. Bu bölümü (öğretmenliği) kazandığınız yılı düşündüğünüzde, o yıl için ailenizin toplam **yıllık** geliri yaklaşık olarak ne kadardı?

0-15000 TL 15001-30000 TL 30001-45000 TL 45001-60000 TL
60001-75000 TL 75001-90000 TL 90001-105000 TL 105001-120000 TL
120001 + TL

10. Öğretmenliği seçmeden önce bu mesleğe ilişkin bilgilendirme, toplantı vs. katıldın mı?

Evet Hayır

Öğretmen olmayı tercih etmenizin temel nedenlerini kısaca yazar mısınız?

.....

.....

ETKİLİ FAKTÖRLER

Aşağıdaki her bir ifadenin, öğretmenliği seçmenizle ilgili kararınızda ne kadar önemli olduğunu, 1 (hiç önemli değildi)'den 7 (aşırı derece önemliydi)'ye kadar olan seçeneklerden birini yuvarlak içine alarak gösterir misiniz.

A. İngilizce öğretmenliğini seçtim, çünkü ...

		Hiç önemli Değildi	Aşırı derecede önemliydi	
A1.	İngilizcede başarılıyım.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A1.
A2.	İngilizce öğretmenliği prestijli bir branştır.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A2.
A3.	İngilizce öğrencilerin uluslararası farkındalıklarını artırır.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A3.
A4.	İngilizce benim için önemli.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A4.
A5.	Farklı ülke kültürlerini yakından tanımama fırsat sağlar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A5.
A6.	İngilizce konuşmamı sağlar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A6.
A7.	İngilizceyi seviyorum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A7.
A8.	İngilizce öğrencilerin önemseydiği bir derstir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A8.
A9.	İngilizcemi geliştirmek için fırsat sağlar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A9.
A10.	Diğer branşlarda (matematik, fen vb.) yeterince başarılı değildim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A10.
A11.	İngilizce öğretmek çok eğlenceli.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		A11.

B. Öğretmenliği seçtim, çünkü ...

		Hiç önemli değildi	Aşırı derecede önemliydi	
B1.	Öğretmenlikle ilgileniyorum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B1.
B2.	Yarım gün çalışmak aileme daha fazla zaman ayırmamı sağlayacaktır.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B2.
B3.	Arkadaşlarım öğretmen olmam gerektiğini düşünüyor.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B3.
B4.	Bir öğretmen olarak uzun tatillerim olacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B4.
B5.	İyi bir öğretmenin sahip olduğu niteliklere sahibim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B5.
B6.	Öğretmenlik topluma hizmet etmemi sağlayacaktır.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B6.
B7.	Her zaman öğretmen olmayı istedim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B7.
B8.	Öğretmenlik bana çocuk ve gençleri şekillendirme fırsatı verecektir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B8.
B9.	Çocuk veya gençlerin öğrenmelerine yardımcı olmayı isterim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7		B9.

B10.	Hangi kariyeri istediğimden emin değildim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B10.
B11.	Öğretmenliği seviyorum	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B11.
B12.	Çocuk veya gençlerle çalışmayı içeren bir iş istiyorum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B12.
B13.	Öğretmenlik sürekliliği olan bir kariyer sağlayacaktır.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B13.
B14.	Öğretmenlikte çalışma saatleri bir aile kurmanın getireceği sorumlulukları yerine getirmem için uygundur.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B14.
B15.	İlham verici öğretmenlerim vardı.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B15.
B16.	Bir öğretmen olarak gün içindeki çalışma sürem kısa olacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B16.
B17.	Güçlü öğretme yetilerine sahibim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B17.
B18.	Öğretmenler topluma değerli katkılarda bulunur.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B18.
B19.	Öğretmenlik gelecek nesli etkilememi sağlayacak	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B19.
B20.	Ailem öğretmen olmam gerektiğini düşünüyor.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B20.
B21.	Çocuk veya gençlerin bulunduğu ortamda çalışmak istiyorum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B21.
B22.	Öğretmenlik maaşımın sürekli ve düzenli olmasını sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B22.
B23.	Okul tatilleri ailem için gerekli olan sorumlulukları yerine getirmemi kolaylaştıracak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B23.
B24.	Model olarak aldığım iyi öğretmenlerim vardı.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B24.
B25.	Öğretmenlik toplumdan aldıklarımı geri verme imkânı yaratacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B25.
B26.	Bir öğretmen olarak farklı ülkelerde çalışabilirim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B26.
B27.	En çok istediğim bölümü kazanamadım.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B27.
B28.	Öğretmenlik, imkânı olmayan öğrencilerin başarıma azimlerini arttırmama olanak sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B28.
B29.	Çocuk ve gençlerle çalışmayı seviyorum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B29.
B30.	Öğretmenlik sürekliliği olan bir işe sahip olmamı sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B30.
B31.	Öğrenme konusunda iyi deneyimlere sahibim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B31.
B32.	Birlikte çalıştığım insanlar öğretmen olmamın gerekli olduğunu düşünüyor.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B32.
B33.	Öğretmenlik yeteneklerime uygun bir meslektir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B33.
B34.	Öğretmenlik yaşamayı istediğim yeri seçmemi sağlayabilir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B34.
B35.	Öğretmenliği son çare olarak seçtim.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B35.
B36.	Öğretmenlik sosyal yönden yardıma ihtiyacı olan çocuklara veya gençlere yardım etme fırsatı sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B36.
B37.	Öğretmenlik diploması Avrupa ülkelerinde öğretmen olarak çalışmamı sağlayabilir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B37.

B38	Öğretmenlik tatmin edici bir kariyerdir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B38
B39	Öğretmenlik çocuk ve gençler üzerinde bir etkinin olmasını sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B39
B40	Öğretmenlik sosyal yönden dezavantajlılığa karşı mücadele etmemi sağlayacak.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	B40

C. ÖĞRETMENLİK HAKKINDAKİ GÖRÜŞLERİNİZ

Aşağıdaki her bir ifadenin doğruluğuna ne kadar inandığınızı 1'(hiç)'den 7(aşırı derecede)'ye kadar olan seçeneklerden birini yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.

		hiç	asırı
C1.	Öğretmenliğin iyi kazandırdığını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C1.
C2.	Öğretmenlerin ağır bir iş yükünün olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C2.
C3.	Öğretmenlerin iyi bir maaş aldığını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C3.
C4.	Öğretmenlerin birer uzman olarak algılandıklarını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C4.
C5.	Öğretmenlerin yüksek oranda bir iş memnuniyetine sahip olduklarını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C5.
C6.	Öğretmenliğin yüksek oranda yetenek gerektiren bir iş olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C6.
C7.	Öğretmenliğin duygusal açıdan zor bir meslek olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C7.
C8.	Öğretmenliğin yüksek statülü bir meslek olarak algılandığını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C8.
C9.	Öğretmenlerin, toplumun onlara değer verdiğine inandıklarını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C9.
C10.	Öğretmenliğin yüksek oranda uzmanlık bilgisi gerektirdiğine inanıyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C10.
C11.	Öğretmenliğin zor bir iş olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C11.
C12.	Öğretmenliğin çok fazla saygı duyulan bir meslek olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C12.
C13.	Öğretmenlerin kendi mesleklerinin yüksek bir sosyal statüde olduğuna inandıklarını düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C13.
C14.	Öğretmenliğin yüksek oranda teknik bilgi gerektirdiğine inanıyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C14.
C15.	Öğretmenlerin özelleşme gerektiren bilgilere ihtiyacı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C15.

D. ÖĞRETMEN OLMA YÖNÜNDEKİ KARARINIZ

Aşağıdaki her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu 1 (hiç)'den 7 (aşırı derece)'ye kadar olan seçeneklerden birini yuvarlak içine alarak gösteriniz.

	hiç	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	aşırı derecede
b1. Öğretmen olma konusundane kadar dikkatli düşündün?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b1.
b2. Öğretmenlik dışında başka bir mesleği seçmen önerildi mi?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b2.
b3. Öğretmenliği seçmen seni ne kadar tatmin etti?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b3.
b4. Etrafındakiler öğretmenliğin iyi bir kariyer seçimi olmadığını söylediler mi?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b4.
b5. Öğretmen olma kararından ne kadar mutlusun?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b5.
b6. Diğerleri öğretmenlik dışında başka meslekleri seçmen konusundaseni etkiledi mi?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	b6.

D7. Öğretmenliği seçmeyi ciddi olarak ilk ne zaman düşündün?

Sonucumu gördükten sonra

Lise yıllarında (lütfen kaç yıl önce olduğunu belirtiniz): yıl önce.....sınıfta

İlköğretim yıllarında (Lütfen kaç yıl önce olduğunu belirtiniz): yıl önce.....sınıfta

Ekleme istedikleriniz...

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix E: Reflective Journals

Trainee Journals

Dear Teacher Trainees,

I am interested in how EFL teacher trainees' beliefs about teaching change and develop and I would like you to keep a journal following the procedures below.

- A. Write the journal during your teaching practice/practicum period. Make entries on a regular basis, such as once a week after your teaching, or after a lesson that you feel has affected your belief, behaviour, or attitude about language learning and teaching. 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.
- B. 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?
- C. When you write in your journal, ask yourself the following questions:
 1. Did you achieve your objectives by the end of the lesson? Please explain why/why not you have/have not achieved your aims?
 2. What do you think were the strengths (i.e. positive aspects) of your teaching? Why?
 3. What do you think were the weaknesses of your teaching? Why?
 4. Did anything unexpected happen during my teaching?
 5. Did you have to divert from your lesson plan? Why?
 6. Did you encounter any difficulties during your lesson? If yes, can you explain?
 7. If you taught this lesson again, would you do anything differently?
 8. Did I do sufficient preparation for the lesson? Why/Why not?
 9. Did I discover anything new about my teaching or my students?
 10. What problems did I encounter and how did I deal with them?
 11. What did the learners actually learn in the lesson? How do I know that they learnt? (How do you check on student understanding?)
 12. What roles do my students play in my class?
 13. What was my main objective in the lesson today?
 14. Why do I teach the way I do? What principles and beliefs influence my teaching today?
 15. Did you experience anything that motivates or demotivates you as a teacher trainee?

You can keep your journals in any language (Turkish or English) which you feel most comfortable with.

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix F: Metaphor Elicitation Task

Dear Teacher Candidates,

This is a part of the study which aimed at understanding trainees' beliefs related to learning and teaching English in general. You are requested to complete the following sentences using metaphors to describe your beliefs about the concepts given.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Teaching English is like

A language teacher is

As a teacher trainee I am

Classrooms are.....

Motivation is.....

Appendix G: Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

You are being asked to participate in a research study being conducted at this university. The purpose of this study is to obtain information from teacher trainees about what they believe about language learning and teaching, being a language teacher, and their motivation to their profession. Obtaining such information can help us gain a better understanding of how teacher training affects classroom practices.

Your participation will consist of completing a survey of beliefs about language learning at two stages: before and after the practice teaching. The survey consists of two parts. In the first part, you will be asked for your opinions about beliefs about language learning and your background information. The second part will have questions about your motivation to become an EFL teacher. After the first survey, some of you may be asked to participate in the observation and/or interview study during your practice teaching.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no penalties for refusing to participate. No course privileges will be denied if you decline to participate. Also, if you agree to participate in the study, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. However, I would like to ask for consistent participation throughout the study. It is important to have your responses on both surveys for the completeness of data.

Your answers and records will be kept strictly confidential. Please respond to all the surveys completely. Your names are asked only for the purpose of pairing the data from the two surveys but they will not be identified in any record. Instead, you will be assigned a numerical code to be used for recording purposes.

If you have any questions about this study, please let me know. Please sign below if you are willing to participate in the study.

I have read the descriptions above and agree to participate in this study.

Participant _____ Sign _____

Date _____

Appendix H: Descriptive Statistics of Belief Survey

First Measurement

	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing						
I_A01	158	0	4,16	5,00	5	1,134	1	5
I_A02	158	0	3,72	4,00	5	1,210	1	5
I_A03	158	0	3,46	4,00	4	1,439	1	5
I_A04	158	0	3,11	3,00	3	1,160	1	5
I_A05	158	0	2,73	3,00	2	1,144	1	5
I_A06	158	0	2,04	2,00	2	,977	1	5
I_A07	158	0	3,24	3,00	4	1,125	0	5
I_A08	158	0	3,51	4,00	5	1,583	1	5
I_A09	158	0	3,49	4,00	4	1,256	0	5
I_A10	158	0	3,40	4,00	4	1,330	1	5
I_A11	158	0	3,78	5,00	5	1,532	0	5
I_A12	158	0	3,82	4,00	5	1,225	1	5
I_A13	158	0	3,18	4,00	4	1,394	0	5
I_A14	158	0	3,54	4,00	4	,935	0	5
I_A15	158	0	3,76	4,00	4	,870	0	5
I_A16	158	0	4,06	5,00	5	1,346	1	5
I_A17	158	0	2,42	2,00	2	1,090	0	5
I_A18	158	0	2,97	3,00	2	1,183	1	5
I_A19	158	0	2,94	3,00	4	1,324	1	5
I_A20	158	0	2,84	2,00	2	1,363	0	5
I_A21	158	0	3,05	3,00	4	1,315	1	5
I_A22	158	0	3,40	4,00	4	1,052	0	5
I_A23	158	0	2,53	2,00	2	1,039	1	5
I_A24	158	0	3,76	4,00	5	1,541	1	5
I_A25	158	0	3,48	4,00	4	1,315	0	5

I_A26	158	0	3,26	3,00	4	1,113	1	5
I_A27	158	0	4,49	5,00	5	,605	2	5
I_A28	158	0	3,83	4,00	4	,839	1	5
I_A29	158	0	4,50	5,00	5	,804	0	5
I_A30	158	0	4,22	5,00	5	,988	1	5
I_A31	158	0	3,49	4,00	4	1,138	1	5
I_A32	158	0	3,02	3,00	4	1,319	1	5
I_A33	158	0	3,01	3,00	2	1,299	1	5
I_A34	158	0	3,21	3,00	3	,837	1	5
I_A35	158	0	4,70	5,00	5	,636	3	6

Second Measurement

	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing						
II_A01	158	0	4,27	5,00	5	1,01	1	5
II_A02	158	0	4,26	5,00	5	0,94	2	5
II_A03	158	0	3,99	4,00	5	1,12	1	5
II_A04	158	0	3,46	4,00	4	0,93	0	5
II_A05	158	0	2,51	2,00	2	0,92	1	5
II_A06	158	0	2,11	2,00	2	0,97	1	5
II_A07	158	0	3,51	4,00	4	1,06	0	5
II_A08	158	0	4,12	5,00	5	1,22	1	5
II_A09	158	0	3,85	4,00	4	1,10	0	5
II_A10	158	0	3,68	4,00	5	1,29	1	5
II_A11	158	0	4,39	5,00	5	1,07	1	5
II_A12	158	0	4,01	4,00	5	1,17	0	5
II_A13	158	0	3,82	4,00	4	0,93	1	5
II_A14	158	0	3,52	4,00	4	0,84	0	5
II_A15	158	0	3,66	4,00	4	0,90	1	5
II_A16	158	0	4,47	5,00	5	1,04	1	5
II_A17	158	0	2,55	3,00	3	1,11	1	5
II_A18	158	0	3,13	3,00	4	1,17	0	5
II_A19	158	0	3,09	3,00	4	1,30	1	5
II_A20	158	0	3,06	3,00	2	1,34	0	5
II_A21	158	0	3,32	3,50	4	1,11	1	5
II_A22	158	0	3,28	3,00	4	1,10	0	5
II_A23	158	0	2,46	2,00	2	1,04	1	5
II_A24	158	0	4,39	5,00	5	0,94	1	5
II_A25	158	0	3,99	4,00	4	1,10	0	5
II_A26	158	0	3,28	3,00	3	1,07	1	5

II_A27	158	0	4,61	5,00	5	0,56	3	5
II_A28	158	0	3,59	4,00	3	1,00	1	5
II_A29	158	0	4,76	5,00	5	0,63	0	5
II_A30	158	0	4,48	5,00	5	0,86	1	5
II_A31	158	0	3,66	4,00	4	1,13	1	5
II_A32	158	0	3,34	4,00	4	1,26	1	5
II_A33	158	0	3,04	3,00	2	1,24	1	5
II_A34	158	0	3,14	3,00	3	0,79	1	5
II_A35	158	0	4,51	5,00	5	0,63	3	6



Third Measurement

	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing						
III_A01	158	0	4,46	5,00	5	0,71	1	5
III_A02	158	0	4,38	5,00	5	0,75	2	5
III_A03	158	0	3,99	4,00	5	1,12	1	5
III_A04	158	0	3,46	4,00	4	0,93	0	5
III_A05	158	0	3,76	4,00	4	0,67	2	5
III_A06	158	0	3,86	4,00	4	0,74	2	5
III_A07	158	0	3,51	4,00	4	1,06	0	5
III_A08	158	0	4,12	5,00	5	1,22	1	5
III_A09	158	0	3,85	4,00	4	1,10	0	5
III_A10	158	0	3,83	4,00	5	1,15	1	5
III_A11	158	0	4,39	5,00	5	1,07	1	5
III_A12	158	0	4,01	4,00	5	1,17	0	5
III_A13	158	0	3,82	4,00	4	0,93	1	5
III_A14	158	0	3,92	4,00	4	0,71	2	5
III_A15	158	0	3,66	4,00	4	0,90	1	5
III_A16	158	0	4,47	5,00	5	1,04	1	5
III_A17	158	0	3,63	4,00	4	0,84	1	5
III_A18	158	0	3,13	3,00	4	1,17	0	5
III_A19	158	0	3,84	4,00	4	0,85	1	5
III_A20	158	0	3,06	3,00	2	1,34	0	5
III_A21	158	0	3,32	3,50	4	1,11	1	5
III_A22	158	0	3,75	4,00	4	0,79	1	5
III_A23	158	0	2,46	2,00	2	1,04	1	5
III_A24	158	0	4,39	5,00	5	0,94	1	5
III_A25	158	0	3,99	4,00	4	1,10	0	5
III_A26	158	0	3,28	3,00	3	1,07	1	5

III_A27	158	0	4,61	5,00	5	0,56	3	5
III_A28	158	0	4,03	4,00	4	0,78	2	5
III_A29	158	0	4,76	5,00	5	0,63	0	5
III_A30	158	0	4,48	5,00	5	0,86	1	5
III_A31	158	0	3,66	4,00	4	1,13	1	5
III_A32	158	0	4,08	4,00	4	0,67	1	5
III_A33	158	0	3,04	3,00	2	1,24	1	5
III_A34	158	0	2,51	2,00	2	0,82	1	5
III_A35	158	0	4,35	5,00	5	0,95	0	6



Appendix I: Statistical Analysis of Belief Survey

Normality Tests: LCS Category

Statistics

		I_LCS	II_LCS	III_LCS
N	Valid	158	158	158
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		3,5063	3,8560	3,7318
Median		3,8750	3,8750	3,8750
Mode		4,25	3,88	3,88
Skewness		-,554	-1,273	-1,891
Std. Error of Skewness		,193	,193	,193
Kurtosis		-1,056	2,522	4,435
Std. Error of Kurtosis		,384	,384	,384

Skewness and Kurtosis values are not between -1 and +1 **NOT NORMALLY DISTRIBUTED.**

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
I_LCS	,181	158	,000	,893	158	,000
II_LCS	,135	158	,000	,902	158	,000
III_LCS	,184	158	,000	,823	158	,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test confirms the case... (p<0.01)

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
factor1	,273	202,444	2	,000	,579	,581	,500

Normality Tests: FLA Category

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
factor1	,731	48,918	2	,000	,788	,795	,500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: factor1

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Normality Tests: DLL Category

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
factor1	,506	106,353	2	,000	,669	,673	,500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: factor1

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Normality Tests: ME Category

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound

factor1	,299	188,416	2	,000	,588	,590	,500
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Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: factor1

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Normality Tests: NLL Category

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
factor1	,000	.	2	.	,500	,500	,500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: factor1

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Appendix J: Descriptive Statistics of Motivation Items

	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing						
A01	158	0	5,83	6,00	6	1,02	2	7
A02	158	0	5,53	6,00	7	1,37	1	7
A03	158	0	5,86	6,00	7	1,33	0	7
A04	158	0	6,34	7,00	7	1,01	1	7
A05	158	0	6,03	6,00	7	1,13	1	7
A06	158	0	6,07	6,00	7	1,22	0	7
A07	158	0	6,37	7,00	7	1,03	0	7
A08	158	0	3,99	4,00	4	1,40	1	7
A09	158	0	5,74	6,00	7	1,41	1	7
A10	158	0	4,12	4,00	7	2,10	0	7
A11	158	0	5,69	6,00	6	1,37	1	7
B01	158	0	5,50	6,00	7	1,75	0	7
B02	158	0	4,53	5,00	7	2,02	0	7
B03	158	0	3,16	3,00	1	1,85	0	7
B04	158	0	4,03	4,00	5	2,06	1	7
B05	158	0	5,04	5,00	5	1,28	0	7
B06	158	0	5,87	6,00	6	1,24	1	7
B07	158	0	4,71	5,00	7	2,02	0	7
B08	158	0	5,98	6,00	7	1,13	1	7
B09	158	0	6,05	6,00	7	1,15	1	7
B10	158	0	4,03	5,00	5	1,49	0	7
B11	158	0	5,71	6,00	7	1,55	1	7
B12	158	0	5,44	6,00	7	1,67	1	7
B13	158	0	4,96	5,00	6	1,75	1	7
B14	158	0	5,16	5,00	7	1,60	1	7
B15	158	0	5,70	6,00	7	1,45	1	7
B16	158	0	4,20	4,00	5	1,83	1	7
B17	158	0	5,07	5,00	5	1,31	0	7
B18	158	0	6,36	7,00	7	1,02	1	7
B19	158	0	6,28	7,00	7	1,01	1	7
B20	158	0	4,19	4,00	6	2,00	1	7
B21	158	0	5,35	6,00	7	1,71	0	7
B22	158	0	4,94	5,00	6	1,91	0	7
B23	158	0	4,97	5,00	7	1,85	1	7
B24	158	0	5,75	6,00	7	1,50	1	7
B25	158	0	5,54	6,00	7	1,48	1	7
B26	158	0	5,23	6,00	7	1,78	1	7
B27	158	0	4,66	5,00	5	1,34	1	7
B28	158	0	5,66	6,00	7	1,44	1	7
B29	158	0	5,54	6,00	7	1,53	1	7

B30	158	0	5,24	6,00	7	1,76	1	7
B31	158	0	5,23	5,50	6	1,32	0	7
B32	158	0	3,99	4,00	5	2,02	1	7
B33	158	0	5,41	6,00	6	1,50	1	7
B34	158	0	3,76	4,00	4	2,02	0	7
B35	158	0	4,55	5,00	5	1,28	1	7
B36	158	0	5,86	6,00	7	1,26	1	7
B37	158	0	4,92	5,00	7	1,77	1	7
B38	158	0	5,06	5,00	6	1,65	0	7
B39	158	0	5,99	6,00	7	1,19	1	7
B40	158	0	5,43	6,00	7	1,44	1	7
C01	158	0	3,81	4,00	4	1,68	0	7
C02	158	0	4,47	6,00	7	2,38	1	7
C03	158	0	3,31	3,50	4	1,62	0	7
C04	158	0	3,63	4,00	4	1,80	1	7
C05	158	0	3,31	3,00	4	1,44	1	7
C06	158	0	6,18	7,00	7	1,13	3	7
C07	158	0	5,44	6,00	7	2,24	1	7
C08	158	0	3,66	4,00	1	1,95	1	7
C09	158	0	3,66	4,00	4	1,75	1	7
C10	158	0	6,01	6,50	7	1,30	0	7
C11	158	0	4,96	6,00	7	2,41	1	7
C12	158	0	4,10	4,00	4	1,84	0	7
C13	158	0	4,23	4,00	4	1,49	1	7
C14	158	0	5,56	6,00	7	1,41	1	7
C15	158	0	5,57	6,00	6	1,41	0	7

Appendix K: Independent Sample Tests

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
M_A_MOT	Equal variances assumed	,141	,708	,439	151	,662	,09276	,21151	-,32515	,51067
	Equal variances not assumed			,462	14,650	,651	,09276	,20059	-,33569	,52120
M_B_ABL	Equal variances assumed	2,523	,114	1,076	151	,284	,37289	,34649	-,31170	1,05748
	Equal variances not assumed			1,541	17,883	,141	,37289	,24204	-,13585	,88164
M_B_ICV	Equal variances assumed	,272	,603	,548	151	,585	,24231	,44255	-,63209	1,11670
	Equal variances not assumed			,564	14,504	,581	,24231	,42933	-,67553	1,16014
M_B_FC	Equal variances assumed	5,823	,017	,937	151	,350	,25952	,27697	-,28772	,80676
	Equal variances not assumed			1,543	20,828	,138	,25952	,16816	-,09036	,60940
M_B_PU	Equal variances assumed	3,340	,070	1,362	151	,175	,59849	,43930	-,26948	1,46645
	Equal variances not assumed			1,940	17,800	,068	,59849	,30845	-,05007	1,24705
M_B_JT	Equal variances assumed	1,965	,163	,155	151	,877	,06190	,39958	-,72759	,85140
	Equal variances not assumed			,198	16,313	,846	,06190	,31322	-,60107	,72488
M_B_SU	Equal variances assumed	1,325	,251	-,151	151	,880	-,04493	,29812	-,63396	,54409
	Equal variances not assumed			-,216	17,864	,832	-,04493	,20849	-,48320	,39334
M_B_WCA	Equal variances assumed	1,324	,252	-,583	151	,560	-,22788	,39056	-,99956	,54379
	Equal variances not assumed			-,703	15,712	,493	-,22788	,32432	-,91644	,46067
M_B_PTLE	Equal variances assumed	1,967	,163	,098	151	,922	,03315	,33980	-,63822	,70452
	Equal variances not assumed			,122	16,127	,904	,03315	,27088	-,54073	,60703
M_B_SI	Equal variances assumed	,069	,792	-,264	151	,792	-,12802	,48501	-1,08630	,83025
	Equal variances not assumed			-,274	14,541	,788	-,12802	,46774	-1,12774	,87170
M_B_SPI	Equal variances assumed	,139	,710	-,147	151	,883	-,04744	,32275	-,68512	,59025
	Equal variances not assumed			-,155	14,630	,879	-,04744	,30698	-,70319	,60832
M_C_EC	Equal variances assumed	2,976	,087	,049	151	,961	,01442	,29322	-,56493	,59377
	Equal variances not assumed			,069	17,509	,946	,01442	,20979	-,42721	,45606
M_C_HD	Equal variances assumed	,069	,793	-,011	151	,991	-,00549	,51249	-1,01807	1,00708
	Equal variances not assumed			-,010	13,819	,992	-,00549	,56550	-1,21987	1,20889
M_C_SS	Equal variances assumed	,000	,982	-,230	151	,819	-,08498	,37006	-,81614	,64617
	Equal variances not assumed			-,212	13,906	,835	-,08498	,40066	-,94485	,77488
M_C_S	Equal variances assumed	,056	,814	-1,235	151	,219	-,54368	,44018	-1,41340	,32603

Curriculum Vitae

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