EFL INSTRUCTORS' COGNITIONS AND ACTIONS IN RELATION TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING PROCESSES

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Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Enginarlar (METU, Retired)

Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım (METU, EDS)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet Ok (METU, EDS)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fatma MızıkacI (Ankara U., CI)

Assist. Prof. Dr. Yeşim Çapa-Aydın (METU, EDS)

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Name, Last name: Mustafa Öztürk

Signature :

ABSTRACT

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Öztürk, Mustafa
Ph.D., Department of Educational Sciences
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım

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The purpose of this study is to investigate EFL instructors' language learning cognitions regarding linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners; and language teaching actions with respect to pedagogical inclinations, instructional planning, error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development. The study also aims to describe the patterns of the relationships existing among those variables and examine the sources contributing to teachers' cognitive and behavioural development.

The participants consisted of 606 EFL instructors teaching in 15 different higher education institutions in Ankara, Turkey. The data were collected through a single, cross-sectional inventory titled *EFL Instructors' Cognitions and Actions Inventory).* The data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics by using frequency distribution tables, percentages, means, standard deviations, t-tests, ANOVAs, Pearson correlation coefficients, and canonical correlation.

The descriptive results concerning language learning cognitions indicated that the participants tended to adopt: an *interactionist* perspective emphasizing the significance of the environment around individuals learning a language; a

performance-oriented approach focusing on real-life functions of language skills and areas; and a slight orientation to *legislative* learners who can create their own rules and decide on their own priorities. On the other hand, they seemed to employ: both traditional/conservative and innovative/liberal pedagogies; communicative practices in error correction and instructional planning; learner-centeredness; and personal and professional development attempts in their language teaching actions.

The inferential analyses revealed that the participants' cognitions and actions on certain aspects differed in relation to age, teaching experience, and academic background. Furthermore, the participants having competence-oriented approach and executive learner preferences would exhibit adherence to traditional (conservative) pedagogy, but divergence from communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction. Similarly, the participants disfavouring legislative learners would tend to diverge from communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction; on the contrary they would reflect a tendency towards traditional (conservative) pedagogy.

Keywords: Teacher Cognition, Teacher Action, Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, EFL/ESL Teaching, Teacher Education

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME VE ÖĞRETME SÜREÇLERİNE İLİŞKİN BİLİŞ VE EYLEMLERİ

Öztürk, Mustafa
Doktora, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım

Mart 2014, 267 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının, dil yeteneği, dil öğrenmede öncelikler ve dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özelliklerine ilişkin bilişleri ile eğitim yaklaşımı, öğretimi planlama, yanlış düzeltme, öğrenci merkezci olma ve kişisel ve mesleki gelişim konularına yönelik eylemlerini araştırmaktır. Ayrıca, çalışma kapsamında, bu değişkenler arasında var olan ilişki biçimleri ile öğretmenlerin bilişsel ve davranışsal gelişimine katkı sağlayan etkenlerin de incelenmesi hedeflenmiştir.

Araştırmanın örneklemi Ankara ilinde bulunan 15 farklı yükseköğretim kurumunda görev yapmakta olan 606 İngilizce öğretim elemanından oluşmaktadır. Veriler, araştırmacı tarafından tasarlanmış ve uygulamaya konulmuş olan *İngilizce Öğretim Elemanları Biliş ve Eylem Envanteri* isimli anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Veriler, frekans dağılım tabloları, yüzdeler, aritmetik ortalamalar, standart sapma, t-testi, ANOVA, Pearson korelasyon katsayısı ve kanonik korelasyon gibi betimleyici ve çıkarsamalı istatistiki yöntemler kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Dil öğrenimine dair bilişlere ilişkin sonuçlar, katılımcıların dil öğrenen bireyler için çevrenin önemini vurgulayan *etkileşimci* bir görüşe, dil beceri ve alanlarının

gerçek hayattaki işlevlerine öncelik veren *performans odaklı* bir yaklaşıma ve kendi kurallarını oluşturabilen ve kendi önceliklerine karar verebilen *kural koyucu* öğrenci tercihine daha yatkın olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Dil öğretimine dair eylemlere ilişkin sonuçlar ise, hem *geleneksel* hem de *yenilikçi* eğitim anlayışının; öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme süreçlerinde *iletişimsel* uygulamaların; *öğrenci-merkezci* olmanın; *kişisel ve mesleki gelişim* girişimlerinin katılımcılar tarafından benimsendiğini göstermiştir.

Çıkarsamalı analizler, yaş, deneyim ve akademik geçmiş gibi değişkenlerin, katılımcıların dil öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerine ilişkin biliş ve eylemleri üzerinde farklılıklar yarattığını ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca dil öğrenmede öncelikler konusunda *edinç odaklı* bir yaklaşım benimseyen ve önceden belirlenmiş kuralları söylendiği gibi uygulayan *yürütücü* öğrencileri tercih eden katılımcıların, *geleneksel* eğitim anlayışına daha yatkın olabileceği ve öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme konusunda *iletişimsel* uygulamalardan uzaklaşabileceği gözlenmiştir. Benzer şekilde, kendi önceliklerine karar verebilen *kural koyucu* öğrencileri tercih etmeyen katılımcıların da öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme konusunda iletişimsel uygulamalardan uzaklaşabileceği ve *geleneksel* eğitim anlayışına daha yatkın olabileceği gözlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen Bilişi, Öğretmen Eylemleri, Yabancı Dil Öğrenme ve Öğretme, İngilizce Öğretimi, Öğretmen Eğitimi

To my son, Melih Tuna,
who came into the world on the day when I defended this dissertation

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- **ACL:** American Culture and Literature
- **ANOVA:** Analysis of Variance
- **BALLI:** Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory
- **BA:** Bachelor of Arts
- **BAK:** Beliefs, Assumptions, Knowledge
- **CELTA:** Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
- **CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching
- **DELTA:** Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults
- **EEL:** Early English Learning
- **EFL:** English as a Foreign Language
- **ELL:** English Language and Literature
- **ELT:** English Language Teaching
- **ESL:** English as a Second Language
- **FLE:** Foreign Language Education
- **ICT:** Information and Communication Technologies
- **KAL:** Knowledge About Language
- **KMO:** Kaiser-Mayer Olkin
- **LING:** Linguistics
- **L1:** First Language
- **L2:** Second Language
- **MI:** Multiple Intelligences
- **TEE:** Teaching English in English
- **TEYL:** Teaching English to Young Learners
- **TI:** Translation and Interpretation
- **TOEFL:** Test of English as a Foreign Language
- **YDS:** Yabancı Dil Sınavı (Foreign Language Exam)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of five parts: (a) background to the study, which provides information about the main themes and the scope of the study; (b) problem statement; (c) purpose and (d) significance of the study; and (e) definitions of terms.

1.1. Background to the Study

In view of the fact that the 'teacher' is among the most influential variables in educational achievements, the 'teacher's actions' are equally powerful in shaping these achievements. Since these actions are assumed to be the reflections of certain cognitions, 'teacher cognition' becomes a remarkable issue to study profoundly in educational research. As Borg (2006) states, teachers are active decision-makers who have an essential role in shaping classroom activities, and their behaviours are significantly affected and even controlled by their thought processes. Taking reference from this assumption, understanding teacher cognition becomes fundamental to understand the process of teaching. Therefore, recognizing the importance of teacher cognition, when conducting research on teaching and teacher education, is unavoidable.

Considering the fact that teaching cannot be examined solely through observing behaviours and rather more focus on cognitive sides ought to be given, there are two main components of this study: the 'cognition' component and the 'action' component. In the current dissertation, the concept of 'language learning cognitions' refers to unobservable cognitive dimensions of language teachers, especially in relation to what they think of, believe in, know about and understand

from language learning. In the same way, the concept of 'language teaching actions' stands for language teaching practices routinely performed by language teachers as a result of their gains from prior learning, pre-service and in-service training, and in-class teaching experiences. Both components have significant effects on students' learning and teachers' development. Therefore, the findings in this study will be a good basis for providing a better understanding about the educational practices of teachers as well as leading professional development activities within pre-service and in-service contexts of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) or ESL (English as a Second Language) teaching.

1.1.1. Concept of Teacher Cognition

Teachers interpret a teaching situation in the light of their cognitions on learning and teaching, and this interpretation guides their decisions and attempts to create effective teaching in the classroom. The developments in cognitive science provide us with a model with three components: (a) the classroom events and actions, (b) the planning that precedes those events and actions, and (c) the understanding and interpretation that follow those events and actions (Woods, 1996). As teaching is a kind of cognitive activity, the concept of teacher cognition is itself broad and encompassing, because there is a set of distinct concepts and multiple perspectives regarding the cognitive processes occurring in human. Cognitions are described by Borg (2006) in terms of "instructional concerns or considerations teachers have, principles or maxims they are trying to implement, their thinking about different levels of context, the pedagogical knowledge they possess, their personal practical knowledge and their beliefs" (p.87).

In order to attach importance to cognitive dimensions when analyzing teaching, a variety of themes or concepts that would possibly be included under the term 'cognition' have been used in previous studies, such as: practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1981, 1983; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999); theories and beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986); culture of teaching (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992); pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton, 1999; Shulman, 1987); pedagogical reasoning (Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Shulman, 1987); conceptions (Freeman, 1993); preconceptions (Wubbels, 1992); images (Golombek, 1998;

Johnson, 1994;) beliefs (Richards & Lockhart, 1996); BAK representing beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (Woods, 1996); maxims (Richards, 1996); personal pedagogical systems (Borg, 1998); implicit theories and knowledge (Richards, 1998); personal theories (Sendan & Roberts, 1998); routines (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999); pedagogical principles (Breen et al., 2001); cognitions (Borg, 2003); teaching perspectives (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 2003), and so on. No matter how various conceptualizations have been encountered so far, Calderhead (1996) has already clarified that "terms as beliefs, values, attitudes, judgments, opinions, ideologies, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, personal theories, and perspectives have been used almost interchangeably" (p. 719). Therefore in this study, the concept of 'teacher cognition' is used to cover a broad range of cognitive dimensions in teachers' thought processes.

1.1.2. Nature of Teacher Cognition

A great number of reviews and studies intend to describe the nature of teacher cognition, and thus different concepts appear in different resources. Some studies focus on knowledge component, while some others examine belief systems, thought processes, or pedagogical principles. The volume of research investigating teacher cognition has led the researchers to focus mostly on 'belief' component. In relation to the nature of teachers' educational beliefs, Pajares (1992) presents an inclusive list of words related to beliefs:

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

In a recent work, Yook (2010) lists the major features of teachers' beliefs as (a) reflecting personal truth, (b) being affective and evaluative, (c) influencing their behaviour, (d) functioning as filters through which information is perceived, (e) serving as means of defining goals and tasks and organizing the knowledge and information relevant to those tasks, and (f) being not easily changed. According to Gabillon (2012), teacher beliefs are regarded to have contradictory aspects as they

might be both personal and socio-cultural; both implicit and explicit; both practical and theoretical; both dynamic and resistant; and both complex and systematic.

As Woods (1996) asserts, a belief system "deals not only with beliefs about the way things are, but also with the way things should be" (p.70), and decisions leading to actions are derived from knowledge and beliefs about what is good and bad in the current state. Similarly, Hermans et al. (2008) affirm that belief systems comprise "an eclectic mix of rules of thumb, generalizations, opinions, values, and expectations grouped in a more or less structured way" (p. 1500). It is clear that these systems affect the way in which humans perceive the reality and guide their thoughts, attitudes, and behaviours (Eisenhart et al., 1988). Therefore, beliefs are defined to be psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions that are accepted as true by the individuals holding the beliefs (Richardson, 1996), which highlights the personal and experiential aspects of beliefs. Tantani (2012) emphasizes the 'personal' aspect by arguing what does not work for one teacher might work for another in certain cases. For that reason, teachers' beliefs could be constructed, reconstructed, and appropriated (Gabillon, 2012) in a different way by different people through diverse experiences in diverse contexts. At this point, another important feature of teacher cognition, which is its being dynamic (Flores, 2001; Johnston & Goettsch; 2000), appears. Thompson (1992) draws attention to the dynamic feature of belief systems by defining them as "permeable mental structures" and suggesting that they are "susceptible to change in light of experience" (p. 140). In the same line with beliefs, teachers' practical knowledge is also claimed to be situational, theoretical, personal, social, and experiential by Elbaz (1983) and personal, experiential, contextualized, task-specific and event-structured by Carter (1992). As teachers' knowledge is thought to be dialectical, situated, and dynamic, it could be reconstructed and reshaped (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987).

Apart from those features, a large number of studies have explored teacher cognition together with its reflections on instructional practices. Some studies have found evidences about the consistency between cognitions and practices, whereas some others have indicated inconsistencies between the two concepts. While a great number of studies suggest a governing and influencing role of teachers' cognitions on teachers' actions (Johnson, 1992b, 1994; Richards, Gallo & Renendya, 2001;

Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Smith, 1996; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Tillema, 2000; Üstünel, 2008, Williams & Burden, 1997; Xu, 2012; Zheng, 2009), some other studies declare that such a relationship between cognition and practice is quite complex to understand (Tantani, 2012), because of these reasons: (a) teachers are not entirely oriented to one single approach (Borg, 1999; Hong, 2012); (b) teachers' different levels of knowledge are not always reflected in their classroom practices (Tantani, 2012) and (c) cognitive changes might not automatically lead to behavioural changes (Almarza, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001; Borg, 2006). In this line, Thompson (1992) clarifies this issue by suggesting that "the relationship between beliefs and practice is dialectic, not a simple cause-and-effect relationship" (p. 140).

1.1.3. Sources of Teacher Cognition

In view of the fact that understanding teacher cognition is of great importance to understanding teaching and teachers, it is equally critical to understand possible sources of teacher cognition to be able to understand teacher cognition. It is typical that "no single isolatable factor causes a decision to be made. Rather, the factors operate more like weights which are applied in favour of or against various possibilities and alternatives" (Woods, 1996, p. 129).

Teacher cognition reflects such a complex as well as a dynamic system that it cannot be solely explained through one or two sources that might shape or contribute to this system. Instead, a variety of factors happen to form, develop, or wipe cognitions of teachers (see Figure 1.1). As Borg (2003) illustrates, teacher cognition has bidirectional relationships with professional coursework and classroom practice while schooling and contextual factors have a direct influence on formation of teacher cognition. Hence, teachers' cognitions are constructed in diverse contexts through interactions with various elements in their environment.

Woods (1996) claims that language learning experiences, early teaching experiences and education courses potentially influence teachers' beliefs about and approaches to teaching. Likewise, Gabillon (2012) lists the factors contributing to belief formation and development as life experiences in society, prior schooling, professional education, and teaching experience. Experience, as attached importance,

ought to be discussed in terms of three phases: (a) early experiences in schooling, (b) experiences during teacher education, and (c) experiences derived from classroom practices. All these phases are discussed to be the major sources from which teacher cognitions are derived (M. Borg, 2001; S. Borg, 1998, 1999; 2003; Carter, 1990; Grossman, 1990; Johnson, 1994; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999; Peacock, 2001; Richardson, 1996; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001; Yook, 2010).

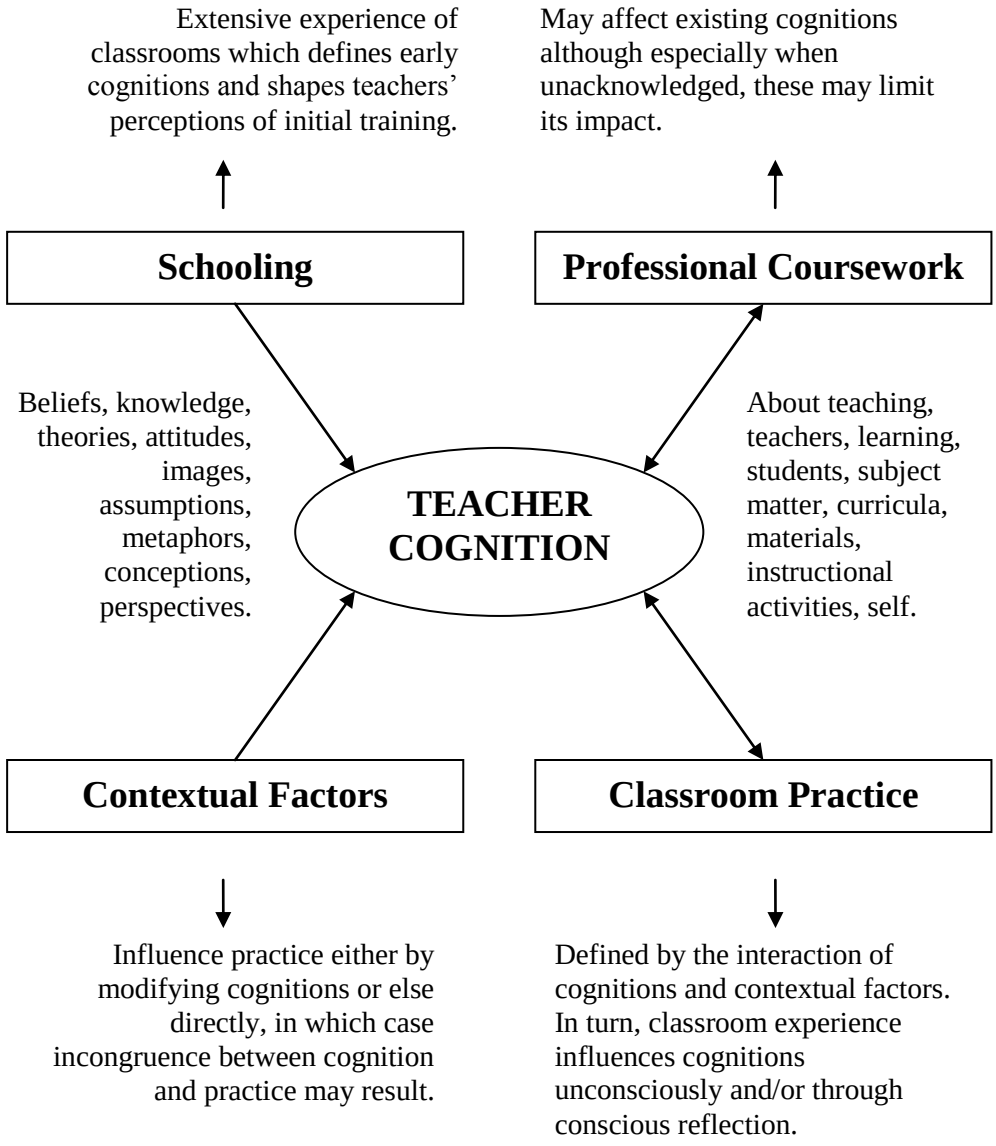

Figure 1.1 *Sources of Teacher Cognition (Borg's Illustration)*
(Borg 1997, cited in Borg, 2003, p. 82)

As for the first phase, experiences "often leave teachers with powerful images of what teaching should be like" (Yook, 2010, p. 6). As a concept, prior beliefs, which is thought to be constructed based on early learning experiences or observations during schooling before coming to the teacher education phase, have been emphasized in many papers (Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Almarza, 1996; Arıoğul, 2007; Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Attardo & Brown, 2005; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Carter, 1990; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Elbaz, 1981; 1983; Ellis, 2006; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Freeman, 1991; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Mattheoudakis; 2007; Numrich, 1996; Peacock, 2001; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Tillema, 1998, 2000; Vibulphol, 2004; Zhang, 2008). To exemplify, for EFL teachers' failure to implement communicative principles and practices in the classrooms in Hong Kong is discussed, by Pennington and Richards (1997), to be the result of the teachers' pre-existing schema for teaching rooted in their learning experiences in the Hong Kong school system. As another example, Abdullah-Sani (2000) highlights the influential power of teaching images (positive or negative) formed during schooling.

Secondly, many papers have focused on the potential impact of training programs, courses, or teaching practices during pre-service teacher education on teacher cognition (Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Almarza, 1996; Attardo & Brown, 2005; Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Borg, 1998, 2003; Burns & Knox, 2005; Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Guskey, 2002; Hobbs, 2007; Johnson, 1992, 1994, 1996; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Ng, Nicholas & Williams, 2009; Poynor, 2005; Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001; Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996; da Silva, 2005; Tercanlioglu, 2001; Tillema, 2000; Zhang, 2008). Combining the effect of the first two sources, Hayes (2005) concludes that language teachers' cognitive change and professional growth occur as the results of: (a) models of teaching inherited from their own teachers and (b) the role of peers as a learning resource during teacher education courses.

Finally, classroom experience is thought to contribute to formation of teacher cognition, as well (Borg, 2003; Farrell, 1999; Gatbonton, 2008; Yook, 2010). According to Eisentein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997), teachers' knowledge and

thought processes are mostly shaped by their students, syllabus expectations, and prior experiences and they might change over time as they interact with their students. Phipps and Borg (2009) claim that prescribed curriculum, time constraints, and high-stakes examinations might appear as intervening factors. Similarly, Tantani (2012) puts forward that teachers' decisions are influenced by their knowledge and awareness about the content, their training and development, their educational culture together with classroom size and learner variables. Likewise, contextual factors are emphasized in almost all the papers discussing the sources of teacher cognition (Borg, 2003; Fang, 1996a; Grisham, 2000; Grossman, 1990; Kavanoz, 2006; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999; Paiva, 2011; Pennington & Richards, 1997; Richards, Gallo & Renendya, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Spada & Massey, 1992; Tantani, 2012). Everything considered, all those sources interact with each other and contribute to the formation of teachers' cognitive development.

1.1.4. Importance of Teacher Cognition

Thinking processes of teachers are believed to guide and determine the behaviours of teachers (Peterson & Walberg, 1979). For this reason, any research on teaching is supposed to provide a base for more effective teacher education (Shavelson & Stern, 1981) and studying teacher beliefs is asserted to be "the clearest measure of a teacher's professional growth" (Kagan,1992, p. 85).

Richards (1998) argues that "a primary source of teachers' classroom practices is belief systems - the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom" (p. 66). On the basis of this assumption, research on teaching has put excessive emphasis on how teachers' cognition might strongly influence their instructional decision-making, judgments, and practices (Altan 2006; Bailey, 1996; Borg, 2003; Breen 1991; Breeen et al., 2001; Brown & McGannon 1998; Diab 2009; Fang, 1996a; Farrell & Kun, 2008; Harrington & Hertel 2000; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Kuzborska, 2011; Li, 2008; Li & Walsh, 2011; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Peacock 2001; Richards, 1998; Richards & Lockhart 1996; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Thompson, 1992; Smith, 1996;

Williams & Burden, 1997; Westwood, Knight, & Redden, 1997; Woods, 1996; Yang, 2000; Yim, 1993; Zheng 2009).

Under the light of the findings in such studies, the significance of teacher cognition within educational research could be summarized through several reasons: teacher cognition (1) provides a more complete account of teaching; (2) examines teaching by gaining insight into psychological context of instruction; (3) helps teachers become aware of the psychological bases of their classroom practice and understand their mental lives; (4) improves the quality of teachers' professional practice; and (5) provides a base for effective pre-service and in-service teacher education (Rakıcıoğlu, 2005). Its value for and role in teacher development is highlighted in many other papers (Richards, Gallo & Renendya, 2001; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001; Zheng, 2009). To illustrate, studying teacher cognition could be discussed to have two fundamental roles in teacher education from the perspective of constructivist theories. Firstly, student teachers bring previously constructed beliefs, understandings, and preconceptions that might influence what and how they learn during a teacher education program. Secondly, teacher education programs guide prospective teachers in developing belief systems and create changes (Richardson, 1996; Numrich 1996; Borg 2003). In this framework, Kuzborska (2011) emphasizes the importance of understanding the relationship between beliefs and practice for the improvement of teachers' professional preparation. In the same way, Breen (1991) notes that "by uncovering the kinds of knowledge and beliefs which teachers hold and how they express these through the meanings that they give to their work, we may come to know the most appropriate support we can provide in in-service development" (p. 232). As Richardson (1996) states, "the beliefs that practicing teachers hold about subject matter, learning, and teaching influence the way they approach staff development, what they learn from it, and how they change" (p. 105). To sum up, the importance of studying teacher cognition is linked to its guiding role in initial teacher education and further teacher development activities.

1.2. Problem Statement

Since the foundation of Turkish Republic, Turkey, as a country, has been seeking a place among the 'western' countries in terms of its welfare and stability,

and thus it has made numerous reformative attempts in the field of education as in all other fields. Undoubtedly, the two foremost areas of interest in education have been 'foreign language education' and 'teacher education'. In this framework, it has always been intended to educate generations as speakers of at least a foreign language and to educate effective teachers who are capable of dealing with those generations. This has put an excessive emphasis on the issues like preparing pre-service teachers of English in a well-organized way and guiding their in-service teaching and further development. Taking a reference from these priorities, both areas of interest are identified as the areas of investigation in the scope of this study.

Foreign language education has always been one of the most emphasized subjects in Turkey's educational policies, because it has become an urgent need and a field of expertise with contemporary scientific and technological developments. Almost on a daily basis, the quality and quantity of the programs regarding foreign language teaching in all levels of education (primary, secondary, and tertiary) as well as in informal paths are renewed in order to catch the latest developments. Nevertheless, Turkey has been far behind the European countries and even some of the Far Eastern countries in terms of English Language Proficiency (EFEPI Report, 2013). Despite strategic initiatives to foster foreign language teaching at earlier years in primary education and increase the number of foreign language class hours in K-12 levels, foreign language acquisition of individuals does not seem to be accomplished in primary or secondary education but is left mostly to tertiary education. This fact obligates higher education institutions to provide their students with one to two-year intensive foreign language teaching programs in order to have graduates as speakers of a foreign language and thus to become a leading voice of EFL teaching contexts in Turkey. Considering higher education institutions' being the only provider of intensive foreign language teaching programs among the formal education levels and EFL instructors' having the principal role in shaping foreign language proficiency of individuals, this study aims to shed light on teaching EFL in universities in Turkey.

All those attempts to increase foreign language proficiency among individuals are also reflected on various teacher education institutions' targets when training teachers of foreign languages. In theory, teachers are trained with a comprehensive

knowledge of methodology and pedagogy in language teaching. However, a complexity always appears in practice due to a number of reasons, some of which have been highlighted in the literature and some of which have not been explored yet. This assumption puts forwards the necessity of investigation of the sources or factors that influence cognitive and behavioural development of teachers, which is among the objectives of the current dissertation.

As another widely-accepted assumption, students' learning and development, being one of the most important outcomes of foreign language teaching, are primarily influenced by teachers' teaching styles. In the same way, teachers' teaching styles are expected to be influenced by their thinking styles. Considering this chain, teachers' conceptions of learning and teaching and the reflections of these conceptions on their attitudes and behaviours are vital to be inquired in educational research. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate both cognitive and behavioural aspects of language teaching from the practicing teachers' side. Besides, this study also aims to examine the patterns of relationships between cognitions and actions of the practicing teachers teaching EFL at higher education institutions in Turkey.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate EFL instructors' (a) language learning cognitions regarding linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners; and (b) language teaching actions taken in educational practices with respect to pedagogical inclinations, instructional planning, error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development. It also aims to describe the patterns of relationships that might naturally exist among these variables as well as to examine the sources that might have contributions to cognitive and behavioural development of teachers. This framework was drawn by the following research questions:

- What are the language learning cognitions of EFL instructors regarding linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners?

- Do those cognitions change according to certain variables such as: age, teaching experience, academic background, workplace, and national or international exam scores indicating language proficiency?
- What are the language teaching actions of EFL instructors regarding traditional (conservative) as well as innovative (liberal) pedagogies, communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development?
- Do those actions change according to certain variables such as: age, teaching experience, academic background, workplace, and national or international exam scores indicating language proficiency?
- What is the pattern of the relationship between the sets of language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of EFL instructors?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is rooted in the doctrines of an important field of study, psychology. To illustrate more specifically, cognitive psychology deals with how knowledge and beliefs exert a strong influence on human action and draws attention to the influence of thinking on behaviour. Therefore, understanding teachers requires understanding teachers' mental lives (Borg, 2006). As Allen (2002) proposes, there are three basic reasons for studying teacher cognition: (1) examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom actions can inform educational practices; (2) if teacher education is to have an impact on how prospective teachers will teach, it must engage participants in examining their beliefs; (3) attempts to implement new classroom practices without considering teachers' beliefs can lead to disappointing results (p. 519). Considering these propositions, teacher cognition is supposed to be given due consideration in educational research.

Since teacher cognitions are crucial prompts of and important incentives for educational practices, with the help of this research it will become easier to understand what goes on in the classroom, how teachers view their work, how their cognitions guide or govern their actions, in what ways they teach, why they teach in the ways they do, how they would adopt a new technique, how they would

implement an innovation, how they would react to policies, how educational reforms would be accepted/implemented by them, and so on. As tertiary level EFL teaching is the only setting that provides one to two-year intensive programs and EFL instructors are the principal players in foreign language teaching in Turkey, exploring their cognitions and actions will provide a better understanding of the status of EFL teaching in Turkish context. This awareness will certainly inform and guide possible innovations and educational policies, because this study has the potential to become a focus for initial teacher education and a reflection for ongoing teacher development.

The final value of this study is related with the limited research conducted on practicing EFL teachers' cognition in Turkey. Numerous papers or reports about EFL/ESL teachers' cognitions have been published around the world with the aim of exploring teachers' way of thinking about language learning and teaching; however, such studies are quite limited in Turkish context. The majority of the studies in Turkey are being conducted in pre-service years with student teachers, and most of the time those studies are being done in a single institution. The studies carried out on in-service teachers' cognitions are limited both in number and scope, not only because of the focus of the studies but also due to the sample size included in the research. Considering these limitations, this study aims to reach a broader picture with a large group of participants representing different institutions and a more comprehensive theme about language learning and teaching.

With the help of the collected data, currently-practicing EFL instructors' way of thinking, knowing, believing, and acting in relation to language learning and teaching processes could be interpreted, and this could provide invaluable insights about the current status and educational practices in the field of foreign language teaching in Turkey. Those insights will undeniably lead all kinds of planning for and implementation of teacher development activities for EFL teachers in both pre-service and in-service years.

1.5. Definitions of Terms

Definitions of the key terms relevant to this are listed below:

- **Action:** The process of carrying out a task in order to make something happen or deal with a situation.
- **Cognition:** The process by which knowledge, belief, thought, and understanding are developed in the mind.
- **Competence-oriented Approach:** The approach seeing the language as a system of linguistic elements and the target of learning by giving more emphasis to knowing something about the language.
- **Error Correction:** The process of detecting errors in written or spoken messages and reconstructing or helping to reconstruct the error-free messages.
- **Executive Learners:** The learners who do a piece of work, perform a duty, or put a plan into action by following the given instructions.
- **Formal (Created) Context:** The school/classroom environment, which is institutionally and consciously created and where learning is a major goal.
- **Induction Years:** The adaptation period newly-graduated teachers go through in order to become a qualified teacher.
- **Informal (Natural) Context:** The physical/social environment that naturally exists around individuals and where learning might occur, but not necessarily as a primary goal.
- **Innatist Perspective:** The philosophical doctrine asserting that the mind, rather than a blank slate, is born with ideas/knowledge and not all knowledge is obtained from experience and the senses.
- **Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy:** The enriched, cultivated, or modernized patterns of thoughts and practices about teaching that include new, creative, and free ideas and methods.
- **In-service Years:** The teaching period practicing teachers go through after they are recruited as qualified teachers until their retirement.
- **Instructional Planning:** The preparation process teachers are involved in to meet the individual needs of the classroom members they teach to.
- **Interactionist Perspective:** The sociological doctrine asserting that ideas/knowledge takes on shape and meaning through countless interactions between the learner and the environment.

- **Judicial Learners:** The learners who are able to make analyses, comparisons, evaluations, and judgments on everyday situations using a repertoire of their personal-practical knowledge.
- **Language Learning Cognitions:** Unobservable cognitive dimensions of individuals in relation to what they think of, believe in, know about and understand from language learning.
- **Priorities in Language Learning:** The areas/skills that are attached importance to and believed to be dealt with first in a language learning process.
- **Language Teaching Actions:** Language teaching practices routinely performed by language teachers as a result of their gains from prior learning, pre-service and in-service trainings, and in-class teaching experiences.
- **Learner-centeredness:** Teachers' attempts to adjust their instructional planning, teaching methods, and assessment procedures to certain norms in order to optimize their students' opportunity to learn.
- **Legislative Learners:** The learners who use their power to make plans or initiate changes in plans and applications.
- **Linguistic Aptitude:** The potential that a person, relative to other individuals, has for learning a language more easily.
- **Novice Teachers:** The newly-graduated teachers going through a job adaptation process to become a qualified teacher.
- **Pedagogical Inclinations:** Teachers' educational tendencies rooted in their philosophical orientations and theories regarding learning and teaching.
- **Performance-oriented Approach:** The approach seeing the language as a system of communicative elements and as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations by placing more emphasis on doing something with the language.
- **Personal and Professional Development:** All types of attempts that teachers make in order to reach their fullest potential in teaching profession and personal growth.

- **Pre-service Years:** The training period that prospective teachers spend in undergraduate study in order to be prepared for teaching profession.
- **Student Teachers:** The candidate teachers being trained in colleges to get the necessary knowledge and skills in relation to teaching profession.
- **Teacher Action:** The term representing the tasks that teachers routinely do, execute, carry out, and perform when planning, implementing, and evaluating their teaching.
- **Teacher Beliefs:** The understandings, premises, principles, philosophies, or propositions that teachers accept as true in relation to teaching.
- **Teacher Cognition:** The term representing what teachers think of, believe in, know about and understand from a certain concept (language learning and teaching in this case).
- **Teacher Knowledge:** The information, understandings, skills, and expertise the teachers gain through pre-service education, in-service training, and classroom practice.
- **Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy:** The inherited, established, or customary patterns of thoughts and practices about teaching that have been used by previous people for a long time.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides an outline of the origins and growth of educational research on teacher cognition by presenting a historical overview of the issue together with a conceptual basis, key perspectives, and primary themes emerging from empirical studies. This review is presented under the following headings: (1) Introduction, which provides a brief information about the concepts; (2) Research on Teacher Cognition, which describes the historical growth of research and the literature on teacher cognition; (3) Research on Language Teacher Cognition, which addresses the research on the field of language teaching through three phases such as pre-service, novice, and in-service years; (4) Last Decade's International Research on EFL/ESL Teachers' Cognitions, which presents a critical analysis of the last ten years' research on cognitions about EFL/ESL teaching through 77 international studies; (5) Studies on EFL Teachers' Cognitions in Turkish Context, which reviews 30 studies conducted in Turkey with a reference to pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' cognitive processes; and (6) Summary of the Literature Review.

2.1. Introduction

In the past forty years, there has been a growing interest in research on teacher cognition, which encompasses what teachers think, know, and believe as well as its relationship to educational practices. Following the trend and the needs, a range of research has also been carried out in the last three decades in order to investigate what language teachers think, know, believe and do when teaching a language.

However, more emphasis was given to 'belief' component, which resulted in an immense amount of educational research with respect to 'study of teacher belief'.

The connection between teacher belief and educational practices were emphasized in many studies (Ali & Ammar, 2005; Breen, 1991; Burns, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996a; Johnson, 1992b, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Smith, 1996; Thompson, 1992). Abundant indications were derived from the literature on teachers' beliefs, which might: (a) be strongly influenced by teachers' own experiences as learners (Holt Reynolds, 1992); (b) overshadow the effects of teacher education programs on what teachers do in the classroom (Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996); (c) instil a long-lasting influence on teachers' instructional practices (Crawley & Salyer, 1995); (d) not always be reflected on what teachers do in the classroom (Dobson & Dobson, 1983; Pearson, 1985; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1986); (e) interact bi-directionally with experience (Richardson, 1996); (f) have a powerful effect on teachers' pedagogical decisions (Johnson, 1994); and strongly influence what and how teachers learn during their teacher education (Freeman & Richards, 1996).

Similar to suppositions listed above, Johnson's (1994) assumptions about the research on teachers' beliefs were summarized as:

> teachers' beliefs influence both perception and judgment which, in turn, affects what teachers say and do in classrooms; (2) teachers' beliefs play a critical role in how teachers learn to teach, that is, how they interpret new information about learning and teaching and how that information is translated into classroom practices; and (3) understanding teachers' beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programs (p. 439).

In the light of all the assumptions and clarifications mentioned so far, study of teacher belief has taken an important place in educational research on teacher cognition. However, research on teacher cognition cannot be limited only to the study of teacher belief, because teacher cognition was defined as "unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" by S. Borg (2003, p. 81), and it was attributed to possess complex (M. Borg, 2005; Gabillon, 2012; Grisham, 2010; Tantani, 2012; Wallestad, 2009), changeable (Flores, 2001; Gabillon, 2012; Johnson & Goettsch, 2000; Thompson, 1992); and influential (Burns, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Simith, 1996; Yook, 2010; Zheng, 2009) features.

2.2. Research on Teacher Cognition

Regarding the cognitive basis of teaching, study of teacher cognition and its impact on educational practices started to emerge four decades ago. As an important step under the standpoint of teacher thinking, Clark and Yinger (1977) identified cognitive perspectives as: planning, judgment, decision-making, and implicit theories of teachers. At the beginning of 1980s, Shavelson and Stern (1981) presented a review on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgments, and decisions by claiming that a behavioural focus on teaching without considering teachers' cognitions is incomplete. As they suggested a distinction between knowledge and beliefs, if knowledge is not available, teachers rely on beliefs to guide them. Later in 1983, ISATT (the International Study of Association on Teacher Thinking) was founded, which contributed to the surge of interest in research on teacher cognition (Borg, 2006).

Practical knowledge, as a concept covering the kind of knowledge teachers hold and use, emerged in the case study of Elbaz (1983), who affirmed that teachers' instructional practices are guided by their feelings, values, needs, beliefs, experiences, theoretical knowledge, and folklore. Similar to other assumptions of the time, Halkes and Olson (1984) stated, "what's in the mind of teachers could explain classroom processes in one way or another" (p.1).

> The ultimate goal of research on teachers' thought processes is to construct a portrayal of cognitive psychology of teaching for use by educational theorists, researchers, policymakers, curriculum designers, teacher educators, school administrators, and by teachers themselves (Clark & Peterson, 1986, p. 255).

In the second half of 1980s, Clark and Peterson (1986) categorized their review on teacher thinking around the following dimensions: teacher planning; teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions; and teachers' theories and beliefs. According to them, the interaction between teacher thoughts and teacher behaviours are crucial, because "the process of teaching will be fully understood only when these two domains (thought and behaviours) are brought together and examined in relation to one another" (p. 258).

Clandinin and Connelly (1986) focused on the construct of personal practical knowledge, which was portrayed mostly through personal philosophies and metaphors. Accordingly, a teacher's personal philosophy was discussed to cover

beliefs and values derived from experience and form a unity among beliefs, values, and actions. Metaphors, similarly, was said to reflect teachers' way of thinking and acting about teaching. Later, they defined personal practical knowledge as a "moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987, p. 59). This definition underlined dialectical, situated, and dynamic sides of teachers' knowledge, which could be reconstructed and reshaped through a constant interaction with experiences. For them, teacher beliefs and teacher knowledge were included in the concept of personal practical knowledge, which stands for how a teacher understands a classroom situation. However, Nespor (1987) preferred to make a distinction between belief and knowledge and provided four features of beliefs in order to be distinguished from knowledge: (a) *existential presumption*, which refers to personal truth about learners and learning; (b) *alternativity*, which refers to conceptualizations of ideal situations differing significantly from present realities; (c) *affective and evaluative loading*, which makes beliefs be expressed in the form of feelings, moods, and subjective evaluations and personal preferences; and (d) episodic structure, which is based on particular, well-remembered events.

According to Thompson (1992), it is unnecessary to make a distinction between beliefs and knowledge particularly in definitions, because what is more critical is to realize how these concepts affect what teachers do. Similarly, Kagan (1992) used the terms 'beliefs' and 'knowledge' interchangeably when analyzing methodological issues. Pajares (1992) put forward the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs because of definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings about beliefs and belief structures and therefore examined the meaning given to beliefs by various influential researchers. It was further clarified that teachers' beliefs have a greater influence than teachers' knowledge on their decision-making, planning, classroom implementations, and attitude towards students. Fenstermacher (1994) focused on teacher cognition from an epistemological perspective and used the concept of teacher knowledge as a classifying term grouping other constructs like beliefs and conceptions under it.

Exploring the teachers' thinking, Calderhead (1987) worked on three major themes: the nature of teachers' professional knowledge; the ways knowledge is used

in teaching; and the role of teachers' thinking and knowledge in the process of educational change. In his another work, Calderhead (1988) highlighted the connection between the study of teacher cognition and the process of teacher education.

At the beginning of 1990s, Carter (1990) focused on what teachers know and how that knowledge is gained. To answer this question, three concepts were arranged under teacher knowledge: (a) information processing; (b) practical knowledge; and (c) pedagogical content knowledge. According to Carter, teachers' practical knowledge is "shaped by a professional's personal history, which includes intentions and purposes, as well as the cumulative effects of life experience" (p. 300).

Ball and McDiarmid (1990) dealt with research on subject-matter knowledge and subject-matter preparation of teachers. Subsequently, subject-specific teacher cognition research emerged. Many studies were carried out to explore teacher cognition regarding science and science teaching (Adams & Krockover, 1997; Aguirre, Haggerty, & Linder, 1990; Brickhouse, 1990; Briscoe, 1991; Hashweh, 1996; Pomeroy, 1993; Smith & Neale, 1991) or mathematics (Shuck 1997; Raymond, 1997; Thompson, 1992). In the same vein, Fennema and Franke (1992) examined research on teacher knowledge in mathematics education, and Swafford et al. (1997) studied in-service teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge of geometry. On the other hand, Grimmett and Mackinnon (1992) drew attention to teachers' craft knowledge while Borko and Putman (1996) and Carter and Doyle (1996) established their study around the concept of 'learning to teach.'

Two landmark publications in the second half of the 1990s were (a) Richardson's (1996) work in *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*, which focused on the roles of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach and (b) Calderhead's (1996) work in *Handbook of Educational Psychology*, which examined research on teachers' beliefs and knowledge. Richardson (1996) noted that students might bring beliefs to teacher education programs, which are personal experience, school experience, and experience with formal knowledge, and therefore they might affect their learning to teach. At the same time, changes in students' beliefs as an effect of teacher education programs were addressed. Calderhead (1996) classified the domains in teacher cognition as: decision-making; perceptions and evaluations; and

knowledge and beliefs. Under the concept of teacher knowledge, the following sub-categories appeared: subject knowledge, craft knowledge, personal practical knowledge, case knowledge, theoretical knowledge, metaphors, and images. Under the concept of teacher belief, the following sub-categories appeared: beliefs about learners and learning, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about subject, beliefs about learning to teach, and beliefs about self and the teaching role. Richards and Lockhart (1996) declared that "teachers' belief systems are founded on the goals, values, and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it" (p. 30).

As an important milestone, Woods (1996) published the book titled *Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching: Beliefs, Decision-making and Classroom Practice,* through which the term BAK representing a hypothetical concept of an integrated network of beliefs, assumptions and knowledge was introduced and discussed extensively. As indicated in the book, knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs do not refer to distinct concepts, but to "points on a spectrum of meaning", and so "they may overlap with each other" (p. 195). Accordingly, the term knowledge refers to what teachers know, in other words conventionally accepted facts that have been and could be demonstrated. The term assumption, on the other hand, represents the temporary acceptance of a fact that has not been demonstrated before but taken as true for the time being. The term belief is an acceptance of a proposition which does not reflect conventional and demonstrable knowledge, but might have an accepted disagreement.

Borg (1998), in his qualitative study, focused on the term 'teachers' personal pedagogical systems', which cover stores of beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes, as well as its key role in shaping teachers' instructional decisions. He also highlighted the importance of studying the factors that influenced the development and application of personal pedagogical systems. Later, he used the tern 'teachers' cognition' as a sum of "the beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes that teachers hold on all aspects of their work" (Borg, 1999, p. 95). Wenden (1999), on the other hand, defined beliefs as a subset of meta-cognitive knowledge by suggesting that "beliefs are distinct from meta-cognitive knowledge in that they are value-related and tend to be held more tenaciously" (p. 436). Meijer,

Verloop and Beijaard (1999) listed the characteristics of teachers' practical knowledge as: personal and unique; contextual and adapted to classroom situation; based on and developing through experience; tacit; guiding for practice; content-related and connected with subject; and resulting from professional activity. Accordingly, they put forward three types of practical knowledge: subject-matter knowledge, student knowledge, and knowledge of student learning and understanding.

Research interest in study of teacher cognition in the 2nd millennium has also continued and increased. Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001) attached importance to studying teacher cognition for educational innovations, because "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (446). In the light of this perspective, they claimed that teacher knowledge was both strongly related to individual experiences and contexts and also shared by large groups of teachers teaching at a certain level. Therefore, understanding of teacher knowledge might be useful to improve teacher education and to make educational innovations more effective.

A comprehensive review of 64 studies conducted on teacher cognition between the years 1970 and 2002 was provided by Borg (2003). He discussed different teacher belief terminologies and conceptualized teacher cognition as the central schema which plays a critical role in teachers' lives. The concept of teacher cognition was addressed through its connection with prior learning experience, teacher education and classroom practice. As he redefined, teachers' cognition represents "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). With Borg (2006), language teacher cognition research has become an established domain of inquiry in language teaching research, and his book titled *Teacher Cognition and Language Education: Research and Practice* has taken a fundamental role specifically in leading the research on EFL and ESL contexts.

As a recent review, Zheng (2009) provided a summary of empirical research on EFL pre-service teachers' beliefs and practices in 1990s and 2000s through a discussion about the concept of belief and an overview of the research history on teacher belief. Accordingly, the concept of 'belief' was described to be "a subset of a

group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions" (p. 74).

2.3. Research on Language Teacher Cognition

As the research on language teacher cognition started to appear mostly in 1990s, this part of the review presents the studies that were conducted from 1990 till 2003. Under the light of this review, the literature on teacher cognition regarding the field of language teaching clustered around the following themes: (a) student teachers' cognition and pre-service years, (b) novice teachers' cognition and induction years, and (c) practicing teachers' cognition and in-service years. Even though a considerable amount of research was conducted with regard to each theme, the studies concerning practicing teachers in in-service years outnumbered the two other themes.

2.3.1. Teacher Cognition and Pre-service Years

Teacher cognition in the context of pre-service teacher education was the main focus of the majority of the studies in the field of language teaching. Many researchers intended to understand and describe the cognitions of pre-service language teachers, while some other papers focused on the cognitive development of student teachers as an impact of their teacher education programs. On the other hand, a considerable number of researches, adopting a constructivist perspective, attached importance to "prior beliefs" that student teachers bring to their pre-service education.

> The process of professional development is one in which new information and new experiences lead student teachers to add to, reflect upon and restructure their ideas in a progressive, complex and non-linear way, leading towards clearer organization of their personal theories into thematically distinct clusters of ideas (Sendan & Roberts, 1998, p. 241).

To start with the first group of studies, Johnson (1992a) investigated pre-service teachers' instructional decisions and actions and the primary basis behind these decisions. Wray (1993) studied prospective language teachers' knowledge and beliefs about language in the UK and concluded that "the level of grammatical knowledge of student teachers was not particularly high" (p. 55). Johnson (1994)

aimed to deduce pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching and language teachers from their narratives and to examine how these beliefs shaped the participants' instructional practices. Williamson and Hardman's (1995) focus was the KAL (knowledge about language) of trainee teachers, and they discovered gaps in the participants' knowledge about grammar together with misconceptions about the language. Johnson (1996) explored pre-service teachers' perceptions on their initial teaching experiences and discovered some tensions and uncertainty. Numrich (1996) examined the diaries kept by prospective teachers during their practicum about common themes regarding language teaching and learning as well as their perceptions of their needs. Brown and McGannon (1998) elicited language acquisition beliefs of prospective teachers and their perceptions on the role of teachers. Linek et al. (1999) worked on pre-service teachers' beliefs on literacy teaching across different types of programs and observed changes in their beliefs about literacy, literacy instruction and assessment. Farrell (2001) investigated the socializing process of a pre-service teacher during a practicum via perceptions. Warford and Reeves (2003) analyzed the metaphors of trainees about language teaching. Maloch et al. (2003) elicited prospective teachers' beliefs about how best to teach reading.

Beside all these papers exploring or eliciting teachers' cognitions on certain concepts or themes, some other studies intended to investigate the changes in the cognitions as a result of teacher education programs. Pre-service teachers in teacher education programs were mostly thought to be in the process of developing their pedagogical beliefs and practices (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010). As student teachers were equipped with professional and pedagogical knowledge during their teacher education programs, this knowledge would assist them in adjusting their prior beliefs and employing their teaching approaches (Hall, 2005).

To see how teacher education or training programs and courses of teaching practices play a role to establish or change cognitions of prospective teachers, Almarza (1996); Arıoğul (2007); Brown and McGannon (1998); Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000); Florio-Ruane and Lensmire (1990); Gomez (1990); Grisham (2000); Johnson (1994); Maloch et al. (2003); Mattheoudakis (2007); Peacock (2001); and Yook (2010) studied pre-service teachers' development during or as a result of their

teacher education programs. As Gomez (1990) concluded, "a set of interrelated features of the school context and features of the teacher education program combined to alter or challenge the teachers' beliefs" (p. 19).

In relation to the impact of teacher education on what teachers believe, know, think, and do, Florio-Ruane and Lensmire (1990); Hobbs (2007); Kagan (1992); Kunt and Özdemir (2010); Nettle (1998); Peacock (2001), Pennington and Urmston (1998), Richardson (1996); Richards and Pennington (1998); Urmston (2003), and Weinstein (1990) claimed that teacher education exhibited a limited or weak impact on the cognitions of pre-service teachers. Specifically, Peacock (2001), when studying second language learning beliefs of pre-service EFL teachers, did not find any evidence of the idea that "trainees' beliefs are shaped by their pre-service methodology courses" (p. 187).

On the other hand, Abduallah-Sani (2000); Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000); Chambless and Bass (1996); Flores (2002); Kettle and Sellars (1996); Kunt and Özdemir (2010); MacDonald, Badger and White (2001), Maloch et al. (2003); Ng, Nicholas and Williams (2009); Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996); Sendan and Roberts (1998); da Silva (2005); and Tüzel and Akcan (2009) pointed out the powerful influence of training programs or courses on trainee teachers' beliefs and knowledge. To justify the positive impact of training programs on prospective teachers' cognitions, Chambless and Bass (1996) revealed positive changes in the trainees' attitudes towards teaching writing as a result of a formal instruction in process writing. Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) revealed changes in cognitions regarding: conceptions of teacher role in the classroom, knowledge of professional discourse, concerns for achieving continuity in lessons, problematic dimensions of teaching, and manner to evaluate their own teaching. Almarza (1996), in a ten-month longitudinal study, investigated cognitive and behavioural changes that programs may exert and concluded that behavioural changes were fully reflected by candidates while cognitive changes were partially. Grisham (2000), when studying pre-service teachers' conceptions about reading instruction during their teacher education program, found evidence of the influence of the program, because the participants' ratings tended to be more constructivist as the program progressed.

In addition, a number of studies focused on the cognitions brought from prior learning experiences to teacher education programs by student teachers and the impact of those cognitions on their understandings of and practices in language teaching. From the perspectives of constructivist theories of learning, "the student-teacher is a learner who is actively constructing views of teaching and learning based on personal experiences strongly shaped by perceptions held before entering the program" (Loughran & Russell, 1997, pp. 165-166). Therefore, it is probable that prospective teachers hold inappropriate or unrealistic perceptions on teaching and learning (Brookhart & Freeman, 1992) and previously-constructed beliefs about language learning and teaching (Brown & McGannon, 1998; Urmston, 2003). Sometimes those beliefs are so deeply-rooted that they remain unchanged (Powell, 1992; Tatto, 1998; Wubbels, 1992). As Pajares (1992) claimed, "unexplored entering beliefs may be responsible for the perpetuation of antiquated and ineffectual teaching practices" (p. 328). In the same line, Borg (2006) stated that "prospective teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualization of second language teaching during teacher education" (p. 54).

Taking reference from the assumptions mentioned above, some similar studies focused on prior learning histories of the student teachers. For instance, Johnson (1994) discovered that student teachers' instructional decisions on materials, activities, and classroom organization were rooted in their own experiences as language learners, and observed, in the narratives of the pre-service teachers, the power of the 'teaching image' coming from prior experiences within formal language classrooms. Numrich (1996) drew attention to how prior experiences relate to classroom practices of pre-service teachers and found that student teachers avoid some instructional strategies on account of their negative experiences as learners. Similarly, Bailey et al. (1996) investigated the role of language learning histories of student teachers in establishing their language teaching approaches and practices. Williams and Burden (1997) emphasized the importance of previous experiences and deep-rooted beliefs about language learning when constructing beliefs and claimed that they might be more influential on classroom performances than a particular methodology learnt in a teacher education program. In relation to the power of prior

beliefs that student teachers hold tacitly, Richards (1998) suggested that those beliefs "often serve as a lens through which they view both the content of the teacher development program and their language teacher experiences" (p. 71). In Farrell's (1999) study in Singapore, pre-service EFL teachers' views about teaching grammar were investigated to see their adoption of different approaches and the reasons behind those views. It was seen that their views about grammar instruction was mainly influenced by the participants' own language learning experiences, as the ones trained through a certain approach were inclined to that approach.

Other additional confirmations about the fact that the prior learning experiences shape teachers' beliefs of teaching were presented in the studies of Almarza (1996); Arıoğul (2007); Bailey et al. (1996); M. Borg, (2005); Erkmen (2010); Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010); Farrell (2006b); Pennington and Urmston (1998); Richards and Pennington (1998); Urmston (2003); Warford and Reeves (2003); and Yook (2010). As Gupta (2004) claimed, it is complicated to alter trainees' prior beliefs in language education and well-developed theories of teaching and learning, as they spend several years observing teachers and practicing language. El-Okda (2005) asserted that such pre-existing beliefs brought to methodology courses by student teachers might be conflicting as well as culture-specific. Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) further elaborated that student teachers come into teacher education programs with a set of beliefs about teaching, which stem from previous educational experiences.

2.3.2. Teacher Cognition and Induction Years

When studies on novice teachers' cognitions were examined, it was seen that they occurred frequently under the following themes: (a) novice teachers' cognitions and practices in relation to various concepts of language teaching, and (b) comparison between novice and experienced teachers' cognitions and practices.

In relation to the first theme, Spada and Massey (1992) studied whether novice teachers' knowledge obtained in methodology courses during pre-service years could be transferred to their classroom practices and concluded that a certain transfer was not ensured due to contextual factors. Pennington and Richards (1997) and Richards and Pennington (1998) also highlighted the influence of contextual factors in their

studies. The factors emerging in those two studies were listed as large classes, unmotivated students, examination procedures, syllabus, and pressure from experienced teachers, students' limited language proficiency, and students' resistance to new ways of learning and heavy workloads. In a different context, Abdullah-Sani (2000) investigated Malaysian novice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning in a longitudinal study, which was conducted initially when the participants were student teachers and finally in their first year of teaching. As concluded in the study, prior learning and training experiences helped student teachers form and develop beliefs that guided them in their novice years. In Cajkler and Hislam's (2002) study on teacher knowledge, ten novice teachers' grammatical knowledge was examined and it was found that none of the participants felt that their knowledge was broad enough for their teaching. Farrell (2003) also put forward a negative induction process and reality shock of an EFL novice teacher, whose early socialization and cognition development were the foci of the study.

Regarding the second group, the studies comparing cognitions and practices of more and less experienced language teachers, Cumming (1990) explored the decision-making processes of novice and experienced language teachers when grading written compositions and found statistically significant differences with respect to developing criteria for organization and content, responding to language errors, and evaluating the quality of the works. In the matter of teachers' interactive decisions, Nunan (1992) worked with English language teachers and asserted that the decisions belonging to experienced teachers revealed greater attention to language issues and content; whereas those of less experienced teachers were more to the classroom management issues. Mok (1994) examined the journal entries, practicum reports, and interview data of English language teachers by focusing on the participants' reflections on their work. The concerns were classified under the themes of self-concept, attitudes, teaching strategies, materials, and expectations. Even though inexperienced teachers declared a broader range of issues, there was not a significant difference in the quantity of their reflections.

According to Richards' (1998) research, which focused on English language teachers' pre-active and interactive decisions, experienced teachers had more improvisational teaching than inexperienced teachers, because "as teachers develop

their teaching skills, they are able to draw less on pre-active decision-making and make greater use of interactive decision-making as a source of their improvisational performance" (pp. 117-118). Richards, Li and Tang (1998) conducted their study, in Hong Kong, with the aim of comparing instructional planning approaches of novice and experienced teachers having on average a five-year experience. It was found that novice teachers were less efficient in: (a) considering the subject matter from the perspective of learners; (b) reflecting a deep understanding of the subject matter; (c) knowing how to present subject matter; and (d) knowing how to integrate language learning with broader curricular goals.

Johnson (2003) aimed to see how novices and experts design language-teaching tasks in his study with language teachers in the UK. A number of ways in which more or less experienced and expert teachers' cognitions differ in designing tasks were found in the study. Similarly, Tsui (2003), in a case study of English language teachers in Hong Kong, detected several differences between the experienced and novice teachers. For instance, an experienced language teacher had 'rich and integrated knowledge' of the language, language teaching, language learning, how to organize learning, other curricula, and students' interests. Unlike experienced teachers, novice teachers were found to lack 'schema' or a 'repertoire' of pedagogical routines such as how to deal with unexpected events occurring in the classroom.

Likewise, some other studies indicated that experienced and inexperienced teachers might differ in their practices even though they might reflect similar beliefs or knowledge about teaching and learning (Akyel, 1997; Osam & Balbay, 2004; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü 2009; Tantani, 2012; Tsui, 2003; Westerman, 1991).

2.3.3. Teacher Cognition and In-service Years

A range of foci have been identified when analyzing studies done with in-service language teachers. Most of the research conducted in the context of in-service teaching intended to explore teachers' cognitions pertaining to either general pedagogy of language learning and teaching or a certain concept such as teaching a specific language area or skill. While some studies focused on what in-service language teachers believe, think, know, and do by investigating cognitions together

with reported or observed practices, some others examined teachers' cognitions compared to their learners' beliefs.

2.3.3.1. Cognitions on General Pedagogical Issues

A great number of studies investigated general pedagogy of language teachers such as pedagogical knowledge, teaching approaches, methodological orientations, implicit theories, or beliefs in certain dimensions of language teaching. To start with, Wolf and Riordan (1991) studied foreign language teachers' instructional approaches towards curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices, and Breen (1991) studied implicit theories of experienced language teachers in the UK in order to find the sources of certain techniques and procedures used in the classroom. Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992) examined beliefs and reported practices of English teachers in Hong Kong and concluded that there were relationships among teachers' goals, values and beliefs and their teaching experiences, training and reported approach to language teaching.

Johnson's (1992b) focus was on ESL teachers' cognitions and practices about methodological approaches towards language teaching, in particular skill-based, rule-based and function-based divisions. Most of the participants were inclined to a clearly defined theoretical approach, and the most commonly reflected one was a function-based orientation. Another significant finding was related to the relationship between teaching experience and theoretical beliefs, as the less experienced teachers reflected a recent methodological approach than the more experienced ones did.

Burns (1996) explored English language teachers' theories and practices in a classroom of beginning adult language learners in Australia. The study put forward that organizational necessities and institutional context had an influence on the teachers' decisions about lesson planning and content. Richards (1996) investigated the nature and role of the teachers' maxims (representing personal working principles and philosophies) of English language teachers in Hong Kong by analyzing teacher narratives about their work and concluded that teachers' instructional decisions and pedagogical choices were related to their personal working principles.

As for instructional planning and implementation, Ulichny (1996) conducted a case study of the practice of an English language teacher in the USA with respect to

teaching principles in mind and actual lesson flow. Accordingly, the lesson practice of the teacher was far from what the teacher had planned in advance due to unexpected difficulties. In another research conducted with English language teachers in Canada by Smith (1996), the relationship between teachers' beliefs, instructional decisions, and contextual factors was investigated. This study highlighted the distinction between planned and unplanned interactive decisions and claimed that unexpected decisions were caused by student factors or teacher factors. In the same vein, Bailey (1996) studied the teachers' departures from their plans and found that teachers' in-class activities departed from their pre-teaching planning. Such a divergence was claimed to be controlled by some principles such as serving the common good, teaching to the moment, furthering the lesson, accommodating students' learning styles, promoting students' involvement, and distributing the wealth.

Kim (1997) surveyed Korean in-service EFL teachers' beliefs about effective teaching and discovered that teachers were inclined to working with small groups formed based on their proficiency levels. Park, An, and Ha (1997) explored the beliefs of kindergarten EFL teachers on EEL (Early English Learning) policy, which highlights the importance of teaching English at an early age to young learners in primary schools or kindergartens in Korea. Although most of the participants favoured EEL policy, disfavouring participants highlighted the lack of appropriate textbooks, materials and qualified teachers. In another study in Korea, Son and Lee (2003) investigated 270 secondary school EFL teachers' beliefs about the TEE (Teaching English in English) policy and discovered that negative orientations towards the TEE policy resulted from: (a) teachers' low proficiency in English, (b) insufficient training, and (c) teachers' disbeliefs in the benefits of the policy. Chiba and Matsuura (1998) compared the differences in native and non-native EFL teachers' ideas about course objectives, teaching styles, materials, use of mother tongue in the classroom, and cultural concerns in Japan and discovered some differences between the two groups' teaching styles.

In relation to the concept of pedagogical knowledge, which was mostly defined to be the thought processes about teaching and learning, Gatbonton (1999) worked with ESL teachers in the USA. The most frequent concern in teachers' pedagogical

thoughts was related to language management such as how to explain vocabulary, how to create contexts for meaningful use, how to deal with the language students hear and produce, and so on. Additionally, thoughts about promoting smooth transition between activities and assessing student participation in the classroom were among the other concerns of the participants. Golombek (1998) studied the characteristics of the personal practical knowledge of ESL teachers and analyzed how this knowledge informed their practice. It was put forward that personal practical knowledge guides teachers' sense-making processes; filters experience so that teachers reconstruct it and respond to a teaching situation; gives physical form to practice; and is used in response to a particular context. Bartels (1999) looked into the types of knowledge that EFL teachers in Germany use in their instructional practices and listed them as: knowledge of instructed second language learning; knowledge of students' inter-language; and knowledge of curriculum and materials. Johnston and Goettsch's (2000) study also focused on teacher knowledge, in particular the following three categories: teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, content knowledge, and knowledge of learners, which were discussed to be dynamic in nature.

Breen et al. (2001), with the aim of investigating the relationships between cognition and practice in language teaching, elicited principles of 18 English language teachers in Australia and observed their practice. They drew attention to collective cognitions and practices by claiming that teachers working in a similar context are likely to adopt some common principles through diverse practices.

Flores (2001) surveyed the beliefs of 176 bilingual educators and discovered the dynamic feature of the beliefs as they were never static. The importance of language and culture in the acquisition of knowledge was reflected in the beliefs of the participants. Allen (2002) examined the beliefs of 613 foreign language teachers in the USA on the basis of the principles included in the national standards for foreign language instruction and found that teachers' beliefs were generally consistent with the standards employed.

Some studies focused on teacher cognition in terms of language teachers' beliefs about the use of technology in their classrooms (Lam, 2000) and computer-mediated language teaching (Lawrence, 2001). Some other studies focused on the

teachers' beliefs about the global role of English and its impact on their classroom practices (Zacharias, 2003).

2.3.3.2. Cognitions on Specific Teaching Methods

As for certain teaching approaches or methodological orientations, CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) took the first place in research on language teacher cognition, compared to other methods or approaches. For instance, a lack of congruence between the attitudes towards CLT and the classroom practices reflecting CLT was found by Karavas-Doukas (1996), who conducted a study with English language teachers in Greece. Accordingly, survey data obtained from the participants were in agreement with the principles of communicative language teaching, but observations indicated that "the classroom practices deviated considerably from the principles of communicative approaches" (p. 193). A similar finding was obtained by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) who studied 10 language teachers' practical understandings with reference to CLT through survey, interviews, and observations. Although the participants revealed a positive understanding about communicative language teaching, little evidence of communicative language teaching was found in the actual teaching analysis. A further justification was provided by Choi (2000) who focused on in-service EFL teachers' perceptions of CLT in Korea and discovered some discrepancies between their perceptions of CLT and their instructional practices.

Li (1998) explored the factors that hindered Korean EFL teachers' CLT practice through survey and interviews and listed the restrictions as: (a) teachers' pedagogical beliefs that were inclined to grammar-oriented, text-based, and teacher-centred approaches; (b) outsized classes; (c) teachers' low proficiency in English, (d) insufficient resources; and (e) 'wash back' effects of the existing testing systems.

2.3.3.3. Cognitions on Teaching Specific Skills

Apart from such issues referring to general pedagogy in language teaching, some studies revolved around teaching a specific language area or skill. Many papers attached importance to teacher cognition on teaching literacy. For instance, Islam (1999) examined the relationships among teachers' beliefs, knowledge bases, and

practices in relation to teaching early literacy. In this work with 320 teachers in the USA, it was found that the participants' orientation to literacy instruction differed significantly by the level the teachers taught at.

Poulson et al. (2001) worked with 225 British primary school teachers who were attributed to be effective in teaching reading and writing to investigate their cognitions on literacy instruction. The participants' primary orientations were discussed to be 'constructivist' in nature such as "prioritizing pupils' ability to make sense of and produce written texts in a range of contexts and for authentic purposes" (p. 288). Muchmore (2001) explored an English teacher's beliefs and practices regarding literacy instruction in the USA over a five year period in a narrative study and claimed that those beliefs were not derived from theories. Instead, they were the results of the teachers' personal life experience and professional observations of children, and their learning.

McCutchen et al. (2002) focused on beginning literacy when investigating the links among teacher knowledge, teacher practice and student learning. The conclusions derived from the findings were the following: (a) teacher knowledge is possible to be strengthened through continuous professional development activities; (b) teachers are capable of using their knowledge to change their teaching practices; and (c) changes in teacher knowledge and teaching practice have the potential to improve student learning.

Some studies, rather than taking literacy instruction in general, aimed to bear on teaching reading or writing skills separately. In relation to reading instruction, Richardson et al. (1991) investigated in-service teachers' beliefs and practices in the USA and ascertained that there were connections between teachers' beliefs about reading and their actual classroom practices. However in Wilson, Konopak and Readence's (1992) case study of an English teacher's beliefs, decisions, and practice in relation to teaching reading, there were inconsistencies in the theoretical beliefs and practices of the participant teacher. Davis, Konopak, and Readence (1993) studied beliefs and practices of two teachers in the USA and claimed that "varying social, psychological, and environmental realities" (p. 117) did influence the teachers' decisions about reading instruction.

Beach (1994) focused on teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching reading and explained the differences in the practices of teachers who had similar beliefs through varying instructional contexts the teachers worked in. Olson and Singer (1994) examined 20 teachers' theoretical beliefs and classroom practices in relation to reading instruction in the USA and found that the participants' orientations to reading were consistent with their classroom practices. Similarly, Graden (1996) compared language teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction with their instructional practices. As the participants' beliefs reflected, "reading proficiency is facilitated by providing students with frequent opportunities for reading practice, the use of the target language is preferable for reading instruction, and oral reading interferes with reading comprehension" (p. 387). However classroom practices were not consistent with these beliefs, mostly because of poor student performance and low motivation, as compromised by the participants.

In other respects, a number of studies were about writing instruction. To illustrate, Burns (1992) studied Australian ESL teachers' beliefs about writing instruction and those beliefs' reflection on their students' writing performance. As highlighted in the study, there was "an extremely complex and interrelated network of underlying beliefs" influencing "instructional practices and approaches adopted by the teachers" (p. 59). The findings put forward that both communicative and linguistic competences were attached importance in writing instruction by the participants, who were concerned with increasing learners' confidence, practice, and repetition and providing a non-threatening classroom environment.

In Mc Carthey's (1992) and Mosenthal's (1995) studies, the effects of an in-service training about writing instruction on the conceptions of the teachers were investigated. Both studies indicated some developments and changes in the writing conceptions and practices of the participant teachers, as promoted by the program. Correspondingly, Scott and Rogers (1995) focused on the changes in teachers' conceptions of writing pedagogy as a result of a nine-week training program in the USA and found evidence of a significant change, which made the participants' beliefs more aligned with the principles promoted in the training.

Shi and Cumming (1995) carried out a study with five experienced university ESL instructors in Canada with respect to their post-lesson thinking and beliefs about

writing instruction and concluded that each participant exhibited a distinct as well as a stable set of personal conceptions about writing pedagogy when teaching the language. Tsui (1996) investigated the impact of the experience on an EFL teacher's writing pedagogy in Hong Kong. The changes in the teachers' cognitions and practices over time were emphasized together with the institutional and curricular factors hindering the teacher's implementation of the desirable practices.

2.3.3.4. Cognitions on Teaching Grammar

In addition to teacher cognition research on how to teach a certain language skill, a great number of studies were about teacher cognition on how to teach grammar. The concept of KAL (knowledge about language, which also stands for grammatical knowledge) was the main focus of the studies conducted by Mitchell and Hooper (1992) and Mitchell, Brumfit, and Hooper (1994a; 1994b), who intended to examine teachers' beliefs about the language and the role of explicit grammar in foreign language teaching. Based on the interviews and classroom observations, the findings indicated that teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to KAL were consistent, and there were a causal relationship between teachers' knowledge about language and their beliefs and pedagogies in grammar teaching at British secondary schools. Similarly, Brumfit, Mitchell, and Hooper (1996) conducted a study in the UK with various language teachers to explore their beliefs about the role of KAL in language teaching and language development. They found differences between the foreign language (French, German, and Spanish) teachers and English teachers, because foreign language teachers were inclined to perceive and implement KAL as a sentence-based explicit grammar teaching orientation while English teachers reflected a text-based, functional orientation.

Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) worked in the ESL context with university teachers in New York and Puerto Rico with the aim of investigating their perspectives on conscious grammar teaching. Most of the participants tended to have positive views about conscious instruction of grammar.

Andrews (1997) studied pre-service and in-service teachers' meta-linguistic awareness in Hong Kong through an examination of the participants' explanations on texts with grammatical errors and discovered weaknesses in the participants'

knowledge about the language. In another study in Hong Kong, Andrews (1999b) once more investigated the meta-linguistic awareness of secondary school teachers of English and its impact on the linguistic input. As argued in the study, teachers' meta-linguistic awareness affected teachers' ability to transform language from instructional materials into appropriate linguistic input. Soon after, Andrews (1999a) made a comparison between native and non-native EFL teachers in the UK and Hong Kong with respect to their grammar knowledge and grammatical terminology and found that the non-native EFL teachers exhibited a better performance on the test than the native EFL teachers in the UK. Later, Andrews (2001) aimed to explore the impact of teachers' language awareness on their classroom practice and discovered that it plays a key role in building and shaping effective linguistic input for learners. It was also stated that the learners' exposition to input could be influenced by factors like teacher's confidence and explicit knowledge and time constraints. Finally, Andrews (2003) conducted another study concerning the way grammar was taught with 170 secondary school teachers of English in Hong Kong and concluded that the participants' grammar pedagogy was not influenced by their teaching experiences, yet by their language proficiency, explicit grammar knowledge, and their beliefs about grammar.

Johnston and Goettsch (2000) conducted a study on teacher knowledge base in explaining grammar with 4 experienced university ESL teachers in the USA and concluded that the two main factors influencing the development of teacher knowledge were 'education' and 'experience.'

In another study, Richards, Gallo, and Renandya (2001) administered a self-reported questionnaire to in-service EFL teachers to investigate their stated beliefs and actual classroom practices about grammar teaching and discovered a divergence. As a striking finding, many teachers reflected communicative practices in their teaching while they emphasized the importance of direct grammar teaching in their stated beliefs.

Burgess and Etherington (2002) looked into 48 EAP teachers' beliefs about grammar and grammar teaching in the UK and discovered that the participants reflected positive attitudes towards formal instruction as they believed that formal instruction contributed to the improvement in students' language proficiency and that

conscious knowledge of grammar played a role in students' use of language. Their grammar pedagogy tended to reflect an integrated, focus-on-form approach and their adopted approaches were influenced by their students' backgrounds.

Grammar pedagogy was also studied in Chia's (2003) research with 96 primary school teachers in Singapore, which revealed that the participants were inclined to formal, explicit, deductive grammar teaching, and drilling.

In Honk Kong, Ng, and Farrell (2003) examined the congruence between grammar teaching beliefs and practices of four teachers in Singapore and found evidence that teachers' instructional actions were governed by their beliefs. However, a lack of congruence between teachers' stated beliefs about error correction and their actual practices was indicated. This was explained through the factors resulting from the teaching context such as time, examinations, and institutional policies.

2.3.3.5. Cognitions compared to Learner Beliefs

There were also studies that aimed to explore both teachers' and their students' beliefs about any particular area in language learning. For instance, Kern (1995) studied language learning beliefs of French instructors and compared their beliefs with the beliefs of their own students. Basically, teachers' beliefs had less influence on students' beliefs than the textbooks, classroom practices, peers' beliefs and learners' own self-awareness did. In opposition, Fang (1996b) concluded that teachers' beliefs on writing had a considerable impact on the way writing was perceived by their learners after investigating both teachers' and learners' conceptions of good writing. Schulz (1996) explored perceptions of both teachers and students on the role of grammar and corrective feedback when learning a language in the USA and discovered significant mismatches between teachers' and students' views especially about error correction. Schulz (2001) replicated the study with language learners and their teachers in Colombia by examining cultural differences in the participants' perceptions on the role of grammar instruction and found that the majority of the teachers believed in the necessity and the positive role of explicit grammar teaching.

Andrews (1994) surveyed teacher educators' perspectives about their EFL trainees' knowledge of grammar and discovered that more than half of the pre-service teachers were thought to have inadequate grammatical knowledge and awareness, according to the perceptions of the participant trainers in the study. In a study in Hong Kong, Berry (1997) investigated teachers' awareness of their learners' meta-linguistic knowledge and found 'wide discrepancies between students' knowledge of meta-linguistic terms and the teachers' estimation of it' (p. 143), which was discussed to cause serious problems in the classroom.

Cohen and Fass (2001) examined 40 EFL teachers' and their learners' beliefs concerning communicative oral language tasks at a Colombian university. The teachers were inclined to give more emphasis on pronunciation and grammatical accuracy than on fluency and comprehensibility in the assessment of students' oral language production. The findings also revealed a disagreement between students' and teachers' beliefs in relation to the amount of talk in the classroom, which was interpreted as a failure in achieving communicative language learning objectives. In a similar study conducted in Japan by Matsuura, Chiba, and Hilderbrandt (2001), EFL teachers' and learns' beliefs about communicative language teaching were compared, in particular with respect to important instructional areas, goals and objectives, instructional styles and methods, teaching materials, and cultural matters. There appeared contrasting perspectives between teachers and learners as most of the learners preferred traditional pedagogy such as a teacher-centred approach, isolated skills teaching, and a focus on accuracy; whereas their teachers reflected more recent pedagogy such as a learner-centred approach, integrated skills teaching, and a focus on fluency.

Davis (2003) studied similarities and dissimilarities in language learning conceptions between teachers and students in China through a cross-sectional survey focusing on the nature and methods of language learning. It was seen that the students reflected stronger beliefs than the teachers in the following aspects: the earlier a second language is introduced in schools, the greater the likelihood of success in learning; teachers should present grammatical rules one at a time and students should practice examples of each one before switching to another; students' errors should be corrected as soon as they occur in order to prevent the formation of

bad habits; and teachers should use materials that expose students only to those language structures that they have already been taught.

2.4. Last Decade's International Research on EFL/ESL Teachers' Cognition

This section provides a context-specific and chronological presentation of 77 empirical studies conducted in various educational settings in various parts of the world. For this section, last ten years' empirical research on EFL/ESL teacher cognition was examined and discussed in terms of the research concept(s), focus/foci, and context(s) (see Appendix A for the table displaying the review of the last decade's international research).

As to the most frequently-studied concept, 'beliefs' or 'belief systems' as a predominating keyword of many papers took the first place (n=51), which was followed by the concepts of 'knowledge' (n=12), 'cognitions' (n=6), 'perceptions' (n=6), 'conceptions' (n=2), 'metaphors' (n=2), 'orientations' (n=2), 'pedagogical thinking' (n=1), and 'practical theories' (n=1). The concept of 'practice' was emphasized together with the aforementioned concepts in many papers (n=32).

When investigating the concepts mentioned above, a lot of papers focused on teachers' cognitive development (n=18) by either emphasizing the changes in beliefs, perceptions, or thinking or investigating the impact of some sort of training. In line with this objective, two-thirds of those papers were in the context of pre-service teaching (n=12), and mostly the impact of pre-service training or practicum was explored in them.

As for the research setting, the papers were examined with regards to educational and geographical contexts where the studies were conducted. Firstly, it was seen that the majority of the papers were conducted in in-service teaching contexts (n=41); whereas the rest was done in pre-service teacher education contexts (n=27), and induction contexts (n=5). Few of the papers were conducted in various contexts at the same time (n=4). Regarding the countries, where those studies were carried out, among the 77 empirical studies analyzed for this review, only 18 of them (23.4%) were conducted in a context where English is spoken as an official language; whereas the rest were conducted in other contexts, where English is spoken as a foreign or a second language. The majority of the studies were from Far

East (n=33), which was followed by Middle East (n=14), Europe (n=5), and South America (n=3). A few of the studies (n=4) represented mixed contexts, which means multiple settings from various countries around the world (see Appendix A).

2.4.1. Research in English-speaking Countries

Regarding the English-speaking countries, most of the papers were conducted in the USA (n=8), which was followed by the UK (n=6), Australia (n=2), New Zealand (n=1), and Canada (n=1). The research themes appearing within these English-speaking countries' were about language teaching and/or learning in general (n=5), transfer of KAL into instructional planning/practice (n=4), and literacy teaching (n=4) including teaching reading and teaching writing. Other points were about grammar teaching, CLT practices, language learners, learning disability, and assessment.

To go over those studies chronologically, Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) examined stated beliefs and actual practices of teachers in New Zealand regarding their approach to grammar teaching. The findings indicated both congruence and incongruence. As they claimed, inconsistencies between the beliefs and practices were caused by tensions between the theoretical and practical knowledge. Karabenick and Noda (2004), on the other hand, surveyed 729 teachers' beliefs, attitudes, practices, and needs in relation to immigrant and refugee English language learners in a Midwestern suburban district in the USA. The general results indicated positive attitudes among the participants towards English language learners, bilingual education, and bilingualism; nevertheless there were a considerable number of teachers who had less supportive beliefs and practices. Teachers having positive attitudes toward such learners in their classes were inclined to adopt a mastery approach rather than a competitive performance approach and to have higher self-efficacy for teaching to such learners. Mangubhai et al. (2004) conducted a case study with a language teacher in Australia by examining the practical theory of the participant teacher regarding communicative language teaching. Accordingly, the teacher constructed a well-developed practical theory and this theory was reflected into her classroom practices as well.

The study conducted in North American context by Bigelow and Ranney (2005) examined pre-service ESL teachers' knowledge about language and its transfer to lesson planning and claimed certain difficulties in trainees' implementations of theoretical knowledge about grammar that were learned during their teacher education courses. Burns and Knox (2005) observed teaching practices of two teachers to see their transfer of knowledge about systemic functional linguistics which they had learned during an MA course. Teaching practices of the participants tended to reflect more traditional approaches to grammar teaching. Accordingly, the participants' transfer of knowledge seemed to be difficult, which was discussed to be explained through pedagogical, personal and institutional factors. In a similar study, Hislam and Cajkler (2005) conducted a case study to see how practicing elementary teachers in the UK use teacher knowledge about grammar in their practice and discovered that the use of knowledge about language was difficult and the traditional sources such as books and websites were not sufficient for the participants when providing grammatical explanations. This study also revealed the fact that beginning teachers have challenges in internalizing and teaching grammatical terminology. Similarly, Popko (2005) investigated novice teachers' transfer of knowledge about language from their teacher training into their teaching practice in an ESL context in the US and found that the participants rarely made use of their formal knowledge about how to teach grammar.

Norman and Spencer (2005) examined pre-service teachers' autobiographies with the aim of eliciting their beliefs about the nature of writing and conceptions on teaching writing. The participants were inclined to personal and creative forms of writing and there seemed to be a connection between pre-service teachers' beliefs about the nature of writing and the value of writing instruction.

M. Borg's (2005) case study of a trainee teacher in a pre-service training program looked into the development in pedagogical thinking about teachers and teaching, language and language learning, and learning to teach. It was claimed that changes in beliefs occurred in a complex way, because sometimes limited changes or shifts and sometimes elaborations were reflected as a result of the program. Linek et al. (2006), on the other hand, conducted a year-long descriptive case study of eleven pre-service teachers who were in their final year and specializing in literacy

instruction in order to understand 'belief development and change' among student teachers and determine factors affecting these processes. Accordingly, shifts in the beliefs of the participants were claimed to be derived both from their field experience and university seminars. Additionally, Hobbs (2007) carried out a study with 12 British pre-service teachers having a CELTA (Certificate of English Language Teaching to Adults) training in order to investigate their experiences, in particular possible changes in their beliefs about teaching and learning. The findings indicated certain changes in the beliefs of one participant, who had different beliefs from the other 11 participants. His beliefs changed from memorization-focused learning and teacher-centred teaching to interaction-focused learning and student-centred teaching.

Decker and Rimm-Kaufman (2008) examined 397 pre-service teachers' personality characteristics and prevalent beliefs about teaching and investigated the relationship between the two. The three important findings emerging from this study indicated that: (a) pre-service teachers' belief profiles reflected 'best practices'; (b) pre-service teachers' personality factors (in relation to neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) were far beyond a sample of their college-aged counterparts; and (c) pre-service teachers' personal attributes and personalities predicted their beliefs.

Delgado (2008) carried out a case study with a bilingual teacher by focusing on her beliefs and instructional practices in working with a Latino learner having a learning disability and specifically in her reading instruction. A naturalistic inquiry approach was followed to identify the teacher's beliefs reflected in her practices. Accordingly, the teacher had some contradictory beliefs. She believed that bilingual education might have a destructive effect when the learners were transmitted too early to English-only instruction, but she also claimed that the learners' low achievement in English was the result of teachers' not fully implementing ESL into their classrooms as the learners who were exposed to more English in their instruction seemed to reflect higher achievement.

Gatbonton (2008) conducted a study with 4 novice and 7 experienced teachers to investigate their thinking when teaching ESL in Canada, and it was asserted that experienced teachers' pedagogical knowledge and practices were more stable as they

had more experience in teaching. Grisham (2010) provided a longitudinal study conducted with L2 teachers over a three-year period from their pre-service to novice years in the Pacific Northwest to explore their beliefs and practice in teaching reading and language arts. The participant teachers were oriented to a constructivist view as an impact of the pre-service program they attended. Their professional, practical, and personal knowledge were claimed to be in such complex interactions that they influence the classroom practices. They were also aware of the difference between their beliefs and practices and the most commonly-cited reason was claimed to be the teaching context.

Yin (2010) studied cognitions of two instructors teaching an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) course at a British university in the UK in relation to classroom language assessment and concluded that the teachers reflected numerous types of cognitions when assessing learner performance. The cognitions were categorized into two: (1) Strategic cognitions, which include teaching approach and beliefs about language learning, classroom parameters, course syllabus, and summative assessments. These cognitions were discussed to influence teacher thinking in relation to assessment mostly during planning. (2) Interactive cognitions, which include assessment principles, constructs applied interactively, stereotyping, projection, mental portraits of students, and assessment not directly related to language use. These cognitions were discussed to be operative and occur during interactive assessment.

In his longitudinal study, Borg (2011) aimed to answer to what extent an intensive eight-week in-service language teacher education program had an impact on practicing teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning in the UK. As a result, a considerable impact on the participants' focus on ways of developing classroom practices and shifts in their prior beliefs were indicated. Li (2012) focused on 'belief development' in a case study with two non-native English speaking student teachers in the UK and explored how these Chinese teachers construct and develop beliefs about subject matter, learning, teaching, learners, and the teacher throughout a one-year training program. It was suggested that pre-service teachers' beliefs were shaped and developed by teacher education programs, which created identity shifts among student teachers.

2.4.2. Research in Far Eastern Countries

As stated before, the majority of the studies were conducted in the countries whose official language is not English but where English is spoken as a foreign language. The countries from Far East (n=33) took the first place in the list with a lot of studies from Singapore (n=8), Korea (n=8), Taiwan (n=4), Thailand (n=3), Japan (n=2), China (n=2), Hong Kong (n=2), Vietnam (n=1), Philippines (n=1), Indonesia (n=1), and Malaysia (n=1). When those papers were reviewed, it was seen that most of them aimed to explore teaching and/or learning in general (n=7). The rest of the papers were mostly about how to teach reading (n=5), how to teach grammar (n=5), target/native language use in teaching (n=3), teaching methods (n=2), CLT (n=3), and TEYL (n=2). There were also studies focusing on the themes of interactive decision-making, native speaker EFL teachers' role, internationally-published materials, induction process, assessment, and feedback. The following paragraphs review the studies in this section chronologically.

Gupta (2004), in Singapore, investigated pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward reading and their literacy practices through their reflection on their own reading behaviours and their strengths and weaknesses as readers. The findings indicated two categories of reading as leisure reading and academic reading and multiple strategies which were developed during schooling.

Lou (2004) conducted a study with 4 in-service and 4 pre-service teachers with the aim of exploring the nature of knowledge regarding EFL teaching at elementary context and to see how two participant groups construct their knowledge. Accordingly, practicing teachers attached importance to the role of experiential knowledge and learning on the job, whereas pre-service teachers focused more on implementation of theoretical knowledge to teaching practice.

Tsang (2004) focused on the nature of the decision-making processes of the prospective teachers in Hong Kong by investigating the role of personal practical knowledge in their interactive decision-making, which contains their previously formed beliefs and theories as well as the ones developed during teacher training programs.

Vibulphol (2004) studied pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning in Thailand over the course of their practice teaching specifically by

eliciting beliefs about foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations and expectations. The survey conducted before and after practice teaching indicated the same tendency among the participants' responses in all aspects. It was also indicated that their beliefs about language learning were influenced by their own learning experiences.

Choe (2005) conducted a study on Korean EFL teachers' beliefs about the native-speaker teachers of English in Korean culture and discovered that the public's favouring native-speaker teachers created a negative image about Korean EFL teachers, and they were seen to be a threat for Korean language and culture.

In Farrell and Lim's (2005) case study with two Singaporean EFL teachers, a comparison was done on stated beliefs and actual instructional practices in relation to the way the grammar should be taught, and it was observed that there were divergences from stated beliefs. Divergences from beliefs about grammar teaching were discussed to result mostly from teaching context, time factors, and teachers' reverence for traditional deductive grammar teaching.

Zacharias (2005) surveyed 100 Indonesian teachers' beliefs about internationally published materials and their use in class in tertiary EFL context and also explored possible mismatches between beliefs and practices. The respondents favoured internationally-published materials over locally-published materials that did not reflect 'perfect' English they needed and were not readily available.

Farrell (2006a) worked with an individual EFL teacher in Singapore and described the conflict that the novice teacher experienced between his desired approach and what was expected of and required from him. Although his school context did not facilitate his efforts, the novice teacher did not quit his beliefs. On the contrary, he tried to create a balance between his teaching beliefs and the school's realities. In another study, Farrell (2006b), with the aim of examining belief systems of pre-service teachers, worked on their use of metaphors in journals during a practicum in Singapore. The study indicated that student teachers' metaphors about teaching could be both maintained and changed during a teaching practice. Farrell concluded that "changes in metaphors may signal changes in conceptions of teaching" (p.245). Finally, Farrell (2006c) compared pre-course and post-course

concept maps of pre-service teachers in relation to teaching reading and focused on the conceptual changes as a result/impact of a training. The word 'concept' was defined as "a mentally conceived image of what the pre-service teachers understand to be important in teaching reading, including their beliefs" (p. 49). It was observed that individual concept maps indicated the course's being internalized differently by the students. While the pre-course concept maps included issues like comprehension, motivation, vocabulary, reading aloud, grammar; post-course concept maps were more extensive and complex with issues like extensive reading, teaching reading strategies, text awareness, lesson planning, meta-cognition awareness, direct reading, thinking activity, top down and bottom up, teach not test, cultivate interest, and passion in reading.

Kim (2006) conducted a survey to look into language learning beliefs of both native-speaker English college instructors and their Korean students and discovered some mismatches between the two groups, which was discussed to have a negative impact on language learning processes of Korean students. Lee (2006) intended to explore the impact of training programs on in-service EFL teachers' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices in Korea through survey, interviews, and observations. Although some changes were observed in the attitudes of the participants in the study, they were discussed to be short-lived mostly due to language testing system in Korea.

Farrell and Kun (2007) studied EFL teachers' beliefs and reactions regarding students' using their native language in the classroom in Singapore in a qualitative case-study. The focus was policy-to-practice connection in order to examine the impact of the national language policy on the beliefs and classroom practices. The findings generally revealed that most of the teachers' practices were consistent with their stated beliefs and the teachers' reactions to language policy did not reflect a straightforward process but an enactment of the language policy in Singapore.

Lau (2007) investigated Chinese language teachers' orientation to reading instruction as well as their instructional practices. The participant teachers reflected a higher level of acceptance of the competence-based orientation proposed in the new curriculum compared with the traditional text-based orientation. Although daily

instructional practices were not directly observed, teachers' self-reports indicated a close connection between these two constructs.

Bernardo (2008) examined epistemological beliefs of 864 bilingual Pilipino pre-service teachers and how those beliefs reflect the features of the Philippine educational system. As indicated in the study, simple learning and structured learning were the two factors emerging in the participants' epistemological beliefs. The nature of these two factors was discussed to reflect the characteristics of as well as the tensions within the formal education system in the Philippines.

Chan (2008) studied Taiwanese EFL teachers' beliefs and practices about multiple assessments and examined the difficulties influencing their practices. Almost all the participants in this study were found to have a clear understanding of and a positive opinion on the concept of multiple assessments. The majority reported that they used task-based assessment more frequently than traditional paper-and-pencil assessment. The results indicated a significant relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices. While the relationship between beliefs and age was not statistically significant; that between beliefs and teaching experience was statistically significant.

Choi (2008) interviewed 20 Korean pre-service EFL teachers in order to elicit their pedagogical beliefs and found that they tended to hold grammar-based, teacher-centred, and text-oriented teaching approaches, which made them disfavour policies and innovations regarding CLT.

C. Chou (2008) aimed to investigate how three Taiwanese in-service teachers conceptualize their practical knowledge about English teaching in elementary schools though interviews, classroom observations, reflective journals, and teaching materials. This study put forward that teachers' practical knowledge was to be formulated through a process of reshaping some existing knowledge and learning from training programs as well as classroom practices. Accordingly, the images reflected for teachers were being like a gardener, acting like a performer, and sewing like a tailor. On the other hand, there were emerging rules of practice such as: CLT orientation, which emphasized the idea that language is for communication, and creating a supportive learning environment.

Y. Chou (2008) worked on the construct of teachers' belief systems about reading theories and strategies. The data obtained from a questionnaire administered to 42 Taiwanese EFL instructors at tertiary level indicated that linguistic knowledge, cognitive strategy and meta-cognitive strategy were emphasized by the participants. The importance and necessity of reading theories and strategies in reading comprehension were also emphasized both in beliefs and practices. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences between the participants' beliefs and their use of reading strategies.

Kang (2008) conducted a case study with an EFL teacher to examine perception and implementation of TEE policy in Korea and discovered that the teacher did not adopt the policy due to the Korean reality such as low proficiency levels of students, large class size, and so on. E. Kim (2008b) focused on the changes in beliefs through a case study investigating the impact of a Korean EFL teacher's participation in various in-service training programs on the teacher's pedagogical beliefs. It was seen that training programs did not create any change in the teachers' beliefs, which were oriented to traditional language teaching pedagogy.

Nishino (2008) conducted an exploratory survey to investigate Japanese EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching. It was seen that the participants held solid knowledge of communicative language teaching and good understandings about the roles of learners and teachers in a communicative classroom. However, it was claimed that some problems hindered the implementation of communicative language teaching. The participants responded that a reform in classroom conditions in Japan is a prerequisite for a better implementation of communicative language teaching.

Zhang (2008) conducted a study with Chinese EFL teachers on their beliefs about vocabulary learning; their understandings about vocabulary teaching; the relationship between their knowledge of vocabulary instruction and vocabulary teaching practices; and the sources of their knowledge about vocabulary instruction through qualitative techniques such as interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recall. The findings revealed that the participants had well-established and well-developed belief systems about how to learn and teach vocabulary, which was also found to be consistent with the participants' vocabulary teaching practices.

Ahn (2009) conducted a study with 4 pre-service Korean EFL teachers with the aim of investigating their implementation of CLT and TEE policy during a four-week teaching practice. It was seen that the student teachers' practices reflected (a) their own experiences as foreign language learners and conceptions of language teaching when they entered the teacher education program; (b) their mentors' attitudes towards CLT and TEE; and (c) institutional constraints.

Soontornwipast (2010) investigated beliefs of 12 English native speaking teachers at a Thai university about grammar and grammar teaching as well as their actual classroom practices. All the participants emphasized the importance of grammar in language teaching for communication but they reflected different ways to deal with grammar in the classroom. There were divergences and convergences between their beliefs and practices, which were discussed to be the results of factors such as students (age, proficiency level, interests, and learning styles), teachers, course objectives, course materials, assessment criteria, and school policy.

Yook (2010) studied EFL teachers' beliefs about language teaching and educational reforms in Korea by focusing especially on the sources of these beliefs and the extent to which these beliefs and reforms were implemented in real classroom teaching. According to the results of both qualitative and quantitative parts of the study, (a) the majority of the participants held communication-oriented language teaching beliefs, which was enforced in the Korean reforms as well; (b) major sources of the beliefs were found to be the participants' prior learning experiences and teacher education programs; (c) the main obstacles to the implementation of the reforms were the participants' negative perceptions, policies, measures, and constraints; and (d) there are gaps and mismatches among the participants' beliefs, perceptions, and practices.

Canh (2011) investigated 8 Vietnamese teachers' beliefs about form-focused instruction, the factors shaping their beliefs, and the relationship between their beliefs and practices through interpretative analysis of interviews and observations. The participants were inclined to use a deductive approach to grammar teaching such as memorization of grammatical rules and terminology as well as engagement with controlled grammar exercises in the textbook. Contemporary methodologies were reflected in neither their beliefs nor practices. Experience, which was defined to be

personal practical theories, was discussed to be the most powerful factor affecting the participants' beliefs among other contextual factors.

Mori (2011) studied two Japanese EFL teachers' corrective feedback practices and how their knowledge and beliefs shape those practices. It was observed that the participants intended to instil values such as confidence, independence, and ability to communicate well among learners. It was also seen that the teachers' knowledge of schooling, school contexts, and pedagogical process of language learning and teaching played a crucial role in their corrective feedback practices. It was concluded that EFL teachers' error correction depended on factors such as instructional focus, time constraints, frequency of errors, student personality, level of students, and prior experiences as language learners.

Ong (2011) surveyed pre-service teachers in Singapore to explore their beliefs about grammar teaching and learning and concluded that most of the participants tended to adopt diverse approaches to be used for different needs of different student groups. A combination of communicative and traditional approaches was indicated in the majority of the responses although most of the participants preferred the inductive approach to the deductive approach in the case of teaching a new grammatical item.

Abdullah, Febrian, and Malek (2012) conducted a study on 60 Malaysian pre-service English teachers' self-perceptions as readers and as future reading teachers. The study suggested positive self-perceptions among the participants as readers, which was discussed to predict significantly their perceptions of future reading teachers. It was concluded that the teachers' self-beliefs indicated a significant source for them to join the teaching profession.

Hong (2012) looked into teachers' knowledge, beliefs, principles and theories about grammar teaching and learning, in particular the dichotomous approaches of inductive and deductive teaching, and discovered that the participants did not adopt solely one approach. Another important finding was about the factors that potentially influenced the participants' instructional planning. Accordingly, the teachers were mainly under the influence of their own classroom experiences and beliefs as well as their schooling and pre-service years.

Saengboon (2012) conducted a qualitative study with two Thai EFL university teachers having 'Best Teaching Awards' with the aim of discovering their pedagogical beliefs and practices. As the general results indicated, the participants were oriented to eclectic teaching methods and techniques in language teaching and mentioned the necessity of teaching grammar although their beliefs differed regarding the use of mother tongue in the classroom.

2.4.3. Research in Middle Eastern Countries

In the review, there were also studies from Middle Eastern countries (n=14) such as Saudi Arabia (n=1), Oman (n=1), Lebanon (n=1), Iran (n=2), Libya (n=2), Yemen (n=1), and Northern Cyprus (n=6). The beliefs about language learning (n=5) and language teaching (n=3) were among the popular themes in those papers. Other papers were about teaching grammar (n=3) and reading (n=2).

Ali and Ammar (2005) investigated the effects of Saudi Arabian EFL pre-service teachers' epistemological beliefs on their learning strategies, teaching practices and classroom anxiety and found evidence that the participants' epistemological beliefs significantly affected their approach. Generally, it was seen that the participants held naïve epistemological beliefs and were more inclined to lower order cognitive strategies such as memorization and rehearsal rather than strategies like elaboration and critical thinking. They were also claimed to prefer traditional teacher-centred practices over constructive learner-centred practices.

El-Okda (2005) explored Omani EFL student teachers' beliefs about how to teach reading skills and found that the participants were not oriented to contemporary views of reading instruction.

Goker (2006) aimed to see whether EFL student teachers receiving a peer coaching training program would demonstrate an improvement in their instructional skills and self-efficacy. Working with 32 participants from Northern Cyprus, he found significant differences between traditionally trained pre-service teachers and the ones having a peer coaching training program in terms of the variables such as stating objectives, repeating points, using examples, repeating items, asking questions, student questions, and practice time.

Diab (2009) investigated language learning beliefs of 19 prospective EFL teachers and 31 university EFL teachers in Lebanon in terms of language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, nature of language learning, and effectiveness of various learning strategies. A variety of beliefs among the participants were discovered in the study and it was claimed that these beliefs might both contribute to and hinder language learning and teaching processes of teachers.

Moini (2009) conducted his study in Iranian EFL context with in-service teachers to examine the differences in non-native EFL teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction by certain variables such as working environment, educational level, gender, and teaching experience. Working environment, educational level, and teaching experience created significant differences in the cognitions and practices among the participants, whereas gender did not cause a significant difference.

Orafi and Borg (2009) conducted their study in Libyan secondary schools through interviews and observations of three teachers with the aim of investigating their implementation of communicative English language curriculum. The general findings indicated differences between curriculum objectives and instructional practices. The things filtering what was originally planned in the curriculum were the teachers' prior beliefs about language teaching and learning as well as the educational context together with the demands of the system such as assessment.

Doğruer, Meneviş, and Eyyam (2010) worked with a sample from EFL teachers teaching at tertiary level in Northern Cyprus in order to investigate the correlation between EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and how these beliefs affect their teaching styles. The factors influencing student learning were claimed to be in order of: aptitude to language, student characteristics, motivation and expectations, learning and communication strategies of learners, and nature of language learning.

Erkmen (2010) looked qualitatively into nine non-native novice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning English at a private university in Northern Cyprus and examined the extent to which these beliefs changed in their first year. The study indicated that novice teachers' prior learning experiences were to shape their initial beliefs. The factors influencing changes in beliefs were listed as the following: differences in individual experiences and contextual factors, such as

syllabus, dissatisfaction with student behaviour, and students' expectations. A considerable finding was also about teachers' not being able to do what they believed would be effective in their classes.

Kunt and Özdemir (2010) conducted a study, in Northern Cyprus, to identify possible differences in pre-service teachers' beliefs about language learning with respect to the methodology courses taken in the first and the last years. The results indicated that the pre-service teachers reflected constant and conflicting beliefs. The comparative analyses in the study showed that the beliefs of prospective teachers were either the same before and after their involvement in methodology courses or changed to a small extent in certain areas.

Khonamri and Salimi (2010) studied Iranian EFL teachers' belief systems about reading strategies as well as the consistencies between these beliefs and practical teaching activities. Meta-cognitive strategies were found to be the most important strategies in teachers' beliefs, while linguistic category is the least important. Although teachers believed in the importance of reading strategies in reading comprehension, there was not a significant correlation between teachers' beliefs about the importance of reading strategies and their self-reported classroom practices.

Ezzi (2012) worked with Yemeni EFL teachers to identify their beliefs and instructional procedures with regards to grammar teaching. Accordingly, the participants reflected a set of complex beliefs, which were discussed to result from their prior experiences of teaching English. However, observations indicated that the beliefs were not actually revealed in their classroom practices.

Tantani (2012) investigated the consistency between knowledge and instructional practices of eight Libyan EFL teachers and found evidence that there were different and complex patterns of congruence and incongruence between practices and knowledge, as there were occasions when the teachers had knowledge but did not implement what they knew, or implemented something but were not aware what they did, or knew what they did and implemented what they knew. Another important finding was that different approaches were adopted by the participants when teaching grammar rather than believing in a single way that could work perfectly in all classes.

Debreli (2012) focused on the changes in beliefs of three final-year pre-service teachers about teaching and learning as an impact of a nine-month pre-service teacher training program in Northern Cyprus. Their initial and final beliefs about language learning, language aptitude, effective language teaching, teaching language skills, and error correction were investigated. It was seen that the participant student teachers started the program with various beliefs about teaching and learning. Although no significant changes were observed throughout the first semester of the program, all three participants' beliefs were strengthened as a result of the program and changes were observed at the end.

Musayeva-Vefalı and Tuncergil (2012), working with 13 tertiary level EFL teachers, studied cognitive changes in in-service teachers' beliefs throughout a training program by comparing pre-course and post-course cognitions. They suggested changes and developments in the practicing teachers' beliefs in relation to the aspects of lesson preparation and classroom teaching.

2.4.4. Research in European Countries

Very few studies about EFL teacher cognition were conducted in European countries (n=5), and they were from Spain (n=1), Greece (n=2), Slovakia (n=1), and Lithuania (n=1). The papers reflected a variety of themes such as teaching culture, reading, pronunciation, motivation, and so on.

Castro, Sercu, and Garcia (2004) conducted a study on Spanish EFL teachers' perceptions on the objectives of foreign language education specifically investigating cultural objectives and intercultural competence. It was observed that 'language teaching' was prioritized over 'culture teaching', as the participants attached more attention to motivation and proficiency development and devoted more time to language teaching.

Sifakis and Sougari (2005) conducted a survey with Greek EFL teachers' to examine their beliefs and practices in relation to teaching pronunciation and concluded that teachers' positions were mainly norm-bound. This situation was explained through:

> the teachers' role as the legal guardians of the English language with respect to their learners; (b) their immediate identification of any language with its native speakers; and (c) their lack of awareness of issues related to the international spread of English (p. 483).

Kubanyiova (2006) conducted a longitudinal study to discover the impact of a 20-hour in-service teacher development course, whose focus was on creating a motivating learning environment, on the cognitive and behavioural development of EFL teachers in Slovakia. The results indicated no change or improvement in the perceptions of the participants, which was discussed to be the results of individual or external factors as well as course-related factors.

Mattheoudakis (2007) carried out a longitudinal study in Greece to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching and to identify possible changes in those beliefs as a result of a teacher education program. The results indicated a gradual significant development in student teachers' beliefs during the program, but a low impact on the development of their beliefs after student teachers' engagement in teaching practice. The findings were interpreted with reference to the structure and context of the specific teacher education program.

In Kuzborska's (2011) study, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in how to teach reading to advanced learners in Lithuanian context were investigated with eight participants. Most of the participants favoured a skills-based approach to reading instruction and put emphasis on vocabulary, reading aloud, translation, and whole class discussion of the texts. Those beliefs were discussed to be consistent with the practices.

2.4.5. Research in South American Countries

There were three studies conducted in South America, all of which were from Brazil (n=3). They were about teaching grammar, teaching four skills, and grammar-based feedback on writing.

Da Silva (2005) examined the perceptions of 3 Brazilian pre-service teachers with respect to four-skills teaching in EFL contexts during a teaching practicum. Accordingly, pre-service teachers' perceptions came from their theoretical and experiential knowledge which were constructed with the help of their observations and experiences. Changes in the perceptions of student teachers with respect instructional planning and communicative classroom practices were also indicated.

Gil and Carazzi (2007) conducted a qualitative study that focused on an EFL teacher's beliefs and her practices concerning grammar teaching. The results showed

that grammar teaching should be used as a facilitative device to help students in their learning process and that the teacher's beliefs are influenced by three interactive sources: cognitive, contextual and experiential.

Paiva (2011) studied Brazilian EFL teachers' beliefs about grammar-based feedback on writing and the relationship between these beliefs and perceived instructional practices. The results revealed that the participants were more inclined to a form-focused correction approach and that their pedagogical decisions seemed to be shaped by their beliefs and their teaching setting.

Apart form all the studies discussed above, there were studies conducted in more than one context. For instance, Mann (2008) intended to examine first teaching experiences of five EFL teachers from Taiwan, Japan, Cyprus, and Shanghai. This examination was done with the help of metaphoric language used in order to elicit their verbalized concerns, roles and general feelings about teaching. When the participants' metaphors were compared, some shifts were detected in their concerns resulting from their induction processes.

Wallestad (2009) conducted an ethnographic case study with seven graduate students from China, Japan, Korea, Jordan, Poland, and the USA in order to look into the development in the beliefs, understandings, and experiences of prospective language teachers as a result of their engagement with cooperative learning in a graduate program in the U.S. The study indicated a change in the participants' orientations from 'learning individually' to 'learning together' as a result of the experiences obtained in the training program's methods course and highlighted "the complexity of prospective teachers' beliefs, attitudes and actions and how the social nature of human learning connected with their thought process in the given context" (p. xxii).

Bangou, Flemeng, and Goff-Kfouri (2011), in their qualitative examination of English language teacher candidates' knowledge base on second language teaching methodology, compared pre-service teachers in Lebanon and Canada through blog postings and semi-structured interviews. Through this study, they asserted that teachers' knowledge is communal, contextually-bounded and uniquely rooted in their experiences within and outside their pre-service programs. Besides local and specific

context-based knowledge, it was also indicated that the participants exhibited a universal knowledge base in relation to teaching ESL and EFL.

2.5. Studies on EFL Teachers' Cognitions in Turkish Context

In this section of the review, the studies conducted in Turkey (n=30) between the dates 1998 and 2012 with the purpose of exploring at least one of the concepts included under 'teacher cognition' were examined in terms of their foci and contexts. As displayed in the review tables in Appendix B, the concepts that most frequently-occurred in the papers was 'beliefs' (n=13), which was followed by perceptions (n=5), knowledge (n=3), views/opinions (n=3), awareness/understandings (n=3), attitudes/approaches (n=3), decisions (n=2), conceptions (n=1), assumptions (n=1), and thinking (n=1). The concept of 'practice' was addressed in only 5 of the papers. A lot of papers attached importance to 'belief development' by investigating any kind of changes in beliefs (n=4), the impact of some sort of training on beliefs (n=4), or the gender effect (n=1). Epistemological beliefs (n=2) and meta-cognitive strategies (n=1) were also among the targets of some other papers.

When the focus of each paper was examined, it was seen that many papers were solely about language learning and/or language teaching (n=5), while some of them focused on teaching English to young learners (n=2), ICT use in language teaching (n=2), the role of MI theory in language teaching, target language use in language teaching (n=1), teaching culture (n=1) or intercultural competence (n=1) in language teaching. There were also studies working on how to teach a specific language skill or area such as teaching reading (n=2) and teaching grammar (n=2). Apart from those, effective teaching (n=2), instructional planning (n=1), classroom management (n=1), learner autonomy (n=1) or learner-centeredness (n=1), and induction process (n=1) were explored in some other papers (see Appendix B).

The studies mentioned above (n=30) were also analyzed in terms of research setting, sample size, and study group (see Appendix B for the tables displaying the review of the studies in Turkish context). Accordingly, half of the papers included in the analysis were conducted with student teachers in the context of pre-service teacher education (n=15). The number of the participants in those fifteen papers ranged from 1 to 456 on the basis of the research design. The majority (n=11) of

those studies were conducted in only one particular pre-service teacher education program within a single institution; whereas two of them were conducted in 5 different BA programs, one of them in 2 different BA programs, and one of them in 7 different BA programs that are training pre-service teachers in Turkish universities. On the other hand, there were studies conducted with teachers in the context of in-service years (n=11); however only a limited number of them (n=4) were carried out with tertiary level teachers, and all of them were conducted at a single institution (n=3) except one particular study, which was conducted in three different higher education institutions. The number of the participants in the studies focusing on in-service years ranged from 3 to 50.

There were also studies having a sample from both pre-service and in-service contexts (n=2) and having novice teachers as the sample (n=2) (see Appendix B).

2.5.1. Studies from Pre-service Contexts

In the following paragraphs, the studies conducted with only pre-service teachers in Turkey (n=15) are discussed in a chronological order. To start with, Sendan and Roberts (1998) reported the case of an individual student teacher's personal theories about effective teaching and the changes in those theories. As indicated in the study, changes in the participant's thinking reflected a complex rather than a linear nature, as the structure of his personal theories were deconstructed and reconstructed over a period of 15 months. Tercanlıoğlu (2001) studied pre-service EFL teachers' thinking about themselves as readers and as prospective reading teachers and found evidence that the participants in the study were not enthusiastic about reading and not sure that they possessed effective reading capabilities. However, they believed that good reading teachers should themselves be good readers.

In Rakıcıoğlu's (2005) study done with pre-service EFL teachers in various universities in Turkey, EFL trainees' epistemological beliefs and teacher-efficacy beliefs were surveyed, and the relationship between the two sets were examined. Accordingly, it was seen that the participants were not sure whether knowledge was certain and acquired from the authority, but they believed that learning ability was quick and fixed at birth. The factors having statistically significant influences on

beliefs regarding teacher-efficacy were gender and grade level, neither of which had a significant effect on epistemological beliefs though. The correlation between authority-quick learning and teaching efficacy was significantly negative. This meant that the pre-service teachers felt less efficacious about their teaching abilities when they believed in obtaining knowledge from authority and accepted authority as the ultimate source of knowledge.

In relation to general language learning beliefs, Tercanlıoğlu (2005) studied 118 pre-service EFL teachers' language learning beliefs quantitatively with the purpose of determining the relationship between gender and beliefs. However, the results from inferential analyses indicated no significant gender-related difference among the participants. The striking point was that the domain of motivations and expectations to learn a language was rated as the highest and thus the most important aspects among the language learning beliefs of the participants. Rather than focusing on only EFL teaching, Altan (2006) worked with 248 student teachers (foreign language-major university students of English, German, French, Japanese, and Arabic) in Turkey in order to explore their language learning beliefs. An important finding was that language learning beliefs across different target language groups followed a consistent pattern with a wide range of beliefs. In this study, prospective teachers' beliefs were described through the term 'myth'.

Üstünel (2008) investigated the relationship between trainee teachers' views and practices regarding classroom management in particular for the dimensions like how to deal with large classes, create a positive environment, and hold learners' attention. The data gathered from questionnaires, tutor logs, discussion sessions and classroom observations reflected that the more teaching experience a trainee had, the better his/her views were reflected in classroom practices, because in the first semester, the participant trainees found it difficult to put their views into practice when dealing with classroom discipline.

Tüzel and Akcan (2009) examined 5 non-native pre-service English teachers' practices in terms of their challenges in using target language in the classroom and their development as an impact of the training provided by the supervisors. Most of the difficulties encountered in the class were discussed to be related to certain grammatical structures, explaining unknown words, modifying language in

accordance with learners' level, and authenticity of the classroom language. The findings also revealed that the positive impact of the language awareness training on the target language use of the participants.

Balçıkanlı (2010) worked on student teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy in a Turkish pre-service education program, whose students reflected positive attitudes towards the learner autonomy principles. However, the majority of the prospective teachers did not prefer students taking part in the decision making processes in relation to the time and place of the course and the textbooks to be followed.

Kömür (2010), in a study with pre-service teachers, investigated the relationship between teaching knowledge and competency as well as their reflections on teaching practice. Scales on teaching knowledge and competency indicated high scores, yet the qualitative data indicated that those scores were not reflected in the participants' actual classroom practices.

Polat (2010) explored the impact of a semester-long pedagogical treatment on pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs in relation to the effectiveness of authentic, commercial, and teacher-made instructional materials. The results of the study suggested some significant changes in participants' beliefs about the effectiveness of such materials in some of the aspects; nevertheless changes did not occur in all aspects.

Altan (2012) conducted a survey on the beliefs of 217 pre-service teachers at ELT programs at seven different universities in Turkey in relation to the foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, nature of language learning, and effectiveness of various learning strategies. A variety of beliefs about language learning among the participants were indicated in the study, and some of those beliefs were claimed to prevent successful language learning and teaching and also to have an impact on the participants' instructional practices.

Guven (2012) investigated epistemological beliefs and meta-cognitive strategies of pre-service teachers being trained through two different paths: formal and distance education programs. As the study indicated, a significant relationship between the epistemological beliefs and meta-cognitive strategy use was apparent in both groups of prospective teachers.

Hismanoğlu (2012) explored prospective EFL teachers' perceptions on ICT use in foreign language teaching. It was seen that the majority of the teachers did not feel competent enough to use ICT in their future classes, which made them reflect negative attitudes towards integrating ICT into foreign language learning. It was also found that the nature, level and delivery of the training on ICT use were inadequate for the participants.

Özmen (2012) carried out a four-year longitudinal study on pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching during their teacher education program and examined the impact of the program on the changes in beliefs. It was seen that changes at various degrees occurred at different stages of the program. Specifically, engagement with practice teaching had a higher impact on belief development about language learning and teaching.

Savas (2012) aimed to explore pre-service EFL teachers' perceptions about the role of multiple intelligences in foreign language learning and found evidence that almost all (97%) of the participants believed in MI theory's ongoing, complex, and interactive contributions to language learning. They also agreed that linguistic intelligence alone does not guarantee success in learning a foreign language.

2.5.2. Studies from Mixed Contexts

Beside the aforementioned papers studying only pre-service teaching, there were also papers taking both pre-service and in-service EFL teachers as sample (n=2). For instance, Vanci-Osam and Balbay (2004) investigated pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' beliefs about language teaching and decision-making skills in the cases of their diverging from lesson plans. As they concluded, both groups reflected similar beliefs about motivating their students or developing their students' language skills and diverged from their plans based on students' reactions. However, the two groups differed in dealing with classroom management, as student teachers chose to ignore problematic behaviours, but the experienced teachers paid more attention to timing and management issues. On the other hand, Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, and Ölçü (2009) used metaphor elicitation method in examining pre-service and in-service teachers' schemata for thinking about teachers. The data were obtained from three groups of language teachers: junior pre-service teachers, senior

pre-service teachers, and in-service teachers. The analyses indicated that the 'teacher' was conceptualized as 'a guide' by almost all groups of the participants. A striking result was that the percentage of in-service teachers perceiving teacher as 'a facilitator' was higher than the percentage of pre-service teachers. It was claimed that in-service teachers get learner-centred perspective as they become more experienced.

As for induction years, the number of the studies conducted with novice teachers was only two. One of them (Kaya, 2007) compared novice and experienced teachers in terms of their interactive thoughts and decisions, while the other one (Akbulut, 2007) focused on induction process of novice teachers at tertiary level by exploring novice teachers' concerns when teaching English, in particular deviations from training and discrepancies between beliefs and practices. Kaya (2007) discovered that both groups were able to identify student performance cues in classroom teaching even though the experienced teachers observed more cues than the novices throughout the ongoing instruction. As revealed in Akbulut's (2007) study, novice teachers were more concerned with establishing a classroom conduct and an appropriate degree of discipline, covering the required materials on time, preparing students for the examinations, and involving meaningful learning activities. The study also indicated a gap between beliefs and practices.

2.5.3. Studies from In-service Contexts

Being in the last group as well as the focus of the current dissertation, the studies conducted in the context of in-service teaching (n=11) were grouped into four: (a) studies done with primary level teachers (n=3); (b) studies done with secondary level teachers (n=2); (c) studies done with teachers teaching at various levels of education (n=2); and (d) studies done with tertiary level teachers (n=4), which was the research context of the current dissertation (see Appendix B).

To begin with the context of primary level of education, Kavanoz (2006) conducted a comparative case study between the two (one public and one private) primary school settings to see the teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about learner-centeredness and to observe their in-class implementations regarding learner-centeredness. The findings obtained from classroom observations, document analyses and interviews revealed a difference between public and private school

teachers in terms of both conceptualization and implementation of learner-centeredness as they approached the learner-centeredness issue differently. As another work, Kırkgöz (2008) provided a two-year case study to examine the effects of teachers' understandings and training on their instructional practices of communicative-oriented curriculum in teaching English to young learners. Positive impacts of the both factors were indicated in the study, which highlighted the need for a continuous in-service training and development process. Caner, Subaşı, and Kara (2010) carried out a study on the role of teacher beliefs in classroom practices with two teachers teaching English in a context of early childhood education (kindergarten and first grades in a state school). The data gathered through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and video-recorded sessions reflected that both of the participants had views on how young learners were likely to learn best, considered their age, level and interest and also included a variety of activities and materials suitable for the target learners.

In relation to second group of studies conducted in the secondary level of education, Erdoğan (2005) aimed to identify 4 experienced EFL teachers' personal theories of good teaching by exploring the contents and nature (structure and sources) of those theories and the congruence of them with the classroom practices. As the study indicated, the participants' personal theories reflected moral, educational, and affective dimensions which were deeply rooted in the participants' personal biographies and early experiences of learning. Another striking point was that the images the participants hold did not directly guide their practice, but the participants tended to interpret those images in a bi-polar way. The dilemmas the participants had were claimed to come from how they see the world, not essentially from the gap between formal theory and practice. From a different standpoint, Bayyurt (2006) worked with twelve non-native EFL teachers with the aim of investigating their conceptions of 'culture' in EFL teaching context and their beliefs about incorporation of culture into their EFL classes in Turkey. There was a general consensus on the practice of 'international culture', through which the participants put emphasis on both English-speaking Anglo-American cultures and the learners' local culture. The context of teaching and the background of individual teachers influenced their attitudes towards incorporation of culture into language teaching.

Regarding the two studies taking samples from all levels of education, Atay et al. (2009) focused on the attitudes of 200 Turkish teachers of English from seven regions to investigate the integration of intercultural aspect into foreign language teaching. It was observed that the participants were rather concerned with helping learners understand their own culture better, rather than get to know the target cultures. This situation was discussed to be the result of the fact that the participants were not sufficiently knowledgeable about or familiar with the cultures of the English-speaking countries, and their contacts with English-speaking people were rare. Mathews-Aydinli and Elaziz (2010) worked with 82 teachers from seven different institutions in order to study the use of interactive whiteboards in foreign language teaching and the factors influencing teachers' attitudes towards technology. Positive attitudes towards and awareness of the potential use of such technologies were revealed in the study. It was also indicated that more exposure to such technologies increased awareness and attitudes.

As for the studies conducted with teachers at higher education institutions, three of them were case studies carried out with 1 to 4 participants form only one particular institution. To illustrate, Arıoğul (2007) conducted a longitudinal study with three EFL teachers of a large research-based public university in Turkey in order to see how foreign language teachers' practical knowledge was influenced by certain variables regarding previous experiences. The results emerging from the interviews and classroom observations indicated that background variables such as prior language learning experiences and previous teaching practices as well as professional coursework in pre- and in-service education were found to be influential factors on EFL teachers' practical knowledge and classroom instruction. Phipps (2007) examined the impact of a four-month in-service teacher training course on a teacher's beliefs about grammar teaching. Accordingly, "there were few tangible changes to existing beliefs; instead many existing beliefs were confirmed, deepened and strengthened" (p. 13). In another study, Phipps and Borg (2009) interviewed and observed three in-service teachers for about one and a half year in order to study tensions between grammar teaching beliefs and practices of teachers. The qualitative data indicated a number of tensions between stated beliefs in interviews and observed practices, most of which were related to inductive and contextualized

presentation of grammar, meaningful practice and oral group-work. Some of these tensions were consistent, while others were specific to particular grammar points and lessons.

Only one of the four studies conducted at tertiary level context was carried out with a larger group (50 teachers) from three different institutions. In Cabaroglu and Yurdaisik's (2008) study, university preparatory school teachers' views about how to teach reading and the use of reading strategies in class were investigated in three different institutions. According to the results, how to deal with unknown vocabulary and unfamiliar topics was among the most problematic side of reading instruction. On the other hand, instructors used more pre-reading strategies than post-reading strategies, and participants using reading strategies in daily lives tended to make more use of reading strategies in class.

2.6. Summary of the Literature Review

The literature reviewed so far clarified that researchers, in order to take appropriate actions for innovations in teacher education and teacher development, need to understand teaching profoundly. To understand teaching profoundly, they need to examine teachers' minds. Teachers' mind was the main focus of exploration in recent years' educational research from various educational settings, some of which intended to understand teachers' way of knowing; some others aimed to investigate teachers' way of thinking and believing. When doing so, personal, pedagogical, and practical sides were integrated into teachers' mental processes. A variety of concepts in relation to teacher cognition were explored in empirical studies, such as theories, thoughts, philosophies, perceptions, assumptions, orientations, attitudes, decision-making, information-processing, and so on. With the help of such examinations, it would be possible to characterize the nature and form of teaching and how it is organized.

Starting from the 1980s, there has been an immense amount of research on pedagogical implications of studying cognitive sides of teaching, and the link between teachers' cognitive status and instructional practices were highlighted in many studies. Exploring teachers' cognitions was attributed to be crucial for educational reforms and innovations, and hence the foci of the studies ranged from

pre-service years to in-service years. With the assumption emphasizing the crucial role of beliefs in teachers' interpreting new information when learning to teach and transferring this information into classroom, study of teacher belief has taken a remarkable place among the other concepts of educational research on teacher cognition. That is why the most-frequently studied concept appeared as the 'beliefs' or 'belief systems' both in internationally-published papers or reports as well as in studies in Turkish context.

In 1990s, educational research on subject-matter knowledge and subject-matter preparation of teachers made subject-specific teacher cognition research emerge. Therefore, the field of language teaching, in particular EFL/ESL teaching, has taken a significant portion in the research on teacher cognition in the last thirty years. The literature on teacher cognition regarding the field of language teaching has been reviewed under three periods: (a) student teacher cognition and pre-service years, (b) novice teacher cognition and induction years, and (c) experienced teacher cognition and in-service years.

Being the main focus of the majority of the studies, the first period was usually studied with attached importance to three themes: prior learning experiences' effects on cognitions; cognitive changes among prospective teachers; and pre-service training's impact on possible cognitive changes. The focus of the papers intending to elicit and describe the cognitions of prospective teachers were mostly related to instructional decisions and actions; knowledge and beliefs about language and language teaching; language acquisition beliefs; effective teaching; and literacy teaching. Apart from these many papers aimed to explore the changes in the cognitions as a result or impact of a teacher education program, and to see how they adjust their prior beliefs and employ new approaches. The pre-service period was given a due consideration as it is a vital stage in development in order to construct, deconstruct, and reconstruct cognitions for teaching. The literature not only put forward the powerful influence of training programs or courses on trainee teachers' cognitive development, but also involved studies claiming a limited or weak impact of teacher education on pre-service teachers' cognitions. Additionally, a number of studies, from a constructivist perspective, emphasized the influence of prior learning experiences brought by student teachers.

As for the second period, the studies conducted with novice teachers were related to induction stage of newly-graduated teachers such as their socializing process, their ability to transfer gains into classroom practices, the effects of contextual factors. Most frequently, comparisons were employed between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, specifically in relation to language learning and teaching, grammar teaching, decision-making processes, pre-active and interactive decisions, instructional planning approaches, designing language-teaching tasks, and reflecting on their work. In many studies, it was claimed that experienced and inexperienced teachers might differ in their practices.

Finally, studies conducted with practicing teachers put forward a range of themes in the scope of in-service teaching. The majority of the themes were related to general pedagogy of language learning and teaching or a certain concept such as teaching a specific language area or skill. Pedagogical knowledge and thoughts; personal practical knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; theories and practices; implicit theories; instructional approaches regarding curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices; methodological approaches, techniques, and procedures; instructional decisions and pedagogical choices; teaching principles and lesson flow; departures from lesson plans; teaching styles; use of technology; cultural concerns; and contextual factors were among the most frequently-addressed dimensions. The top three concepts taking a bigger place than the other concepts in language teaching were: (a) communicative language teaching; (b) literacy teaching, which sometimes appeared separately as how to teach reading and how to teach writing; and (c) grammar teaching. Besides all these, relationships between cognitions and practices were included in many studies. While some studies focused on what in-service language teachers believe, think, know, and do by investigating cognitions together with reported or observed practices, some others examined teachers' cognitions compared to their learners' beliefs.

Everything considered, a great number of studies were about 'beliefs', which outnumbered the concepts of 'knowledge' and 'thinking'. Still, cognitive development of teachers and changes in their beliefs were the foci of many studies.

While international research was more on in-service teachers' cognitions, studies from Turkey were done with mostly pre-service teachers.

When the last decade's international research (n=77) was analyzed, it was seen that most of the papers/dissertations/theses were from Far Eastern countries, which was followed by English-speaking countries like USA, UK, Australia, and New Zealand. There was also a considerable amount of research in Middle Eastern countries; however, a few papers were published in European and South American countries.

As stated before, Far Eastern countries took the first place in providing teacher cognition research on EFL context with a range of themes such as teaching and/or learning in general; how to teach reading; how to teach grammar; target/native language use in teaching; teaching methods; communicative language teaching; teaching to young learners; interactive decision-making; native speakers' role; internationally-published materials; assessment; and feedback issues. On the other hand, English-speaking countries' foci of investigation were mostly into language teaching and/or learning in general, transfer of KAL into instructional planning/practice, and literacy teaching. Minor points were related to grammar teaching, CLT practices, language learners, learning disability, and assessment. Middle Eastern countries mostly focused on beliefs about language learning and language teaching as well as teaching grammar and teaching reading. Very few studies conducted in European countries reflected the themes of teaching culture, teaching reading, teaching pronunciation, and motivation. There were only three studies conducted in South America, all of which were from Brazil and were about teaching grammar, teaching four skills, and grammar-based feedback on writing.

As the last point to summarize, the studies conducted in Turkey (n=30) have mostly had the purpose of exploring teacher belief in relation to language learning and teaching or a particular concept in the field. In addition to 'belief', the terms like perception, knowledge, view, opinion, awareness, understanding, attitude, approach, conception, assumption, and thinking were also used in the Turkish studies. However, the link to 'practice' was addressed in only 5 of the papers. A lot of papers attached importance to 'belief development' by investigating any kind of changes in beliefs. Regarding the foci of studies, it was seen that many papers were only about

language learning and/or language teaching in general; however, some papers focused on teaching to young learners; ICT use; role of MI theory; target language use; teaching reading; teaching grammar; teaching culture; or intercultural competence. Apart from these, effective teaching, instructional planning, classroom management, learner autonomy or learner-centeredness, and induction process were investigated in some other papers. Epistemological beliefs and meta-cognitive strategies were also among the targets of some papers.

The studies conducted in Turkey (n=30) were also analyzed in terms of research setting such as study group; study context, and sample size. As for the study group, it was seen that half of the studies (n=15) included in the review were conducted with pre-service teachers, which was not the target group of the current dissertation; however the studies carried out with in-service teachers were less in number (n=11). Among those eleven studies employing in-service teachers as the sample, three of them were conducted in primary level institutions; two of them in secondary level institutions; two of them in various institutions at various levels; and only four of them in tertiary level institutions, which was the target context of the current dissertation. Concerning those four studies having a similar focus to the current dissertation, three of them were case studies carried out with 1 to 4 participants form only one particular institution, and only one of them was conducted with a larger group (*N*=50) from three different institutions. That particular study (Cabaroglu & Yurdaisik, 2008) aimed to explore EFL instructors' views about how to teach reading and the use of reading strategies in class, which has a narrower focus than the current dissertation. However in the current dissertation, both the scope and the setting of the research were expanded through two elements: (a) a comprehensive inventory with 102 items on language learning cognitions and language teaching actions; and (b) a larger sample (*N*=606) from 15 different higher education institutions in Ankara.

Considering both the themes in the literature and the findings in the research, it is argued that the teacher cognition has a striking importance, and thus became a critical area of research. Its complex, dynamic, and influential features were stressed in many papers. Additionally, a strong emphasis was attached to the connection between teachers' cognitions and instructional actions, resulting from experience,

training, and classroom practices. The impact of teacher training on the formation and growth of teachers' cognitive development was also highlighted. Therefore, a comprehensive exploration of teachers' mental lives regarding teaching possibly help the researchers and policy makers gain insights for many aspects of teaching. To sum up, "what knowledge is activated and how it is used by teachers in making decisions about their day-to-day and moment-to-moment activities is crucial to our understanding of what teaching is" (Woods, 1996, p. 68).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter describes the method of the study under the following sections: (a) overall research design, (b) research questions, (c) population and sample, (d) data collection instrument, (e) validity and reliability issues, (f) pilot work, (g) ethical issues, (h) data collection procedures, (i) data analysis procedures, and (j) limitations of the study.

3.1. Overall Research Design

The main purpose of the study is to investigate, firstly, language learning cognitions of the EFL instructors teaching in higher education institutions in Ankara, specifically by focusing on the cognitions regarding linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and characteristics of good language learners. Secondly, the actions these instructors took in their language teaching practices were examined with respect to the issues of pedagogical inclinations, instructional planning, error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development. Another focus of the study was to describe the relationships that might exist among those variables.

Rooted in the aforementioned purposes, this study is both a survey research, because it aimed to describe the existing situation by answering the question of 'what' in relation to conditions, characteristics, perceptions, and practices pertaining to language learning and teaching processes of EFL instructors, and at the same time a correlational research, because it aims to explore the relationships among naturally existing variables by only administering the instrument designed to collect intended

data without any manipulation or intervention. While a survey research has the potential to provide us with a lot of descriptive information obtained from a large group of individuals by only asking the same set of questions (in the form of a written inventory in this case), a correlational research helps us make more intelligent predictions by determining relationships among variables and exploring their implications for cause and effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

In the overall research design, a ten-step process was followed as shown in *Scheme of Research* (see Figure 3.1). Having a first glance at the figure, it is possible to have an initial impression that it has a linear feature and follows a systematic progress. When the figure is examined through a closer look, it is explicit to see circles, each of which represents a different step in the design and has a connection with certain circles (steps) of the design. Some steps have an intersection with the preceding and/or following steps; therefore, those interconnected steps constitute four main stages in the design.

As for the first main stage comprising the steps from 1 to 4, the initial action of the study started with problem selection and definition, in which specific research questions and variables (dependent/independent) were determined. This step was taken in connection with the second step, in which the literature was reviewed by analyzing relevant conceptual resources and empirical studies conducted previously. Being a fundamental step for the design, reviewing literature guided both the third and in particular the fourth steps, because based on the literature, the population was defined; the sampling procedures were determined to select the most appropriate study group for the study; and an item pool for the inventory was constructed. When developing the data collection instrument, an elaborative strategy was adopted and implemented. As the outcome of this extensive preparation, *EFLICAI (EFL Instructors' Cognitions and Actions Inventory)* was constructed to obtain intended information about the participants' cognitions and actions regarding language learning and teaching processes.

In the next stage there were two interconnected steps (5 and 6). Firstly, the inventory was pilot-tested twice: initially with a group of EFL instructors from Hacettepe University (n=55) and later with a larger group of EFL instructors (n=86) from various universities in Turkey. The findings obtained from the pilot works

made it possible to work on validity and reliability issues, which was followed by editing and revising the inventory.

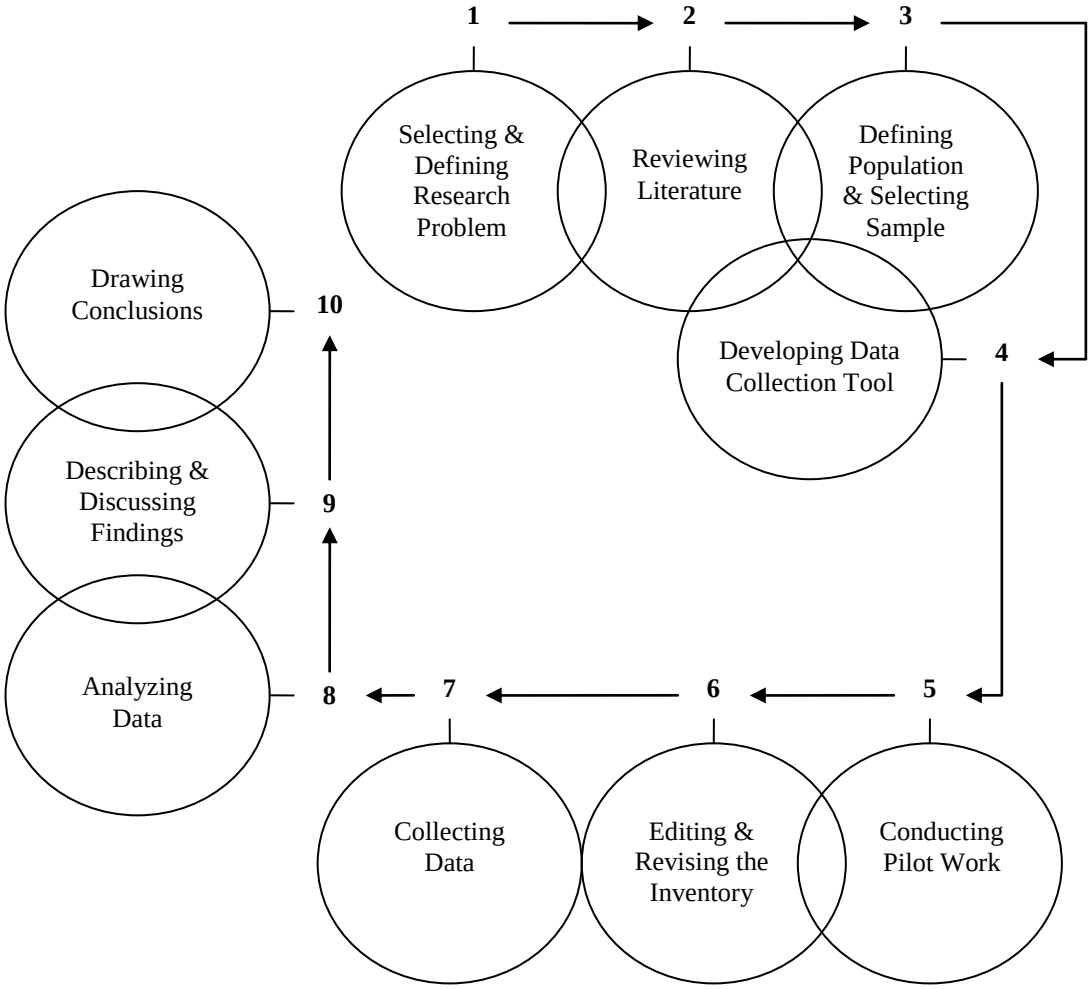

Figure 3.1 *Scheme of Research*

With the help necessary revisions done in the previous steps, the data collection process, which is represented by the seventh step, started. In this process, the inventory was administered by the researcher in fifteen different higher education institutions in Ankara.

The last major stage comprised steps from 8 to 10, each of which had a connection with and guided the following step. Accordingly, the data were analyzed

through descriptive and inferential statistics, which enabled description and discussion of the findings, which, in the same vein, enabled drawing conclusions. As the final step, conclusions were drawn on the research problems stated at the beginning of the study and implications were provided.

On the whole, the data concerning self-reported cognitions and actions in relation to language learning and teaching processes were collected from a large group of EFL instructors and analyzed in a descriptive and inferential research style.

3.2. Research Questions

The study included five main research questions, which clustered around the fundamental concepts of language learning cognitions and language teaching practices of EFL instructors:

(1) What are the language learning cognitions of EFL instructors regarding linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners?

(2) Do those cognitions change according to certain variables such as: age, teaching experience, academic background, workplace, and national or international exam scores indicating language proficiency?

(3) What are the language teaching actions of EFL instructors regarding traditional (conservative) as well as innovative (liberal) pedagogies, communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development?

(4) Do those actions change according to certain variables such as: age, teaching experience, academic background, workplace, and national or international exam scores indicating language proficiency?

(5) What is the pattern of the relationship between the sets of language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of EFL instructors?

Based on the research questions stated above, cognitions and actions that a participant rated among the given set of items appeared as dependent variables for the second and the third research questions, while they became both dependent and independent variables for the last research question. On the other hand, there appeared five major independent variables: (a) age; (b) teaching experience; (c)

academic background, which emerged as a general outcome of the items asking about the academic programs the participants attended during their undergraduate and graduate education; (d) national or international exam scores indicating the language proficiency of the participants, and (e) workplace. The rationale for including those independent variables in the second and the fourth research questions was to see how many of them would have a real effect on EFL instructors' cognitions and to assess how significant those background variables would be for the instructors' language teaching practices.

3.3. Population and Sample

The target population of the study, to which the results might be generalized, was determined as the EFL instructors teaching in various higher education institutions in different parts of Turkey, and the sub-population of the study was determined as the EFL instructors teaching in the universities in Ankara.

In Turkey, there are currently 175 universities, 15 of which are in Ankara. Five of those fifteen institutions serve as public while the rest as private universities. These universities hire instructors among the graduates of departments like English Language Teaching, English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, English Linguistics, and English Translation and Interpretation. Some of the universities do not require any pedagogical formation certificate when hiring their EFL instructors. The number of the EFL instructors at a university changes from 10 to 250 in line with the university's being a public or a private institution, being newly-founded or having long-standing background, and having English as medium of instruction or not. It is estimated that approximately more than 7,000 instructors teach English as a Foreign Language in various higher education institutions in Turkey.

Considering this huge number, it was difficult to reach the target population working in 175 different institutions in 81 different provinces; thus the study was conducted with the sub-population, rather than a sample. When determining the sub-population, it was important that they were representative of the actual target population, and the selection procedure was feasible. Considering the resources of the researcher, such as financing, time, transportation as well as the limitations

placed upon research by institutions' permission procedures, it was decided to conduct the study with the instructors teaching in Ankara, who comprises the sub-population. Since this study attempted to acquire data from every member of the sub-population, the study group was called a 'census,' not a 'sample' (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

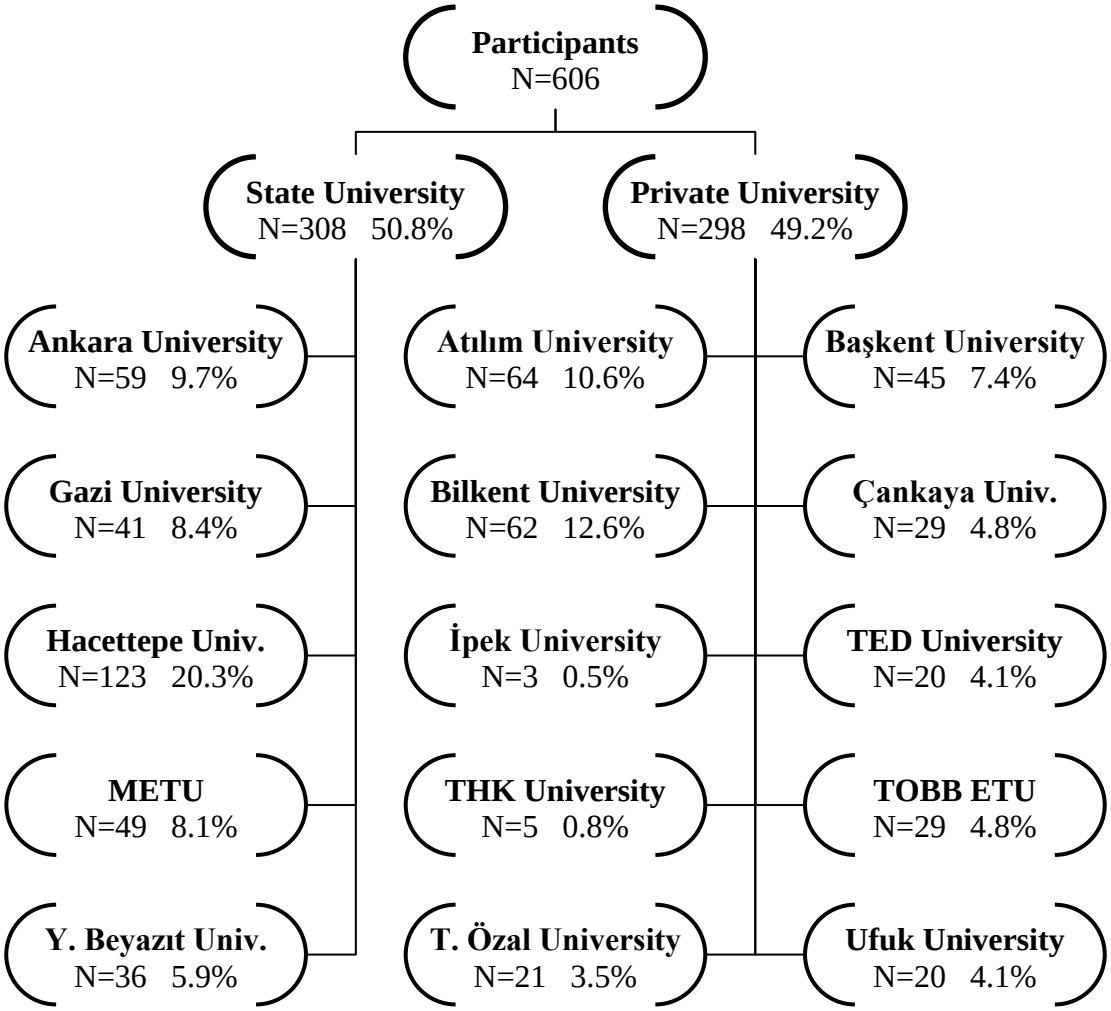

Figure 3.2 *Participants' Distribution by the Institutions*

It was thought that surveying the entire sub-population and reaching the EFL instructors working in Ankara would be more practical, feasible, and meaningful as it was a representative of higher education profile in Turkey, having both private and public universities founded recently or long ago. Approximately, there were 1250

instructors teaching English language in the province of Ankara which seemed to be enough for an empirical study. Visiting each university in a row made it easy to see and even talk with the instructors in that particular university. Since responding to the inventory was on a volunteer basis, the census participating in the study consisted of 606 EFL instructors teaching in 15 different higher education institutions of Ankara. This number indicates that almost half of all the EFL instructors in Ankara took part in this research. Figure 3.2 displays the distribution of the participants by each higher education institution represented in the study. The distribution is presented in terms of the workplace (the name and the type of the institutions).

3.4. Data Collection Instrument

The data to be analyzed in the study were collected though a single but a comprehensive cross-sectional inventory named *EFLICAI (EFL Instructors' Cognitions and Actions Inventory)*, which was designed by the researcher to gather information related to cognitions and actions of the participants and was administered by the researcher himself (see Appendix C for the sample copy of the inventory distributed to the participants).

3.4.1. Construction of Data Collection Instrument

While designing the inventory, a variety of steps, demonstrated in Figure 3.3, were followed. To start to design the inventory, previously conducted studies about language teachers' cognitions were analyzed and other related resources of literature were reviewed. Accordingly, items related with the dimensions in the research questions were developed. In the meantime, daily speeches, interviews, and observations reflecting thoughts and practices of in-service EFL instructors, as insiders in the field, were noted down. Apart from these, opinions of head of departments, teacher trainers, and mentor teachers around were taken into account, which brought different items in relation to the issues mentioned in the problem statement of the research. As a result of this three-step inquiry, an item pool was constructed. There were 204 items in the pool at the initial step.

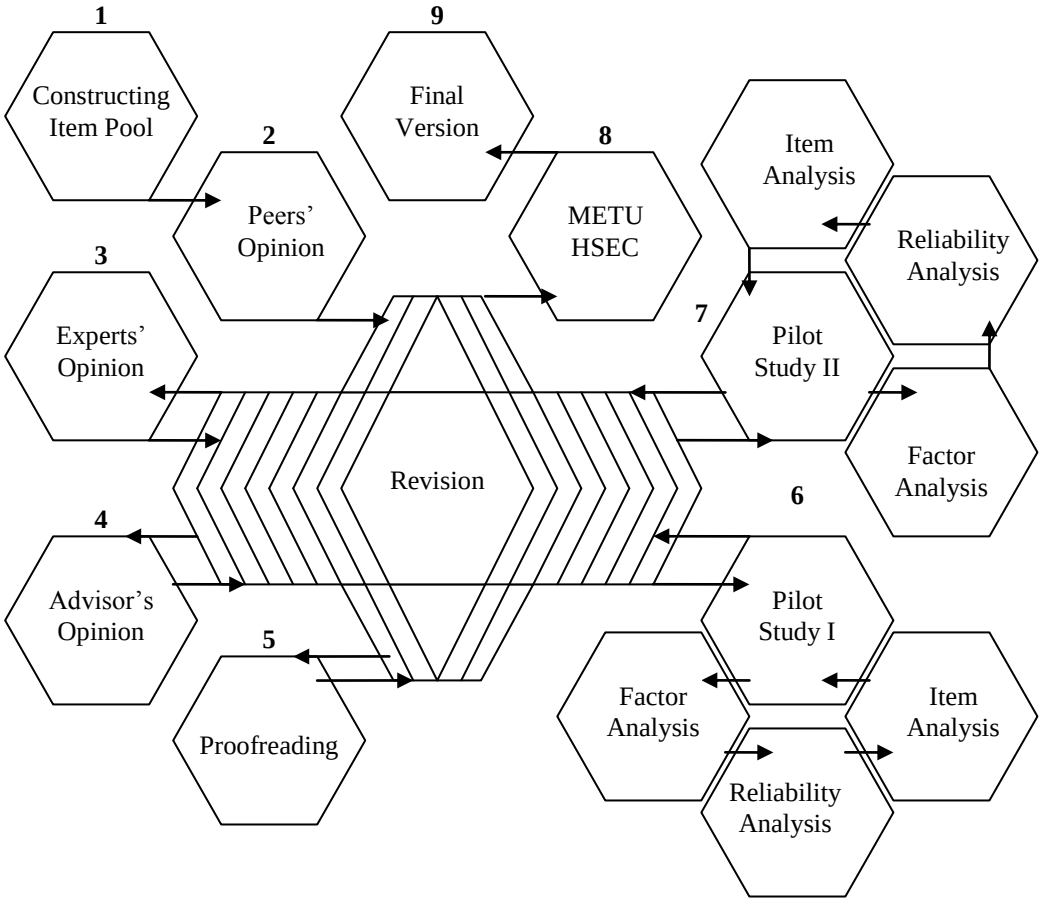

Figure 3.3 *Steps Followed to Construct the Data Collection Instrument*

In order to eliminate irrelevant items or add more appropriate items, three peers working as EFL instructors were asked to review the inventory and provide their opinions. Agreement with the peers on the items to be included in the inventory was an important means of obtaining feedback. Most of the comments were related to ambiguity and clarity of the sample items. As peers suggested, vague items particularly in relation to the dimensions of linguistic aptitude and priorities in language learning were removed. Making necessary revisions based on the peers' opinion, three experts were asked to provide their suggestions for the inventory. One of them was an Associate Professor working as a teacher educator at the Department of English Language Teaching at a public university and working on 'teacher belief, teacher autonomy, and learner autonomy;' one of them was an instructor having

more than ten years of teaching experience, working as an in-service teacher trainer at a public university, studying in-service training needs of practicing teachers, and holding a PhD in the field of Educational Administration; and one of them was also an instructor holding a PhD in the field of Curriculum and Instruction, working on communicative curriculum planning, and having more than 20 years of teaching experience. As the experts know a great deal about educational research as well as language teaching, they were consulted to check on adequacy and appropriateness of the items and their relevance to the content and the purpose of the study. With the help of experts' opinion, items in relation to learner-centeredness, personal and professional development, and communicative curriculum planning were enriched, and redundant items were removed from the inventory. As the next step, the advisor's opinion on the inventory was taken. Based on his suggestions, necessary revisions were made, and the number of the items in the initial inventory was decreased to 132. Before starting the pilot works, a native speaker of English proofread the items and edited the inventory in terms of language use and expressions. Proofreading ensured the accuracy and the authenticity of the items.

The first comprehensive step to evaluate the items in the inventory and to reach a meaningful instrument was owing to the first pilot study, which was conducted with 55 instructors teaching English at Hacettepe University School of Foreign Languages. With the help of this process, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to specify underlining dimensions in the inventory and reliability analysis was performed to estimate internal consistency across the dimensions. As a result of the factorial loadings and item analyses, redundant items were deleted from the inventory and necessary items were categorized under relevant categories. This step made it possible to revise and edit the inventory and reach a 102-item inventory, which required another pilot study to be able to obtain more sound findings.

Before conducting the second pilot study, advisor's opinion was taken and it was decided to reach a larger group of participants for the second pilot study. In the second time, 86 participants from various public and private universities in Turkey were asked to respond to the inventory through an online survey. It took about five weeks to collect data form the second group, which helped the researcher conduct another factor analysis together with reliability and item analyses. Based on the

results of the second pilot study, minor revisions were made. The next step was the proposal of the inventory to the METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee. The final version of the inventory was obtained upon the approval of the METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee.

The inventory was named as *EFLICAI (EFL Instructors' Cognitions and Actions Inventory)* and included three main sections: (1) Demographic information part including items asking about background variables such as the participants' age, teaching experience, academic background, and national/international exam scores showing language proficiency. (2) Statements measuring the participants' language learning cognitions with respect to linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners. (3) Statements measuring the participants' language teaching actions in relation to traditional (conservative) or innovative (liberal) pedagogies, communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal and professional development (see Figure 3.4 for the framework of the data collection instrument and Table 3.4 for operational definitions of the dimensions in the inventory).

A *Likert Scale* was adopted in the second section of the inventory to inquire the cognitions on language learning processes in five-level scale from *(1) Strongly Disagree* to *(5) Strongly Agree*; and a *Rating Scale* was adopted in the third section of the inventory to inquire the frequency of the reported language teaching actions in five level from *(1) Never* to *(5) Always*. Each section of the inventory required the participants to read the items and simply mark the preferred choice across each statement.

The first section of the inventory included 12 items, which required participants to provide information about their educational and professional background (see Appendix C for the items in the first section). The second section of the inventory included 54 items, which measured language learning cognitions of the participants on three dimensions: linguistic aptitude; priorities in language learning; and good language learners. The third section of the inventory included 48 items, which were divided into six specific dimensions aiming to measure language teaching practices: traditional (conservative) pedagogy; innovative (liberal) pedagogy; communicative practices in instructional planning; communicative

practices in error correction; learner-centeredness; and personal and professional development.

The first dimension of the second section, linguistic aptitude, which referred to the potential that a person, relative to other individuals, has for learning a language more easily, was measured through 24 items. Those items were mainly constructed based on conceptual literature and previously-conducted empirical studies. Accordingly, some items were taken and adapted from Horwitz's (1985) BALLI (Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) and some other items were created by referring to books and articles on language acquisition and language teaching methodology (see the items from 1 to 24 in Section II in Appendix C for the statements measuring cognitions on linguistic aptitude).

The second dimension of the second section, priorities in language learning, which represented the areas/skills that are attached importance to and believed to be dealt with first in a language learning process, included 12 items, which were developed by the researcher himself based on conceptual literature and peers' opinion (see the items from 25 to 36 in Section II in Appendix C for the statements measuring cognitions on priorities in language learning).

The last dimension of the second section was about the thinking and learning styles of the good language learners, which included 18 items. The items in this part were the adapted versions of some items in Sternberg and Wagner's (1991) MSG-TSI (Mental Self Government Theory Thinking Styles Inventory) or the created ones from the theory's descriptions (see the items from 37 to 54 in Section II in Appendix C for the statements measuring cognitions on good language learners).

In the third section of the inventory, the first two dimensions were about the pedagogies followed in language teaching practices, which was measured through 16 items. Those items were constructed based on the Mental Self Government Theory of Sternberg and Wagner (1991) and on the conceptual literature. The concept referred to the act of selecting a logical choice among the available alternatives related to teaching and learning issues (see the items from 1 to 16 in Section III in Appendix C for the statements measuring actions for pedagogical inclinations).

EFLICAI

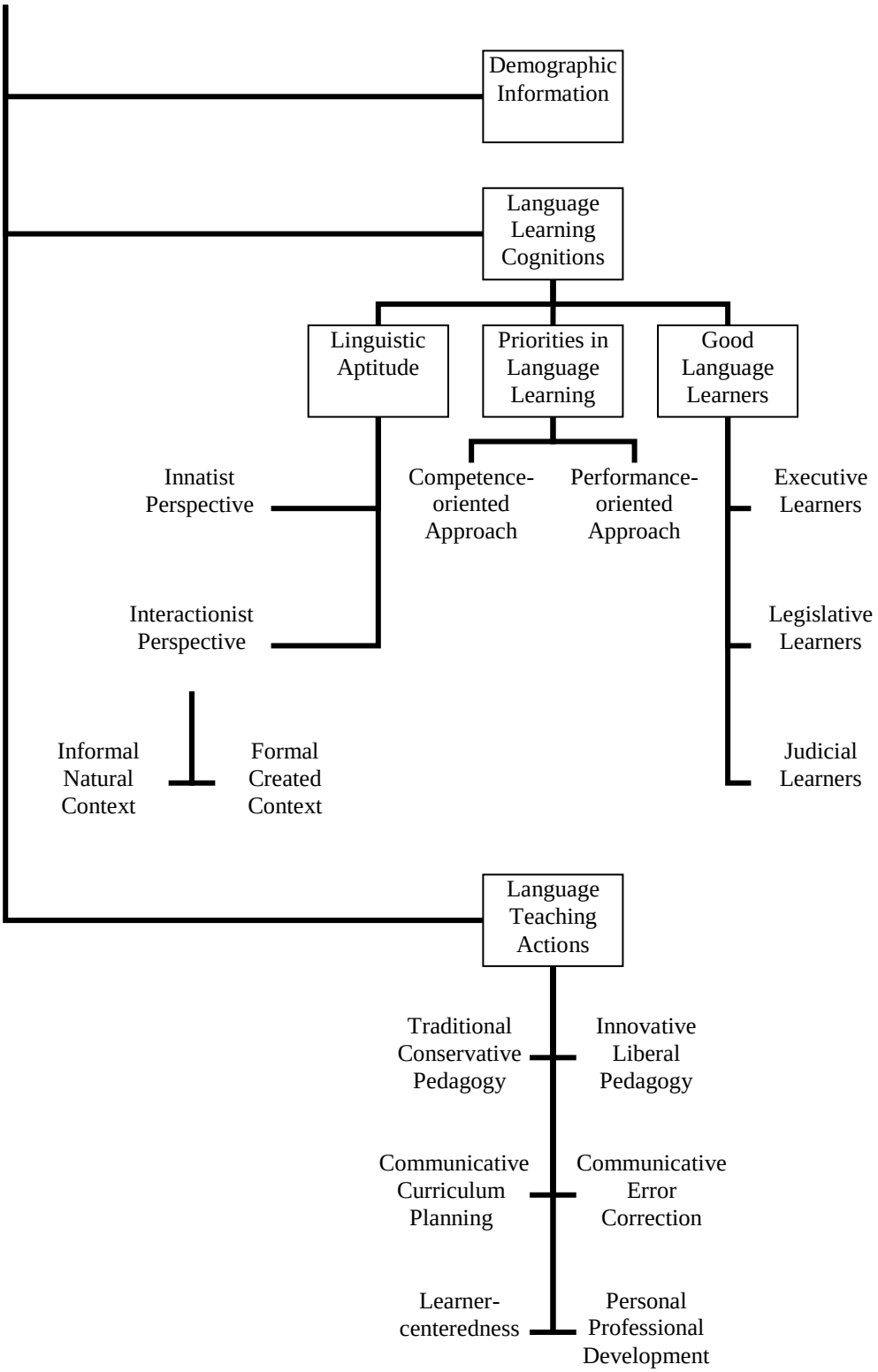

Figure 3.4 *Framework of the Data Collection Instrument*

The third and the fourth dimensions of the third section of the inventory were related to the items measuring the actions reflecting communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction (see the items from 17 to 32 in Section III in Appendix C for the statements measuring communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction). The last two dimensions of the third section of the inventory were about the teachers' learner-centred actions and attempts for personal and professional developments (see the items from 33 to 48 in Section III in Appendix C for the statements measuring actions for learner-centeredness and personal and professional developments).

Table 3.4 *Operational Definitions of the Variables*

Variables	Definitions
language learning cognitions	the unobservable cognitive dimensions of individuals in relation to what they think of, believe in, know about and understand from language learning
linguistic aptitude	the potential that a person, relative to other individuals, has for learning a language more easily
innatist perspective	the philosophical doctrine asserting that the mind, rather than a blank slate, is born with ideas/knowledge and not all knowledge is obtained from experience and the senses
interactionist perspective	the sociological doctrine asserting that ideas/knowledge takes on shape and meaning through countless interactions between the learner and the environment
formal (created) context-oriented view	the view emphasizing the school/classroom environment, which is institutionally and consciously created and where learning is a major goal
informal (natural) context-oriented view	the view emphasizing the physical/social environment that naturally exists around the individuals and where learning might occur, but not necessarily as a primary goal
priorities in language learning	the areas/skills that are attached importance to and believed to be dealt with first in a language learning process
competence-oriented approach	the approach seeing the language as a system of linguistic elements and the target of learning by giving more emphasis to knowing something about the language
performance-oriented approach	the approach seeing the language as a system of communicative elements and a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations by giving more emphasis to doing something with the language

Table 3.4 (continued)

good language learners	the characteristics of individuals who can learn a language effectively
executive learner-oriented view	the view favouring the learners who do a piece of work, perform a duty, or put a plan into action by following the given instructions
legislative learner-oriented view	the view favouring the learners who use their power to make plans or initiate changes in plans and applications
judicial learner-oriented view	the view favouring the learners who are able to make analyses, comparisons, evaluations, and judgments on situations using a repertoire of their personal-practical knowledge
language teaching actions	language teaching practices routinely performed by language teachers as a result of their gains from prior learning, pre-service and in-service trainings, and in-class teaching experiences
traditional (conservative) pedagogy	the inherited, established, or customary patterns of thoughts and practices about teaching that have been used by previous people for a long time
innovative (liberal) pedagogy	the enriched, cultivated, or modernized patterns of thoughts and practices about teaching that include new, creative, and free ideas and methods
communicative instructional planning	organizing language teaching processes that focuses on meaningful communication rather than structure
communicative error correction	helping to reconstruct written/spoken messages with errors by emphasizing meaningful communication rather than structure
learner-centeredness	teachers' attempts to adjust their instructional planning, teaching methods, and assessment procedures to certain norms in order to optimize their students' opportunity to learn
personal and professional development	all types of attempts teachers make in order to reach their fullest potential in teaching profession and personal growth

3.4.2. Pilot Work

With the help of the pilot studies forming the basis for the actual procedures of data collection and analyses, it was intended to see probable results and limitations of the study beforehand. The data collection instrument was piloted twice: (1) firstly with 55 EFL instructors teaching at Hacettepe University School of Foreign

Languages and (2) secondly with 86 EFL instructors from various public and private universities (outside Ankara) in Turkey. Neither of the participants of the two pilot studies was included in the actual study. The results from both pilot studies were used to finalize the scope and the content of the inventory.

Three types of statistical analyses were conducted in both of the pilot works: factor analysis, reliability analysis, and item analysis, all of which provided crucial feedback for revising the data collection tool. According to Field (2009), effectiveness of a factor analysis depends on sample size, and the common rule suggests having at least 10-15 participants per variable. Alternatively, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis. Considering those suppositions, neither of the samples in the two pilot studies was adequate for factor analysis in terms of size; nevertheless, an exploratory factor analysis in each pilot study was conducted in order to assess the underlying structures of the dimensions in the inventory, and as a method of extraction, maximum likelihood was employed. With the aim of increasing interpretability of the rotated factors, direct oblimin method of oblique rotation was chosen.

For each analysis, fundamental assumptions such as normality, linearity, outliers, and multicollinearity were checked in advance. Not all Skewness-Kurtosis values were close enough to the ideal value zero, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests indicated significant ($p < .05$) values, which could mean that the data were not normally distributed. Although Q-Q plots and histograms frequently displayed normal distributions, Box Plots revealed some outliers in certain items. KMO values ranged from .61 to .72, which revealed a minimum adequacy for sampling. However, the results of Bartlett's test of sphericity were all < .005, which indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for factor analysis. For multicollinearity, the determinants of correlation matrices ranged from .007 to .33, all of which were grater than the necessary value 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

3.4.2.1. Pilot Work I

The participants involved in the first pilot work were selected conveniently from Hacettepe University School of Foreign Languages. It was conducted in November 2012 during a department meeting on a single day. The participants

responded to 132 items in the initial version of the *EFLICAI*. As the demographic information revealed, the participants were between the ages of 22 and 49 and had 1 to 26 years of teaching experience. Only 4 of them were male, whereas the rest were female. They were mainly the graduates of Hacettepe University (69.4%) and METU (16.7%). While only 3 of the participants were doing a PhD, 58.3% of them held a Master's degree. Their YDS (Foreign Language Exam) scores ranged from 84 to 99.

The initial version of *EFLICAI* included 72 items to measure cognitions and 60 items to measure actions. As the first step, exploratory factor analysis was conducted for cognitions set. Since the items in cognitions set did not provide a sound factorial loading, each of the three conceptual dimensions was analyzed through a separate factor analysis.

For the 36 items measuring cognitions on *linguistic aptitude*, Eigenvalues greater than 1.0, Scree Plot and Pattern Matrix indicated a five-factor structure. These five factors accounted for 25.32%, 11.20%, 9.22%, 7.43%, and 6.43% of the total variance respectively. A cumulative of 59.60% of the variance was explained by this structure. However, three of the items loaded on the fourth factor, and two of the items loaded on the fifth factor. To have a more meaningful picture, a simpler structure (three-factor structure) was tried and it was seen that these five items did not load on any factors. On the other hand, two of the items loaded on both the first and the third factors. As a result, those seven items were deleted.

To assess whether the items that were summed to create the *linguistic aptitude* dimension formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed for each factor. As a further step, the result of the item analysis was considered, and 5 items were deleted from the dimension. Thus, Cronbach's alpha increased, and the *linguistic aptitude* dimension eventually consisted of 24 items (see Table 3.4.2.1.1).

Table 3.4.2.1.1 *Pilot Work I: Reliability Analyses of Items on Linguistic Aptitude*

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Factor 1	.550	11	.693	8
Factor 2	.662	9	.702	8
Factor 3	.707	9	.768	8
Linguistic Aptitude	.633	29	.764	24

For the 18 items measuring cognitions on *priorities in language learning*, Eigenvalues greater than 1.0, Scree Plot and Pattern Matrix indicated a three-factor structure. These three factors accounted for 34.38%, 18.89%, and 11.24% of the total variance respectively. A cumulative of 64.51% of the variance was explained by these three factors. Four of the items were loaded on both the first and the second factors, thus they were deleted from the list to eliminate ambiguity. On the other hand, the third factor included only two items. Therefore, a simpler structure (two-factor structure) was tried, and it was seen that these two items did not load on any factors, thus they were also deleted (see Table 3.4.2.1.2 for the Cronbach's alpha for the remaining 12 items in the dimension)

Table 3.4.2.1.2 *Pilot Work I: Reliability Analyses of Items on Priorities in Language Learning*

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Factor 1	.683	6
Factor 2	.806	6
Priorities in Language Learning	.748	12

For the 18 items measuring cognitions on good language learners, Eigenvalues greater than 1.0, Scree Plot and Pattern Matrix indicated a three-factor structure. These three factors accounted for 34.25%, 14.31%, and 9.72% of the total variance respectively. A cumulative of 58.27% of the variance was explained by these three factors. To assess whether the items regarding *good language learners* formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed (see Table 3.4.2.1.3 for the values indicating reliability).

Table 3.4.2.1.3 *Pilot Work I: Reliability Analyses of Items on Good Language Learners*

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Factor 1	.754	6
Factor 2	.852	6
Factor 3	.897	6
Good Language Learners	.860	18

The second part of the inventory, language teaching actions of the participants, was measured through 60 items. As the factor analysis for the actions did not provide

a sound output, conceptual categorization was done, and the dimensions were determined accordingly. Item analysis for each dimension was conducted. Consequently, 12 items were deleted from the list and Cronbach's alphas increased for each dimension (see Table 3.4.2.1.4).

Table 3.4.2.1.4 *Pilot Work I: Reliability Analyses of Items for Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions in Part III	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Dimension 1	.533	10	.714	8
Dimension 2	.604	10	.723	8
Dimension 3	.641	12	.703	8
Dimension 4	.652	12	.811	8
Dimension 5	.784	8	.784	8
Dimension 6	.782	8	.782	8

To sum up, Pilot Work I enabled the researcher to revise and edit the inventory by reducing the number of the items from 132 to 102 and to have a more reliable data collection tool with the help of the analyses.

3.4.2.2. Pilot Work II

The participants involved in the second pilot study were selected based on a snowball sampling strategy, which made it possible to reach 86 EFL instructors teaching at different higher education contexts in different provinces of Turkey. The participants were contacted with via e-mail and the administration was carried out via online survey. Collection of the instruments took five weeks, and the analysis of the findings took two weeks (in January and February 2013). The participants responded to 102 items in the final version of the *EFLICAI*.

Demographic information revealed that the participants of the second pilot work were between the ages of 22 and 56 and had 1 to 27 years of teaching experience. They were mainly the graduates of English Language Teaching (55.8%) and English Language and Literature (22.8%) departments. 90.4% of them had a pedagogical formation, while 9.6% did not. They were the graduates of 8 different higher education institutions in Turkey: Anadolu, Ankara, Bilkent, Bosphorus, Gazi, Hacettepe, İstanbul, and Middle East Technical Universities. 65.1% of them held a

Master's degree while only 9 of them were doing Ph.D. Their YDS (Foreign Language Exam) scores ranged from 80 to 99. 41.9% of them were teaching at a state university, whereas the rest 58.1% were teaching at a private university. Their teaching contexts represented 35 different universities (private or state) in Turkey.

As in the first pilot study, a factor analysis for each dimension of the cognitions set was conducted. To start with *linguistic aptitude*, three factors were requested based on the first pilot work. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 18.61% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 9.67%, and the third factor accounted for 7.15%. A cumulative of 35.43% of the variance was explained by these three factors. As for *priorities in language learning*, two factors were requested based on the first pilot work. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 24.29% of the variance, and the second factor accounted for 18.73%. A cumulative of 43.02% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Regarding *good language learners*, three factors were requested based on the first pilot work and the literature. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 21.24% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 12.22%, and the third factor accounted for 6.23%. A cumulative of 39.69% of the variance was explained by these three factors. Table 3.4.2.2.1 displays the reliability of the dimensions within the cognitions set in Pilot Work II.

Table 3.4.2.2.1 *Pilot Work II: Reliability Analyses of Cognitions Set*

Cognitions Set	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Linguistic Aptitude	.809	24
Innatist perspective	.782	8
Informal context-oriented view	.703	8
Formal context-oriented view	.739	8
Priorities in Language Learning	.761	12
Items reflecting competence-oriented approach	.690	6
Items reflecting performance-oriented approach	.826	6
Good Language Learners	.871	18
Items favouring legislative learners	.774	6
Items favouring executive learners	.833	6
Items favouring judicial learners	.881	6

In relation to the actions set, only one factor analysis was conducted to assess the underlying structure of the dimension of pedagogical inclinations. For those 16 items in the dimension, Eigenvalues greater than 1.0, Scree Plot and Pattern Matrix

indicated a two-factor structure. These two factors accounted for 25.97%, and 11.19% of the total variance respectively. A cumulative of 37.16% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Table 3.4.2.2.2 displays the reliability of the dimensions within the actions set in Pilot Work II.

Table 3.4.2.2.2 *Pilot Work II: Reliability Analyses of Actions Set*

Actions Set	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.744	8
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.742	8
Communicative Instructional Planning	.730	8
Communicative Error Correction	.748	8
Learner-centeredness	.798	8
Personal and Professional Development	.780	8

3.5. Factor Analyses

In order to assess the underlying structures of the dimensions in the inventory, factor analyses were conducted for the following dimensions: linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, good language learners, and pedagogical inclinations. As Field (2009) suggested, the first three things to be done for factor analyses were assumption testing, data screening, and sampling adequacy.

In assumption testing, various assumptions fundamental to factor analysis were checked. The first one, the assumption of normality, which indicates if the data are normally distributed or not, was checked through Skewness-Kurtosis values, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests, Q-Q plots, and histograms. At some points, Skewness-Kurtosis values were not close enough to the ideal value zero, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests indicated significant ($p < .05$) values, which could mean that the data were not normally distributed. However, Field (2009) claims that it is easier to get such significant results from small deviations from normality in a study with a large sample size. Considering this argument, it was thought to look at the shape of the distribution rather than using formal inference tests as the sample was quite large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, Q-Q plots, and histograms were frequently inspected in this study for normality assumption. Secondly, with the help of scattered plots, linearity was checked to

determine whether the variables are linearly related. The third assumption was about outliers, which were inspected through box plots.

As for data screening, *R*-matrix (Correlation Matrix) for each analysis was checked to examine correlation scores higher than .30 (Hair et al, 2006). At this point, it was equally necessary to have variables that correlate fairly well, but not perfectly. With this purpose, the *R*-matrix was scanned for correlations below .30 and greater than .90 (Field, 2009). It was important to avoid extreme multicollinearity (variables that are very highly correlated) and singularity (variables that are perfectly correlated). Multicollinearity was also detected by looking at the determinant of the *R*-matrix, which is expected be greater than the necessary value 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

Lastly regarding the sampling, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (>.60), Bartlett's test of sphericity (<.005) and the anti-image correlation matrices were studied in detail to determine whether the sample size was adequate for factor analyses (Field, 2009).

The first factor analysis was conducted for the dimension of Linguistic Aptitude to assess its underlying structure on the 24 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). When checking the normality assumption, it was seen that Skewness and Kurtosis values for those 24 items were within the limits of ±3. Though many of them were close to 1, some of them were closer to the ideal value zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The scores seemed to be spread on both positive and negative sides. Skewness and Kurtosis values for the items from 1 to 24 are provided in Appendix D. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that normality could not be assumed for the current data set ($p < .05$). Test of normality for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are displayed in Appendix D. As Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest, the significance levels of such tests are not as important as their actual size and the visual appearances of the distributions. Therefore Q-Q plots and histograms considered as important graphical devices assessing normality were checked, and it was seen that the normality was assumed for most of the items in the dimension. However, Box Plots used to check possible outliers in the data set indicated that there were extreme scores for ten of the items,

and the rest had relatively normal distribution. To conclude the process of normality check, it could be assumed that some of the tests violated normality.

The *R*-matrix showing how each of the 24 items is associated with each of the other 23 items indicated that there were a few problematic cases indicating correlations below .30. However, the determinant value of *R*-matrix was detected for multicollinearity, and it was .001, which was greater than the necessary value 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, *KMO* = .80, which falls into the range of good values (Field, 2009) and ensures that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All KMO values for individual items were > .71, which is well above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field, 2009). Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (276) =2802.01, $p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for factor analysis (Field, 2009). KMO and Bartlett's Test Results are presented in Appendix D.

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Four factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 50.61% of the variance. The Scree Plot was slightly ambiguous to interpret as it showed points of inflexion for more factors (see Scree Plots in Appendix D). As Field (2009) clarifies, Kaiser's criterion is accurate when there are less than 30 variables, and communalities after extraction are greater than .70 or when the sample size exceeds 250, and the average communality is greater than .60. When the communalities for the items in the dimension were checked, the average of the communalities was .38 (9.197/24=.383), which could mean Kaiser's rule might not be accurate on both grounds.

Three factors were requested based on the pilot work and the fact that the items were designed to index three constructs: *innatist* perspective, *informal context-oriented* view, and *formal context-oriented* view. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 21.47% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 12.60%, and the third factor accounted for 11.46%. A cumulative of 45.53% of the variance was explained by these three factors. Table 3.5.1 displays the number of the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors. Accordingly, the first factor indexing *formal context-oriented* view loads on the last eight items (from 17 to 24), the second factor

indexing *informal context-oriented* view loads on the items from 9 to 16, and the third factor indexing *innatist* perspective loads on the first eight items (from 1 to 8).

Table 3.5.1 *Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors: Linguistic Aptitude*

	Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
item 23	.776		
item 22	.743		
item 24	.710		
item 20	.693		
item 19	.587		
item 18	.501		
item 21	.461		
item 17	.393		
item 13		.677	
item 12		.676	
item 16		.607	
item 14		.605	
item 11		.567	
item 15		.535	
item 10		.509	
item 9		.461	
item 5			.703
item 4			.689
item 6			.661
item 3			.600
item 2			.576
item 7			.502
item 8			.403
item 1			.369

The second factor analysis was conducted for the dimension of *Priorities in Language Learning* to assess its underlying structure on the 12 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). When checking the normality assumption, it was seen that Skewness and Kurtosis values for those 24 items were within the limits of ±2. Some of them were close to 1, and many of them were closer to the ideal value zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The scores seemed to be spread on both positive and negative sides. Skewness and Kurtosis values for the items from 25 to 36 are provided in Appendix D. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that normality could not be assumed for the data set in this dimension ($p < .05$). Test of normality for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are

displayed in Appendix D. Q-Q plots and histograms considered as important graphical devices assessing normality were checked, and it was seen that the normality was assumed for most of the items in the dimension. Box Plots used to check possible outliers in the data set indicated that there were extreme scores for a few of the items, and the rest had relatively normal distribution. To conclude, it could be assumed that some of the tests violated normality.

The *R*-matrix indicating how each of the 12 items is associated with each of the other 11 items indicated that there were two problematic cases indicating correlations below .30. Additionally, the determinant value of *R*-matrix was detected for multicollinearity, and it was .003, which was greater than 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, *KMO* = .77, which falls into the range of good values (Field, 2009) and ensures that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All KMO values for individual items were > .69, which is above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field, 2009). Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (66) =1956.53, $p < .00$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for factor analysis (Field, 2009). KMO and Bartlett's Test Results are presented in Appendix D.

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Three factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 57.65% of the variance. The Scree Plot showed points of inflexion for three factors. As Field (2009) clarifies, the communalities for the items in the dimension were checked, the average of the communalities was .48 (5.797/24=.483), which could mean that Kaiser's rule might not be accurate (see Scree Plots in Appendix D).

Two factors were requested based on the pilot work and the fact that the items were designed to index *competence-oriented* and *performance-oriented* approaches. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 24.51% of the variance, and the second factor accounted for 23.80%. A cumulative of 48.31% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Table 3.5.2 displays the number of the items and factor loadings. Accordingly, the first factor indexing *competence-oriented* approach loads most strongly on the items from 25 to 30, and the second factor indexing *performance-oriented* approach loads items from 31 to 36.

Table 3.5.2 *Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors: Priorities in Language Learning*

	Factor Loadings	
	1	2
item 26	.769	
item 25	.765	
item 27	.705	
item 28	.698	
item 29	.641	
item 30	.589	
item 35		.773
item 34		.740
item 31		.734
item 32		.699
item 36		.631
item 33		.499

The third factor analysis was conducted for the dimension of *Good Language Learners* to assess its underlying structure on the 18 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). When checking the normality assumption, it was seen that Skewness and Kurtosis values for those 18 items were within the limits of ±2. Though many of them were close to 1, some of them were closer to the ideal value zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The scores seemed to be spread on both positive and negative sides. Skewness and Kurtosis values for the items from 37 to 54 are provided in Appendix D. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that normality could not be assumed for the current data set ($p < .05$). Test of normality for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are displayed in Appendix D. As Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested, the significance levels of such tests are not as important as their actual size and the visual appearances of the distributions. Therefore Q-Q plots and histograms considered as important graphical devices assessing normality were checked, and it was seen that the normality was assumed for most of the items in the dimension. However, Box Plots used to check possible outliers in the data set indicated that there were a few extreme scores, and the rest had relatively normal distribution. To conclude the process of normality check, it could be assumed that some of the tests violated normality.

The *R*-matrix displaying how each of the 18 items is associated with each of the other 17 items indicated that there were a few problematic cases indicating

correlations below .30. However, the determinant value of *R*-matrix was detected for multicollinearity, and it was .001, which was greater than the necessary value 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, *KMO* = .85, which falls into the range of great values (Field, 2009) and ensures that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All KMO values for individual items were > .78, which is well above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field, 2009). Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (153) =4516.66, $p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for factor analysis (Field, 2009). KMO and Bartlett's Test Results are presented in Appendix D.

In the initial analysis, three factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 54.56% of the variance. The first factor accounted for 19.71% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 19.41%, and the third factor accounted for 15.44%. Table 3.5.3 displays the factor loadings.

Table 3.5.3 *Factor Loadings: Good Language Learners*

	Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
item 54	.735		
item 51	.731		
item 53	.728		
item 52	.720		
item 50	.715		
item 49	.628		
item 46		.889	
item 47		.842	
item 45		.819	
item 44		.792	
item 48		.567	
item 43		.473	
item 39			.803
item 40			.756
item 38			.723
item 37			.471
item 41			.468
item 42			.453

According to Table 3.5.3, the first factor indexing *judicial learner-oriented* view loads most strongly on the last six items (from 49 to 54), the second factor

indexing *executive learner-oriented* view loads most strongly on the items from 37 to 42, and the third factor indexing *legislative learner-oriented* view loads on the items from 43 to 48. The Scree Plot also showed points of inflexion for four factors (see Scree Plots in Appendix D). When the communalities for the items in the dimension were checked, the average of the communalities was .55 (9.820/18=.546).

The last factor analysis was conducted for the dimension of *Pedagogical Inclinations* in the actions set to assess its underlying structure on the 16 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). When checking the normality assumption, it was seen that Skewness and Kurtosis values for those 16 items were within the limits of ±1. Though a few items were close to 1, most of them were closer to the ideal value zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The scores seemed to be spread on both positive and negative sides. Skewness and Kurtosis values for the 16 items in the actions set are provided in Appendix D. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that normality could not be assumed for the current data set ($p < .05$). Test of normality for Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are displayed in Appendix D. As Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested, the significance levels of such tests are not as important as their actual size and the visual appearances of the distributions. Therefore Q-Q plots and histograms considered as important graphical devices assessing normality were checked, and it was seen that the normality was assumed for most of the items in the dimension. However, Box Plots used to check possible outliers in the data set indicated that there were extreme scores for two of the items, and the rest had relatively normal distribution. To conclude the process of normality check, it could be assumed that some of the tests violated normality.

The *R*-matrix showing how each of the 16 items is associated with each of the other 15 items indicated that there were a few problematic cases indicating correlations below .30. However, the determinant value of *R*-matrix was detected for multicollinearity, and it was .03, which was greater than the necessary value 0.00001 (Field, 2009).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, $KMO = .75$, which falls into the range of good values (Field, 2009) and ensures that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. All KMO values for individual items were > .67, which is above the acceptable limit of .50 (Field, 2009).

Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (120) =1861.38, $p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for factor analysis (Field, 2009). KMO and Bartlett's Test Results are presented in Appendix D.

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Four factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 52.54% of the variance. The Scree Plot was slightly ambiguous to interpret as it showed points of inflexion for more factors (see Scree Plots in Appendix D). The communalities for the items in the dimension were checked, and the average of the communalities was .37 (5.966/16=.373), which could mean that Kaiser's rule might not be accurate on both grounds (Field, 2009).

Two factors were requested based on the pilot work and the fact that the items were designed to index two constructs: *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy and *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 20.59% of the variance, and the second factor accounted for 16.71%. A cumulative of 37.30% of the variance was explained by these two factors. Table 3.5.4 displays the number of the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors.

Table 3.5.4 *Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors: Pedagogical Inclinations*

	Factor Loadings	
	1	2
item 10	.774	
item 16	.757	
item 11	.680	
item 15	.614	
item 12	.612	
item 14	.556	
item 9	.511	
item 13	.471	
item 6		.620
item 3		.606
item 5		.603
item 2		.599
Item 7		.587
Item 4		.567
Item 8		.523
Item 1		.468

According to Table 3.5.4, the first factor indexing *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy loads most strongly on the items from 9 to 16), and the second factor indexing *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy loads items from 1 to 8. The other four dimensions (communicative instructional planning, communicative error correction, learner-centeredness, and personal/professional development) in the actions set were conceptually categorized and item analyses were conducted.

3.6. Validity and Reliability

In the scope of this study, different measures were taken in order to ensure validity and reliability. The number of the items included in the data collection instrument was the first step, since 54 items were designed to measure language learning cognitions and 48 items for language teaching actions. Other steps taken to develop and finalize the data collection instrument such as consulting expert and peer opinion, frequent revisions made by the advisor, and proofreading procedures provided by a native speaker, all contributed to validity and reliability issues (see section *3.4.1. Construction of Data Collection Instrument* on p. 88 for details). Getting approval from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee added to the validity of the inventory. In order to establish the reliability of the measurement, open-ended items were avoided, thus the inventory included only close-ended items which simply required the participants to choose the appropriate choice across each statement.

As one of the most powerful sides of this study, pilot testing was conducted twice at different times with different groups, which strengthened the scope of the research by providing remarkable feedback each time about the instrument as well as data collection and analysis procedures. Reliability of the instrument was ensured through reliability analyses of Cronbach's alpha level for each dimension in the inventory. In addition, item analysis was conducted for each category in order to obtain a more reliable and meaningful measurement tool.

3.6.1. Reliability Analyses of the Items in Cognitions Set

In this part, EFL instructors' cognitions, which mean what they think of, believe in, know about, and understand from language learning processes were

investigated through 54 items. A *Likert Scale* was adopted to inquire the perceptions in five-level from *(1) strongly disagree* to *(5) strongly agree*. Table 3.6.1 displays the reliability of each dimension in the second section of the inventory.

Table 3.6.1 *Reliability Analyses of the Dimensions in Cognitions Set*

Language Learning Cognitions	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
1. Linguistic Aptitude	.834	24
1.1. Innatist Perspective	.703	8
1.2. Interactionist Perspective	.822	16
1.2.1. Informal Context-oriented View	.727	8
1.2.2. Formal Context-oriented View	.791	8
2. Priorities in Language Learning	.738	12
2.1. Competence-oriented Approach	.792	6
2.2. Performance-oriented Approach	.773	6
3. Good Language Learners	.867	18
3.1. Executive Learner-oriented View	.842	6
3.2. Legislative Learner-oriented View	.753	6
3.3. Judicial Learner-oriented View	.846	6

3.6.1.1. Reliability Analyses of the Items on Linguistic Aptitude

This part was to investigate the participants' cognitions on language learning aptitude in terms of what psycholinguistic and cognitive processes are involved in language learning and what conditions need to be met in order for learning processes to be activated (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). To assess whether the items that were summed to create the cognitions regarding linguistic aptitude formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed. The alpha for those 24 items was .83, which indicated a good level of reliability. Those 24 items were categorized under three dimensions: (a) items reflecting *innatist* perspective; (b) items reflecting the importance of *informal (natural) context*; and (c) items reflecting the importance of *formal (created) context*.

As the first dimension, *innatist* perspective focuses on the nature of the human (language learner) and his/her inborn characteristics and sees linguistic aptitude as an innate and fixed feature. This view was investigated through 8 items, whose Cronbach's alpha was calculated as .70 indicating an adequate level of reliability (see Table 3.6.1.1.1).

Table 3.6.1.1.1 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Innatist Perspective*

Innatist Perspective*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
A1	Learning a language is like learning to walk.	.706	.45
A2	The capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans.	.675	.55
A3	All people, regardless of intelligence, can learn to speak a language.	.676	.56
A4	Language skills are inherent in our genes.	.659	.62
A5	Linguistic aptitude is fixed in humans.	.640	.69
A6	The innate talent for language makes all languages equally learnable.	.654	.65
A7	All people learn a language more or less in the same way.	.680	.56
A8	Language competence is a result of 80% ability and 20% effort.	.700	.45

*Cronbach's Alpha: .703
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Item analyses were conducted on the 8 items, and it was seen that each of those 8 items was significantly correlated with the total score for *innatist* perspective at .01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .45 (r =.45, r =.55, r =.56, r =.62, r =.69, r =.65, r =.56, and r =.45 respectively for the items from A1 to A8 in Table 3.6.1.1.1).

The second dimension, *informal context-oriented* view, emphasizes the physical and social context in which language learning takes place as a result of the family background and the environment outside the school. This view was investigated through 8 items, whose Cronbach's alpha was computed as .73 indicating a reasonable internal consistency. In the item analyses conducted on those 8 items, it was seen that each item was significantly correlated with the total score for *informal context-oriented* view at .01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .45 (r =.46, r =.54, r =.63, r =.66, r =.66, r =.59, r =.51, and r =.59 respectively for the items from A9 to A16 in Table 3.6.1.1.2).

Table 3.6.1.1.2 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Informal Context-oriented View*

Informal Context-oriented View*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
A9	Language is learned subconsciously within a natural context.	.722	.46
A10	It is better to learn a foreign language in a country where it is spoken as an official language.	.706	.54
A11	The more social connections the learners have, the better they learn a foreign language.	.678	.63
A12	Linguistic aptitude is in constant interplay with the social class the learner belongs to.	.674	.66
A13	Learners' performance in language learning depends on home environment and family background.	.673	.66
A14	Language aptitude is highly related to a strong parental interest, attention and support.	.697	.59
A15	Learnability of a language depends on comprehensible input taken in sufficient quantities.	.701	.51
A16	Learners construct their linguistic knowledge on the basis of societal background and interactional opportunities in real life.	.686	.59

*Cronbach's Alpha: .727
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

The third dimension, *formal (created) context-oriented* view, attaches importance to the learning processes occurring in school context and within consciously created classroom environment. This view was investigated through 8 items, whose Cronbach's alpha was .79, which indicated that the items form a scale that has a reasonable internal consistency. As for the item analyses of those 8 items, each items was significantly correlated with the total score for *formal context-oriented* view at .01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .50 (r =.53, r =.58, r =.64, r =.70, r =.54, r =.71, r =.69, and r =.66 respectively for the items from A17 to A24 in Table 3.6.1.1.3).

Table 3.6.1.1.3 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Formal Context-oriented View*

Formal Context-oriented View*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
A17	Consciously created academic contexts facilitate a better process for language learning.	.790	.53
A18	School context, where language learning takes place, directly affects learners' language aptitude.	.776	.58
A19	Linguistic competence is highly related to a positive and encouraging classroom atmosphere.	.763	.64
A20	The teacher's approach and attitude has the greatest influence on a learner's linguistic aptitude.	.752	.70
A21	Language learning occurs best when learners learn from each others by interacting freely.	.783	.54
A22	A remarkable and intensive educational program has the central role in shaping learners' language learning.	.749	.71
A23	The quality of the materials used in class is the key factor to learn a language efficiently.	.754	.69
A24	Improved teaching techniques makes the learners learn a language faster and to a greater degree.	.760	.66

*Cronbach's Alpha: .791

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

3.6.1.2. Reliability Analyses of the Items on Priorities in Language Learning

This part aimed to investigate the participants' cognitions on priorities in language learning, which stands for the areas/skills that are attached more importance to when learning a language. To assess whether the items that were summed to create the cognitions on priorities in language learning formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed. The alpha for those 12 items was .74, which indicated an adequate level of reliability. Those 12 items were divided into two dimensions: (a) items representing *competence-oriented* approach; and (b) items representing *performance-oriented* approach.

Competence-oriented approach sees the language as a system of linguistic elements and as the target of learning, and therefore gives more emphasis to knowing something about the language. The reliability of the 6 items representing *competence-oriented* approach was calculated as .79, which indicated a reasonable internal consistency. Item analyses also indicated that each of the 6 items was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all of the correlations between the items, and the total score were greater than .60 (r =.73, r =.74, r =.70, r =.69, r =.67, and r =.64, respectively for the items from B1 to B6 in Table 3.6.1.2.1).

Table 3.6.1.2.1 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Competence-oriented Approach*

Competence-oriented Approach*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
B1	Understanding grammatical rules of the target language is the primary goal of language learning.	.744	.73
B2	Language learning requires a detailed presentation of a set of consciously learned grammatical structures.	.742	.74
B3	The basic indication of language proficiency is to be able to translate from one language into another easily.	.754	.70
B4	Literary language is superior to spoken language.	.756	.69
B5	The preliminary skills to be developed in language learning are reading and writing.	.768	.67
B6	Language proficiency means using language forms appropriately.	.779	.64

*Cronbach's Alpha: .792
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Performance-oriented approach sees the language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and emphasizes the communicative function of the language. The reliability of the 6 items representing *performance-oriented* approach was calculated as .77, which indicated a reasonable internal consistency. Item analyses conducted on those 6 items indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all of the correlations between the

items and the total score were greater than .45 (r =.74, r =.67, r =.49, r =.73, r =.78, and r =.64, respectively for the items from B7 to B12 in Table 3.6.1.2.2).

Table 3.6.1.2.2 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Performance-oriented Approach*

Performance-oriented Approach*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
B7	It is necessary to teach language learners speaking skills before they acquire grammar and vocabulary.	.723	.74
B8	Language learning requires an intense exposure to spoken communication.	.739	.67
B9	Language proficiency is reflected best in real-life situations in which target language is used effectively.	.775	.49
B10	Language is primarily speech.	.723	.73
B11	Language learners need to master listening and speaking skills before they begin to read and write.	.705	.78
B12	It is more important for language learners to focus on what they are trying to say than how to say it.	.755	.64

*Cronbach's Alpha: .773
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

3.6.1.3. Reliability Analyses of the Items on Good Language Learners

This part had the purpose of investigating the participants' cognitions about good language learners through 18 items. To assess whether the items formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed as .87, which indicated a high internal consistency. Those 18 items were categorized under three dimensions: (a) items favouring *executive learners*; (b) items favouring *legislative learners*; and (c) items favouring *judicial learners*.

Regarding the first category, the reliability of the 6 items reflecting the perceptions favouring *executive* learners was .84, which indicated a high level of reliability. Item analyses indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at. 01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total

score were greater than .55 (r =.56, r =.78, r =.79, r =.85, r =.84, and r =.64 respectively for the items from C1 to C6 in Table 3.6.1.3.1).

Table 3.6.1.3.1 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Executive Learner-oriented View*

Executive Learners*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
C1	… listen carefully to directives of their teachers.	.844	.56
C2	… work better on tasks with clear instructions and established guidelines.	.797	.78
C3	… are safer with activities in which it is clear what role they must play or in what way they should participate.	.793	.79
C4	… like projects with clear structures and pre-determined aims and goals.	.776	.85
C5	… try to learn a topic whose priorities and steps are provided in detail.	.779	.84
C6	… adopt the views their teachers believe to be correct on a language point.	.854	.64

*Cronbach's Alpha: .842
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

For the second category, the reliability of the 6 items reflecting the perceptions favouring *legislative* learners was .75, which indicated an adequate level of reliability. Item analyses indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at. 01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .50 (r =.50, r =.70, r =.73, r =.75, r =.64, and r =.66 respectively for the items from C7 to C12 in Table 3.6.1.3.2).

Concerning the last category, the reliability of the 6 items reflecting the perceptions favouring *judicial* learners was .85, which indicated a high level of reliability. Item analyses indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at. 01 level, and all of the correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .65 (r =.69, r =.77, r =.77, r =.76, r =.74, and r =.74 respectively for the items from C13 to C18 in Table 3.6.1.3.3).

Table 3.6.1.3.2 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Legislative Learner-oriented View*

Legislative Learners*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
C7	… take responsibility for their own learning.	.749	.50
C8	… work better on language tasks that require creative strategies.	.703	.70
C9	… are more comfortable with activities that allow them to do things their own way.	.690	.73
C10	… like open-ended and flexible assignments when they decide for what to do and how to do it.	.680	.75
C11	… try to learn a topic that they believe is important.	.724	.64
C12	… develop their own criteria for correctness on a language point.	.738	.66

*Cronbach's Alpha: .753
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Table 3.6.1.3.3 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Judicial Learner-oriented View*

Judicial Learners*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
C13	… know to criticize the way the teachers teach.	.829	.69
C14	… work better on language tasks that allow for their judgment.	.793	.77
C15	… are happier with activities in which they can review and compare different points of views.	.794	.77
C16	… like projects that enable them to analyze, judge, and evaluate things and ideas.	.796	.76
C17	… evaluate and judge the performance of other people and each other.	.803	.74
C18	… question explanations even from language experts.	.815	.74

*Cronbach's Alpha: .846
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

3.6.2. Reliability Analyses of the Items in Actions Set

In this section, EFL instructors' actions, which refer to the tasks they do for their instructional practices, were investigated through 48 items in the following dimensions: Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy; Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy; Communicative Practices in Curriculum Planning; Communicative Practices in Error Correction; Learner-centeredness; and Personal and Professional Development. A *Rating Scale* was adopted to inquire self-reported actions in five-level from *(1) Never* to *(5) Always*. Table 3.6.2 displays the reliability of the dimensions in the third section of the inventory.

Table 3.6.2 *Reliability Analyses of the Dimensions in Actions Set*

Language Teaching Actions	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
1. Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.717	8
2. Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.778	8
3. Communicative Instructional Planning	.823	8
4. Communicative Error Correction	.830	8
5. Learner-centeredness	.789	8
6. Personal and Professional Development	.761	8

The first dimension, *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy, stands for the practices reflecting traditional ways with existing rules and procedures in language teaching. The reliability of the items reflecting traditional (conservative) actions was .72, indicating an adequate level of reliability. Item analyses were conducted on the 8 items hypothesized to assess *traditional* actions, and each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level. All the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .45 (r =.45, r =.61, r =.57, r =.52, r =.62, r =.64, r =.61, and r =.55 respectively for the items from D1 to D8 in Table 3.6.2.1.).

The second dimension, *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy, stands for the practices reflecting innovative ways with liberal procedures in language teaching. The reliability of the items reflecting *innovative* actions was .78, which indicated a reasonable reliability. Item analyses indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .50 (r =.52, r =.71, r =.66, r =.63, r =.55, r =.60, r =.62, and r =.68 respectively for the items from E1 to E8 in Table 3.6.2.2.).

Table 3.6.2.1 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy*

Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
D1	I organize teaching situations where I can follow a pre-determined routine.	.708	.45
D2	I follow standard lesson planning rules based on certain norms.	.682	.61
D3	I employ textbooks approved by the school administration and committee as the best resources for teaching.	.691	.57
D4	I follow the essentials in the foreign language teaching curriculum of the school I teach.	.696	.52
D5	I choose testing as the basic key to obtain information about my students' progress.	.682	.62
D6	I rely on teaching guidelines containing step-by-step strategies during in-class implementation.	.677	.64
D7	I include language teaching tasks that follow similar rules and procedures to those previously/traditionally used.	.679	.61
D8	I require my students to apply a pre-set language rule to the examples they are given in a deductive way.	.698	.55

*Cronbach's Alpha: .717
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Table 3.6.2.2 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy*

Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
E1	I set goals and objectives without norms but high flexibility.	.765	.52
E2	I organize teaching situations where I can try new ways of doing things.	.728	.71
E3	I try lesson planning in new ways not used by others in the past.	.737	.66
E4	Each year I select brand new materials to teach my courses.	.748	.63

Table 3.6.2.2 (continued)

E5	I prepare language tasks that involve novelty and ambiguity.	.762	.55
E6	I offer flexible schedules and adjustable programs.	.753	.60
E7	I make use of alternative assessments (such as portfolios, learning logs, diaries, etc.) to observe my students' progress.	.753	.62
E8	I make use of imagination and creativity in implementing teaching strategies.	.753	.68

*Cronbach's Alpha: .778
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

The third dimension consisted of actions reflecting *communicative practices in instructional planning*. The overall reliability of those items was .82, which indicated a good level of reliability. Item analyses indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .60 (r =.60, r =.73, r =.72, r =.67, r =.69, r =.66, r =.61, and r =.61 respectively for the items from F1 to F8 in Table 3.6.2.3.).

Table 3.6.2.3 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Communicative Instructional Planning*

Communicative Instructional Planning*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
F1	I avoid a syllabus making my students memorize newly-acquired words and structures.	.804	.60
F2	I organize my lessons around conversational activities and situation-based (thematic) tasks.	.772	.73
F3	I focus on the process of communication rather than the mastery of language forms.	.773	.72
F4	I provide my students with meaningful practice rather than insignificant repetition.	.782	.67
F5	I foster my students to become fluent in the target language through communicative tasks.	.779	.69

Table 3.6.2.3 (continued)

F6	I avoid constructing my lessons on structural patterns and explicitly presented grammar rules.	.784	.66
F7	I keep away from a syllabus which is composed of linguistic structures.	.795	.61
F8	I plan to use the target language outside the classroom when interacting with my students to foster their language acquisition.	.806	.61

*Cronbach's Alpha: .823
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

The fourth dimension consisted of actions reflecting *communicative practices in error correction*. The overall reliability of those items was .83, which indicated a good level of reliability. Item analyses conducted on these 8 items indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .60 (r =.60, r =.65, r =.66, r =.74, r =.68, r =.69, r =.68, and r =.68 respectively for the items from G1 to G8 in Table 3.6.2.4.).

Table 3.6.2.4 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Communicative Error Correction*

Communicative Error Correction*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
G1	I keep silent and observe my students when they are producing the language in early stages.	.826	.60
G2	I ignore oral errors that language learners make and try to understand what they are saying.	.814	.65
G3	I allow my students to learn from each other's mistakes through peer correction.	.811	.66
G4	I let my students interact freely without the concern of accuracy.	.798	.74
G5	I allow my students' to learn from their own mistakes through self-correction.	.808	.68
G6	I permit my students to make errors in early stages to encourage them speak well later.	.805	.69

Table 3.6.2.4 (continued)

G7	I promote my students' using a fluent language rather than a correct or accurate language.	.807	.68
G8	I allow my students to say anything in the target language no matter whether they say it correctly or not.	.810	.68

*Cronbach's Alpha: .830
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

The fifth dimension consisted of actions reflecting *learner-centeredness*. The reliability of the 8 items representing *learner-centred* actions was .79, which indicated a reasonable internal consistency. In the item analyses conducted on these 8 items, it was seen that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .50 (r =.69, r =.59, r =.72, r =.67, r =.66, r =.60, r =.53, and r =.57 respectively for the items from H1 to H8 in Table 3.6.2.5.).

The last dimension consisted of items reflecting *personal and professional development* actions. The reliability of the 8 items representing *personal and professional development* actions was .76, which indicated a moderate reliability. Item analyses conducted on the 8 items indicated that each item was significantly correlated with the total score at .01 level, and all the other correlations between the items and the total score were greater than .45 (r =.61, r =.51, r =.48, r =.66, r =.65, r =.67, r =.64, and r =.63 respectively for the items from I1 to I8 in Table 3.6.2.6.).

Table 3.6.2.5 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Learner-centeredness*

Learner-centeredness*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
H1	I take my students' needs and interests into account when I am planning and organizing the materials or resources.	.741	.69
H2	I adjust my instructions and explanations to my students' needs and levels.	.758	.59
H3	I examine my students' characteristics and individual differences closely.	.734	.72

Table 3.6.2.5 (continued)

H4	I try to find a way to reach even the most difficult learners in my classrooms.	.745	.67
H5	I keep careful records of my students' language learning progress.	.754	.66
H6	I listen attentively to my students for any matter in and outside the classroom.	.757	.60
H7	I let my students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class.	.779	.53
H8	I carry out responsibilities for the social and cultural development of my students.	.774	.57

*Cronbach's Alpha: .789
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Table 3.6.2.6 *Reliability and Item Analyses of Personal and Professional Development*

Personal and Professional Development*		Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Correlation with the Total Score**
I1	I personally read magazines, newspapers, novels, or stories in the target language.	.731	.61
I2	I watch the films or TV in the target language without subtitles.	.751	.51
I3	I look up the dictionary for the meaning of an unknown word I encounter.	.761	.48
I4	I search for the meaning of different idioms that are used by the native speakers.	.722	.66
I5	I go on getting the knowledge of general linguistic theories for my professional development.	.727	.65
I6	I work cooperatively with professional colleagues by sharing my observation and experiences in language teaching.	.718	.67
I7	I reflect personally on my performance for my self- development.	.725	.64
I8	I contribute to school activities such as meetings, in-service training, materials preparation sessions, etc.	.736	.63

*Cronbach's Alpha: .761
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

3.7. Ethical Issues

As to the issue of ethics, the research proposal of the study together with the sample inventory and all the other necessary documents were submitted to METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee, and the required approval was obtained in order to start the data collection processes. In this line, there was not any physical harm to any stakeholders taking part in the study. When anyone of the participant was unwilling to fill in the inventory, they were not forced. In order to keep the 'privacy' principle, the participants responding to the inventory were not required to provide their names in the forms. It was made certain that there would not be any sharing of the private data obtained in the study, no one would have any chance to access the data, and the study was going to be reported confidentially without any deception. Apart from these, there was not any particular risk under which they were forced. Participants were fully informed about the purpose and the scope of the study that would be for the use of others in the future. The research was done in naturalistic conditions. All the informants were informed clearly and explicitly about the study and the process to be followed.

3.8. Data Collection Procedures

After finalizing the inventory and determining the study group, an official permission to administer the inventory was taken from each higher education institution in Ankara, except for METU. Approval of METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee was found to be sufficient for the administration by the administrative authorities at METU. However, all the other institutions required a separate application procedure for the administration enclosed with a permission request letter, a copy of the research proposal, and a sample of the data collection tool, as each institution has unique procedures and formalities. It took two to three weeks to get the necessary official permission from each university.

When the official permission was received, information about the number of the EFL instructors teaching at each institution was obtained from the administrative authorities of the institutions. Reaching EFL instructors working in 15 different higher education institutions in Ankara also became possible with the help of the administrative authorities in the schools/departments of foreign languages in each

university. In some universities, the researcher attended department meetings, which made it possible to see all EFL instructors within the institution at one time and ask them to fill in the inventory. In other universities, the researcher had to ask individual instructors during coffee or lunch breaks in corridors, in personal offices, or in staff rooms to fill in the inventory. Table 3.9 shows the schedules of visits to the universities in order to administer the inventory, the number of the invited and responding sample from each institution, and the response rates.

Table 3.9 *Schedules of Visits to Universities and Response Rates*

Date	University	Invited Sample	Responding Sample	Response Rate (%)
March 18, 2013	Ankara Univ.	170	59	34.71
March 25, 2013	Atılım Univ.	80	64	80
March 29, 2013	Başkent Univ.	80	45	56.25
April 8, 2013	Bilkent Univ.	150	62	41.33
March 29, 2013	Çankaya Univ.	50	29	58
May 30, 2013	Gazi Univ.	170	41	24.11
March 11, 2013	Hacettepe Univ.	170	123	72.35
May 16, 2013	İpek Univ.	10	3	30
March 18, 2013	METU	180	49	27.22
March 11, 2013	TED Univ.	20	20	100
May 17, 2013	THK Univ.	10	5	50
April 9, 2013	TOBB ETU	40	29	72.5
May 3, 2013	Turgut Özal Univ.	30	21	70
May 3, 2013	Ufuk Univ.	20	20	100
April19, 2013	Yıldırım Beyazıt Univ.	70	36	51.43
	Total	1250	606	48.48

3.9. Data Analysis Procedures

As the purpose of the study was to determine the characteristics pertaining to cognitions and actions of the participants as well as to examine factors affecting those cognitions and actions, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze quantitative data collected though closed-ended items. The responses were summarized in frequency distribution tables, and the findings were organized on the basis of percentages, means, standard deviations calculated for each item. Percentages of responses for each item contributed to interpretation of the situation that the study aimed to investigate. Furthermore, inferential statistics, like t-tests, ANOVAs, and Pearson Correlation Coefficients were carried out to investigate

whether the differences among the groups of EFL Instructors by background factors were statistically significant. "*F*", "*t*", and "*p*" values were presented in tables. After ANOVAs, necessary multiple comparisons as "post-hoc" tests were administered. The follow up test Dunnett C was conducted to evaluate the differences among the means. The reason for selecting Dunnett C was that the equal variances were not assumed. The confidence levels of t-tests and ANOVAs were established as $p<.05$ and $p<.01$ based on a particular analysis in order to reduce Type I error. Apart from those, a Canonical Correlation was conducted to find an answer to the fifth research question aiming to explore the patterns of the relationships between language learning cognitions and language teaching actions.

When performing analyses, necessary assumptions were checked. For the Pearson correlation coefficient, two assumptions underlying the significance test were checked: (a) the bivariate normality assumption that meets the condition that the variables are bivariately normally distributed through an examination of a scatterplot of the data points; and (b) the independence assumptions meaning that the cases represent a random sample from the population and the scores on variables for one case are independent of scores on these variables for other cases. When several correlations were computed, it was considered to adopt a corrected significance level to minimize the chances of making a Type I error through the Bonferroni approach, which requires dividing .05 by the number of computed correlations.

In relation to the independent-samples *t* tests, three assumptions underlying the significance test were checked: (a) the test variable is normally distributed in each of the two populations as defined by the grouping variable; (b) the variances of the normally distributed test variable for the populations are equal through Levene's test for equality of variances; and (c) the independence assumptions meaning that the cases represent a random sample from the population and the scores on variables for one case are independent of scores on these variables for other cases.

Regarding the analysis of variance, three assumptions underlying the significance test were checked: (a) the dependent variable is normally distributed in each of the two populations as defined by the different levels of the factor; (b) the variances of dependent variable are same for all populations through Levene's test for equality of variances; and (c) the independence assumptions meaning that the

cases represent random samples from the populations and the scores on the test variable are independent of each other.

For the canonical correlation, linearity between each variable as well as between the variables and the linear composites; multivariate normality; homoscedasticity; and multicollinearity were evaluated.

3.10. Limitations of the Study

One obvious limitation of the study was about the internal validity, which is 'history threat'. Fifteen different higher education institutions composed the participants of the study; however, access to each university after necessary permission procedures and formalities required about 10 weeks in total, which is a long time. This fact brings history threat onto surface. Secondly, another possible threat was location threat. Different locations and different institutional contexts might have affected the results in responses to the inventory. An instrumentation effect appeared as another problem in some occasions of the administration, when the researcher had to wait for the end of the department meetings to apply the inventory or for the coffee breaks or lunchtime. Hence, the respondents of the inventory might have been tired and rushed in responding to the items.

Apart from those, there were limitations rooted in the data collection tool. The first one is about the actions' being investigated through reported statements, not through observations. Because of the research design, the participants' language teaching practices could have been measured only through reported actions. Another limitation was related to the language of the inventory. Although the participants were assumed to be the proficient users of English as language teachers, they did not respond to the inventory in their native language. This was thought to be a limitation. In addition, the study was limited to the scope of the concepts and dimensions included in the data collection instrument even though it was an outcome of a long and detailed development process. Lastly, there were limitations arising from the reliability analyses of the items in the inventory. Though most of the items met most of the criteria in terms of reliability and correlation with the total score within the dimensions, there appeared cases indicating minimally adequate reliabilities and low correlations. This should be added as a limitation, as well.

Last of all, there is limitation placed upon by the study group. As the study did not adopt a random sampling strategy, the generalization was limited. Even though Ankara represents the general higher education profile in Turkey, having both private and public universities founded recently or long ago, it ought to be admitted that the findings of the study were rather difficult to generalize to the whole country.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings obtained from the responses given to *EFLICAI (EFL Instructors' Cognitions and Actions Inventory)* are presented under the following headings: (1) background of the participants, (2) descriptive results regarding cognitions, (3) inferential analyses of the cognitions by background variables, (4) descriptive results regarding actions, (5) inferential analyses of the actions by background variables, and (6) results regarding canonical correlation analysis between cognitions and actions.

4.1. Background of the Participants

This section provides demographic information about and academic background of the participants.

4.1.1. Demographic Information about the Participants

Table 4.1.1 presents demographic information about the participants in the study. In the first two questions, the participants were asked about age and teaching experience in terms of years. 224 of the participants did not respond to the item asking for their age. Among the rest (*N*=382), the age of the participants ranged from 22 to 60 with the mean 33. The mode in the age group was 27 with the highest frequency (*F*=34). Regarding their age, the participants were divided into four groups: (a) 22 to 20 year-olds (*N*=182, 47.6%); (b) 31 to 40 year-olds (*N*=137, 35.9%); (c) 41 to 50 year-olds (*N*=51, 13.6%); and (d) 51 to 60 year-olds (*N*=11, 2.9%). These results also indicated that almost half (48%) of the participants were 30

and below, and 36% were between 31 and 40. However, only 16% of them were from 41 to 60.

Table 4.1.1 *Demographic Information about the Participants*

Background Variables	Groups	*F*	*%*
Age	22 to 30	182	47.6
	31 to 40	137	35.9
	41 to 50	51	13.6
	51 to 60	11	2.9
		N=382*	
Teaching Experience	1 to 5	129	33.7
	6 to 10	103	26.9
	11 to 20	120	31.3
	21 to 33	31	8.1
		N=383*	
Workplace (Type of Institution)	State University	308	50.8
	Private University	298	49.2
		N=606	
YDS Score	80 to 90	34	11.3
	91 to 95	139	46.2
	96 to 100	128	42.5
		N=301*	
TOEFL Score	88 to 107	25	53.2
	108 to 119	22	46.8
		N=47*	

**N* for each item varies due to missing responses.

In relation to the teaching experience, 383 of the participants responded to the item, and it was seen that their experiences ranged from 1 to 33 years. The mean for teaching experience was 10, and the mode was 2 with the highest frequency (*F*=32). Regarding their teaching experience in terms of years, the participants were divided into four groups: instructors having (a) 1 to 5 years of experience (33.7%); (b) 6 to 10 years of experience (26.9%); (c) 11 to 20 years of experience (31.3%); and (d) 21 to 33 years of experience (8.1%). In other words, over 60% of the participants had 1 to 10 years of teaching experience, and 34% had at least 1 to 5 years of experience.

The participants of the study consisted of 606 EFL instructors who were teaching at 15 different universities in Ankara, and thus represented 5 state and 10

private universities in Ankara. 51% of the participants were teaching at state universities, whereas the rest (49%) were teaching at private institutions.

The participants were also asked to write their scores in one of the national or international language examinations indicating their language proficiency. Not all of the participants responded to this item. 301 of the participants indicated their YDS (Foreign Language Examination) scores and 47 of the participants indicated their TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) scores. The participants' YDS scores ranged from 80 to 100 with the mean 94.5 and the mode 95. The responses showed that 95.7% of the participants had a YDS score 90 and over, and more than half (56.5%) of the participants had a YDS score 95 and over. In the same way, the participants' TOEFL scores ranged from 88 to 119 with the mean 106 and the mode 111. 53% of the participants had a TOEFL score between 88 and 107, and the rest (47%) had a TOEFL score between 108 and 119.

4.1.2. Academic Background of the Participants

This section provides information about the participants' academic background, which was investigated with a couple of items. Firstly, the participants were questioned about their undergraduate education. Almost half (49.5%) of the participants studied their bachelor's at ELT (English Language Teaching) departments; whereas the rest (50.5%) of the participants graduated from other language-related academic programs such as English Language and Literature (26.2%); English Linguistics (9.6%); American Culture and Literature (8%); and English Translation and Interpretation (5.2%). These percentages also indicated that half (49.5%) of the participants were the graduates of *Education Faculties* and the other half (50.5%) graduated from other faculties (*Non-education Faculties*). When the participants were asked whether they had a pedagogical formation certificate or not, it was seen that approximately one-fourth (25.6%) among the graduates of *Non-education Faculties* did not have a pedagogical formation certificate. Totally, 12.8% of all participants were teaching without a pedagogical formation certificate (see Table 4.1.2).

When they were asked about the university they graduated from, it was seen that the participants represented 38 (national/international) higher education

institutions in Turkey and other countries. The highest percentages were from: Hacettepe University (37.8%); Middle East Technical University (25.3%); Ankara University (8.9%); Gazi University (6.3%); Bosphorus University (3.1%) and Bilkent University (3.1%). The rest 16% graduated from 32 different universities, list of which is provided in Appendix E.

Table 4.1.2 *Academic Background of the Participants*

Background Variables	Groups	*F*	*%*
Institution at Undergraduate Education	Ankara University	34	8.9
	Bilkent University	12	3.1
	Gazi University	24	6.3
	Hacettepe University	145	37.8
	METU	97	25.3
	Bosphorus University	12	3.1
	Other Universities	60	15.6
		N=384*	
Study Field at Undergraduate Education	Education	191	49.5
	Non-education	195	50.5
		N=386*	
Academic Program at Undergraduate Education	English Language Teaching	191	49.5
	English Language and Lit.	101	26.2
	Linguistics	37	9.6
	American Culture and Lit.	31	8.0
	Translation and Interpretation	20	5.2
		N=380*	
Having a Pedagogical Formation Certificate	Yes	334	87.2
	No	49	12.8
		N=383*	
Holding a Master's Degree	Yes	242*	62.7
	No	144	37.3
		N=386	
Institution at Graduate Education	Ankara University	26	12.6
	Bilkent University	26	12.6
	Hacettepe University	46	22.2
	METU	74	35.7
	Other Universities	35	16.9
		N=207*	
Study Field at Graduate Education	Education	134	59.8
	Non-education	90	40.2
		N=224*	

Table 4.1.2 (continued)

Academic Program at Graduate Education	English Language Teaching	88	39.3
	Educational Sciences	46	20.5
	English Language and Lit.	35	15.6
	Linguistics	17	7.6
	American Culture and Lit.	9	4
	Translation and Interpretation	6	2.7
	Other Programs	23	10.3
		N=224*	
Holding/Pursuing a PhD Study	Yes	39	10.1
	No	347	89.9
		N=386*	

**N* for each item varies due to missing responses or the items' being not applicable for some participants.

As for their graduate education, the participants were asked whether they held a master's degree or not, which was responded by 386 participants. Among them, 62.7% held a master's degree (*N*=242) and 37.3% did not (*N*=144). Upon investigating the field of study in their graduate programs, it was seen that 39.3% had studied at an ELT program; 15.6% at English Language and Literature; 7.6% at English Linguistics; 4% at American Culture and Literature; 2.7% at English Translation and Interpretation; and 20.5% at Educational Sciences including fields like curriculum studies, educational administration, measurement and evaluation, human resources in education, teacher education, special education, educational psychology, etc. The rest 10.3% held a master's degree in other fields such as gender studies, media studies, sociology, international relations, etc. According to these findings, among the participants holding a master's degree, 60% received their degrees from the field of *education*. When they were asked about the institution from which they received their master's degree, it was seen that 35.7% of them received their degrees from METU; 22.2% from Hacettepe University, 12.6% from Bilkent University; and 12.6% from Ankara University. The rest 17% did their master's in 15 different universities, list of which is provided in the Appendix E.

Lastly the participants were asked whether they held or were pursing a PhD. 10% of them responded as '*YES*' and the rest 90% as '*NO*' (see Table 4.1.2). Among the participants pursing or holding a PhD, 21.6% of them studied or was studying at

ELT; 27% at English Language and Literature; 13.5% at Linguistics; and 35.1% at Educational Sciences. The rest (2.7%) studied / was studying at other fields. These percentages indicated that 56.8% of the participants' PhD studies were related to *education* and the rest's (43.2%) to other fields

To summarize the characteristics of the participants, it could be said that the study group has been a sufficient representative of higher education profile in Turkey, having instructors form both private and public universities which have started to offer education recently or were established long ago. The census participated in the study consisted of 606 EFL instructors teaching in 15 different higher education institutions of Ankara, which indicated that almost half of all the EFL instructors in Ankara took part in this research. One half of the participants were from state and the other half was from public institutions. Another point was that over 60% of the participants held a Master's degree and 10% held or was pursuing a PhD. Gender issue was not given a due consideration in the actual study as the percentage of the male participants was around 7% in the first pilot work and 11% in the second pilot work. It could be said that EFL teaching positions were mostly occupied by female instructors.

4.2. Descriptive Results regarding EFL Instructors' Cognitions

This section provides descriptive information about the first research question that focused on the participant instructors' cognitions specifically in relation to linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners, which were investigated through 54 items and presented through means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages. The tendencies among the responses were interpreted through mean values and the ratings in the options from (5) *Strongly Agree* to (1) *Strongly Disagree* for each item. The mean value of a particular dimension was computed by summing up the responses of all the items of that dimension and dividing the sum by the number of the items in the same dimension.

4.2.1. EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Linguistic Aptitude

As the first dimension of the first research question, the participant instructors' cognitions about linguistic aptitude were investigated through 24 items under two

main categories: (a) *innatist* and (b) *interactionist* perspectives. As Table 4.2.1 displays, the mean values of the categories indicated that the participants were more inclined to the interactionist perspective (*M*=3.82) compared to their tendencies towards the innatist perspective (*M*=3.23). This finding indicated that the EFL instructors tended to believe in the power of the interactions between the learner and the environment when learning a language.

Table 4.2.1 *EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Linguistic Aptitude*

Linguistic Aptitude	*M**	*SD*	*N*
Innatist Perspective	3.23	.66	560
Interactionist Perspective	3.82	.97	557

*It was computed by summing up the responses of all the items and dividing the sum by the number of the items within a category.

4.2.1.1. Cognitions reflecting Innatist Perspective

The first category of linguistic aptitude included the cognitions reflecting the innatist perspective. As Table 4.2.1.1 demonstrates, most of the participants tended to believe that: the capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans (M=3.86); language skills are inherent in our genes (*M*=3.65); all people, regardless of intelligence, can learn to speak a language (*M*=3.61); and learning a language is like learning to walk (*M*=3.60). On the other hand, they rarely tended to agree that language competence is a result of 80% ability and 20% effort (M=2.64), and all people learn a language more or less in the same way (*M*=2.35).

Table 4.2.1.1 *Cognitions reflecting Innatist Perspective*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	SD	D	U	A	SA			
The capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans.	3.6	7.1	21.8	34.5	33	3.86	1.07	563
Language skills are inherent in our genes.	4	10.7	25.2	36.6	23.5	3.65	1.07	599
All people, regardless of intelligence, can learn to speak a language.	4	12	25.6	36	22.4	3.61	1.08	598

Table 4.2.1.1 (continued)

Learning a language is like learning to walk.	8.5	7.8	23.6	35.6	24.5	3.60	1.18	551
Linguistic aptitude is fixed in humans.	13.5	17.3	25.7	27.9	15.6	3.15	1.26	591
The innate talent for language makes all languages equally learnable.	11.8	22.4	25.3	26	14.5	3.09	1.24	560
Language competence is a result of 80% ability and 20% effort.	18.1	26.7	32.4	18.6	4.2	2.64	1.10	596
All people learn a language more or less in the same way.	32.9	25	22.1	14.1	5.9	2.35	1.23	560

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.2.1.2. Cognitions reflecting Interactionist Perspective

The second category concerning linguistic aptitude was about the cognitions reflecting the interactionist perspective, which was discussed under two sub-categories: (a) the view supporting *informal (natural)* contexts and (b) the view supporting *formal (created)* contexts. Although the participants seemed to favour both natural and created contexts, the mean values revealed a slight difference between the informal context-oriented view (*M*=3.77) and the formal context-oriented view (*M*=3.88). Accordingly, the EFL instructors seemed to be slightly in favour of the consciously created school/classroom environment (see Table 4.2.1.2).

Table 4.2.1.2 *Cognitions reflecting Interactionist Perspective*

Interactionist Perspective	*M**	*SD*	*N*
Informal (Natural) Context	3.77	.56	557
Formal Context	3.88	.58	589

*It was computed by summing up the responses of all the items and dividing the sum by the number of the items within a category.

Table 4.2.1.3 demonstrates the participants' responses to the items representing the informal (natural) context-oriented view. Accordingly, a great number the participants agreed/strongly agreed that: the more social connections the learners have, the better they learn a foreign language (*M*=4.36); it is better to learn a foreign

language in a country where it is spoken as an official language (*M*=4.25); and learnability of a language depends on comprehensible input taken in sufficient quantities (*M*=4.10). Similarly, most of the participants seemed to think that learners construct their linguistic knowledge on the basis of societal background and interactional opportunities in real life (*M*=3.97) and language is learned subconsciously within a natural context (*M*=3.78).

Table 4.2.1.3 *Cognitions supporting Informal (Natural) Context*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	SD	D	U	A	SA			
The more social connections the learners have, the better they learn a foreign language.	1.3	1.8	8.7	35.6	52.6	4.36	0.82	599
It is better to learn a foreign language in a country where it is spoken as an official language.	2.7	4.2	11.1	29.4	52.7	4.25	0.99	602
Learnability of a language depends on comprehensible input taken in sufficient quantities.	0.7	2.3	14.7	51.2	31.1	4.10	0.78	557
Learners construct their linguistic knowledge on the basis of societal background and interactional opportunities in real life.	0.9	3.6	18	53.1	24.4	3.97	0.81	557
Language is learned subconsciously within a natural context.	2.3	8.8	20.4	45.1	23.4	3.78	0.98	603
Linguistic aptitude is in constant interplay with the social class the learner belongs to.	6.8	12.7	31.5	34.5	14.5	3.37	1.09	559
Learners' performance in language learning depends on home environment and family background.	6.7	18.7	30.9	35.8	7.9	3.19	1.04	598
Language aptitude is highly related to a strong parental interest, attention and support.	8.3	19.6	33.2	27.8	11.1	3.14	1.11	557

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

As for the items representing the formal (created) context-oriented view, Table 4.2.1.4 presents the participants' tendencies. Based on those tendencies, the majority of the participants seemed to support that linguistic competence is highly related to a positive and encouraging classroom atmosphere (*M*=4.17); improved teaching techniques makes the learners learn a language faster and to a greater degree (*M*=4.03); language learning occurs best when learners learn from each others by interacting freely (*M*=3.94); and the teacher's approach and attitude has the greatest influence on a learner's linguistic aptitude (*M*=3.87).

Table 4.2.1.4 *Cognitions supporting Formal (Created) Context*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	SD	D	U	A	SA			
Linguistic competence is highly related to a positive/encouraging classroom atmosphere.	1	3.3	12.4	44	39.3	4.17	0.84	598
Improved teaching techniques makes the learners learn a language faster and to a greater degree.	1	3.2	18.6	46.4	30.8	4.03	0.84	506
Language learning occurs best when learners learn from each others by interacting freely.	0.8	6.9	18.9	44.1	29.3	3.94	0.91	598
The teacher's approach and attitude has the greatest influence on a learner's linguistic aptitude.	3.2	4.8	21.9	42.2	27.9	3.87	0.98	599
School context, where language learning takes place, directly affects learners' language aptitude.	1.9	6.2	22.8	48.2	20.9	3.80	0.90	593
A remarkable and intensive educational program has the central role in shaping learners' language learning.	2.5	6.8	24	46.7	20	3.75	0.94	559
The quality of the materials used in class is the key factor to learn a language efficiently.	2.7	5.5	28.9	41.3	21.6	3.74	0.95	560
Consciously created academic contexts facilitate a better process for language learning.	3.2	9.2	25.1	42.9	19.6	3.66	1.00	597

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

Additionally, the participants tended to believe that school context, where language learning takes place, directly affects learners' language aptitude (*M*=3.80); a remarkable and intensive educational program has the central role in shaping learners' language learning (*M*=3.75); the quality of the materials used in class is the key factor to learn a language efficiently (*M*=3.74); and consciously created academic contexts facilitate a better process for language learning (*M*=3.66) (see Table 4.2.1.4).

4.2.2. EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Priorities in Language Learning

As the second dimension of the first research question, the participant instructors' cognitions about priorities in language learning were investigated through 12 items under two categories: (a) *competence-oriented* and (b) *performance-oriented* approaches. The mean values indicated that the participants were much more inclined to adopt a performance-oriented approach (*M*=3.60) rather than a competence-oriented approach (*M*=2.41). This finding could imply that the EFL instructors have a tendency to give more emphasis to doing something with the language, rather than knowing about the language (see Table 4.2.2).

Table 4.2.2 *EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Priorities in Language Learning*

Priorities in Language Learning	*M**	*SD*	*N*
Competence-oriented Approach	2.41	.78	592
Performance-oriented Approach	3.60	.73	587

*It was computed by summing up the responses of all the items and dividing the sum by the number of the items within a category.

4.2.2.1. Cognitions reflecting Competence-oriented Approach

In relation to the participants' cognitions on the competence-oriented approach, only some of the participants tended to believe that language proficiency means using language forms appropriately (*M*=3.06). As displayed in Table 4.2.2.1, all the other items in this dimension were rated more negatively by the participants, as they tended to disagree that literary language is superior to spoken language (*M*=2.11); the basic indication of language proficiency is to be able to translate from one language into another easily (*M*=2.25); understanding grammatical rules of the target language

is the primary goal of language learning (*M*=2.20); language learning requires a detailed presentation of consciously learned grammatical structures (*M*=2.39); and the preliminary skills to be developed are reading and writing (*M*=2.46).

Table 4.2.2.1 *Cognitions reflecting Competence-oriented Approach*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	SD	D	U	A	SA			
Language proficiency means using language forms appropriately.	12.9	19.1	27	31.2	9.7	3.06	1.19	596
The preliminary skills to be developed in language learning are reading and writing.	27.1	25.1	27.1	15.9	4.8	2.46	1.18	598
Language learning requires a detailed presentation of a set of consciously learned grammatical structures.	24.2	30.1	30.4	12.7	2.5	2.39	1.06	598
Understanding grammatical rules of the target language is the primary goal of language learning.	32.6	29	25.2	11.9	1.3	2.20	1.06	599
The basic indication of language proficiency is to be able to translate from one language into another easily.	31.2	29.6	25	11.4	2.8	2.25	1.10	597
Literary language is superior to spoken language.	36.1	30.6	22	8.8	2.5	2.11	1.07	601

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.2.2.2. Cognitions reflecting Performance-oriented Approach

As for the participants' cognitions on the performance-oriented approach, the participants mostly had the ideas that language proficiency is reflected best in real-life situations in which target language is used effectively (*M*=4.39) and language learning requires an intense exposure to spoken communication (*M*=4.08). Furthermore, they participants were into the importance of focusing on what to say rather than how to say it for language learners (*M*=3.63). On the other hand, only some of the participants had a tendency to agree that language learners need to master listening and speaking skills before they begin to read and write (*M*=3.02);

and it is necessary to teach language learners speaking skills before they acquire grammar and vocabulary (*M*=2.92) (see Table 4.2.2.2).

Table 4.2.2.2 *Cognitions reflecting Performance-oriented Approach*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	SD	D	U	A	SA			
Language proficiency is reflected best in real-life situations in which target language is used effectively.	0.3	2.8	7.3	36.2	53.3	4.39	0.77	599
Language learning requires an intense exposure to spoken communication.	1.8	4.3	14	43.8	36.1	4.08	0.91	601
It is more important for language learners to focus on what they try to say than how to say it.	6.7	6.7	25.3	39.6	21.6	3.63	1.10	593
Language is primarily speech.	8	8	27.1	35.8	21.1	3.54	1.15	601
Language learners need to master listening and speaking skills before they begin to read and write.	13.4	18.9	33.5	20.4	13.7	3.02	1.22	597
It is necessary to teach language learners speaking skills before they acquire grammar and vocabulary.	14.2	20.9	33.1	22	9.8	2.92	1.18	599

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.2.3. EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Good Language Learners

As the third dimension of the first research question, the participant instructors' cognitions about good language learners were investigated through 18 items under three categories: (a) *executive learner-oriented* view; (b) *legislative learner-oriented* view; and (c) *judicial learner-oriented* view. The mean values of all the three categories were highly close to each other. Still, the participants tended to favour the legislative learners (*M*=4.17) more than the executive (*M*=3.85) and judicial (*M*=4.02) learners (see Table 4.2.3). These findings indicated that the EFL instructors did not give as many ratings to the type of learners who perform a task by following

given instructions as they gave to the ones who can use their power to make their own plans and who can judge things and people.

Table 4.2.3 *EFL Instructors' Cognitions on Good Language Learners*

Good Language Learners	*M**	*SD*	*N*
Executive Learners	3.85	.73	581
Legislative Learners	4.17	.58	589
Judicial Learners	4.02	.67	579

*It was computed by summing up the responses of all the items and dividing the sum by the number of the items within a category.

4.2.3.1. Cognitions reflecting Executive Learner-oriented View

Table 4.2.3.1 presents the ratings of the items reflecting the executive learner-oriented view. Accordingly, it was put forward that the majority of the participants tended to label good language learners as the ones working better on tasks with clear instructions and established guidelines (*M*=4.16) and listening carefully to directives of their teachers (*M*=4.12). Additionally, they were inclined to think that good language learners: like projects with clear structures and pre-determined aims and goals (*M*=3.96); are safer with activities in which it is clear what role they must play or in what way they should participate (*M*=3.92); and try to learn a topic whose priorities and steps are provided in detail (*M*=3.80).

Table 4.2.3.1 *Cognitions favouring Executive Learners*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
Good language learners…	SD	D	U	A	SA			
…work better on tasks with clear instructions and established guidelines.	1.5	3.4	13.9	40.3	40.9	4.16	0.89	596
…listen carefully to directives of their teachers.	1.5	2.5	13.5	47.6	34.9	4.12	0.84	593
…like projects with clear structures and pre-determined aims and goals.	2.3	5.0	17.9	43.4	31.3	3.96	0.95	597

Table 4.2.3.1 (continued)

…are safer with activities in which it is clear what role they must play or in what way they should participate.	2.5	5.9	20.1	39.7	31.8	3.92	0.99	597
…try to learn a topic whose priorities and steps are provided in detail.	2.7	6.7	24.9	39.2	26.6	3.80	0.99	595
…adopt the views their teachers believe to be correct on a language point.	11.6	18.2	30.1	25.5	14.6	3.13	1.21	595

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.2.3.2. Cognitions reflecting Legislative Learner-oriented View

Table 4.2.3.2 presents the ratings of the items reflecting the legislative learner-oriented view. Accordingly, the majority of the participants were inclined to describe good language learners as the ones who: take responsibility for their own learning (*M*=4.65); are more comfortable with activities that allow them to do things their own way (*M*=4.23); work better on language tasks that require creative strategies (*M*=4.22); try to learn a topic that they believe is important (*M*=4.19); and prefer open-ended and flexible assignments when they decide for what to do and how to do it (*M*=4.09).

Table 4.2.3.2 *Cognitions favouring Legislative Learners*

Items			%			*M*	*SD*	*N*
Good language learners…	SD	D	U	A	SA			
…take responsibility for their own learning.	-	1	4.2	23.4	71.5	4.65	0.61	599
…are more comfortable with activities that allow them to do things their own way.	0.7	3.8	12.6	37.9	44.9	4.23	0.86	601
…work better on language tasks that require creative strategies.	1.7	2.8	12.7	37.6	45.2	4.22	0.89	599
…try to learn a topic that they believe is important.	1.5	3.8	12.5	38.6	43.6	4.19	0.90	599
…like open-ended and flexible assignments when they decide for what to do and how to do it.	0.7	4.8	17.1	39.6	37.8	4.09	0.89	598

Table 4.2.3.2 (continued)

…develop their own criteria for correctness on a language point.	4.7	9.4	29.5	34.7	21.6	3.59	1.07	596

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.2.3.3. Cognitions reflecting Judicial Learner-oriented View

Table 4.2.3.3 presents the ratings of the items reflecting the judicial learner-oriented view. Accordingly, for most of the participants, good language learners like projects enabling them to analyze, judge, and evaluate things and ideas (*M*=4.35) and are happier with activities in which they can review and compare different points of views (*M*=4.28). Moreover, they seemed to agree that good language learners evaluate and judge the performance of other people and each other (*M*=4.02); work well on language tasks that allow for their judgment (*M*=4.02); question explanations even from language experts (*M*=3.76); and know to criticize the way the teachers teach (*M*=3.66).

Table 4.2.3.3 *Cognitions favouring Judicial Learners*

Items			%			*M*	*SD*	*N*
Good language learners…	SD	D	U	A	SA			
…like projects that enable them to analyze, judge, and evaluate things and ideas.	-	2.9	9.4	38	49.7	4.35	0.77	595
…are happier with activities in which they can review and compare different points of views.	0.2	2.9	9.4	44.2	43.3	4.28	0.76	593
…work better on language tasks that allow for their judgment.	0.3	4	20.6	42.8	32.2	4.03	0.85	593
…evaluate and judge the performance of other people and each other.	2	5.9	15.4	41.9	34.8	4.02	0.96	592
…question explanations even from language experts.	4..2	10.7	19.5	36	29.6	3.76	1.11	591
…know to criticize the way the teachers teach.	4	12	22.6	36.9	24.5	3.66	1.09	593

SD=Strongly Disagree; D=Disagree; U=Undecided; A=Agree; SA=Strongly Agree

4.3. Inferential Results regarding EFL Instructors' Cognitions

This section provides results of the inferential analyses about the second research question, which investigated whether the participant instructors' language learning cognitions varied significantly by background variables or if there was a significant relationship between the participants' background variables and their cognitions. In order to answer this question, Pearson correlation coefficients, *t* tests, and ANOVAs, were conducted and necessary assumptions were checked as the initial steps of the analyses. In order to test whether the distribution is normal, skewness and kurtosis values for each dimension within the cognitions set were checked, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were computed (see the results of the normality tests for the dimensions within the cognitions set in Appendix F). The skewness and kurtosis values were between +1 and -1, which could mean that the normality of the distribution was not violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), but Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were significant except for the first dimension (innatist perspective). These results indicate a distribution that differed from the normal distribution. Since the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests are conservative tests, normality was examined by checking histograms, Q-Q Plots, and P-P Plots, and it was noticed that the normality assumption was not violated. Boxplots were also examined to determine whether there were any outliers, and it was seen that were no serious outliers for the dimensions within the cognitions set, except for the informal and formal context-oriented views. In relation to the results obtained from t-tests and ANOVAs, only the points indicating statistically significant differences/relationships were included in presentations and tables.

4.3.1. Differences in Cognitions by Age

In order to see whether EFL instructors' language learning cognitions change significantly according to age factor, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted for each dimension (linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners) within the cognitions set.

For the first dimension of the cognitions set, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted to see the relationship between the age and the three sub-categories

of cognitions on linguistic aptitude. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 6 correlations, a *p* value of less than .008 (.05 / 6 = .008) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.1.1 indicated negatively significant correlations between the age and the innatist perspective, *r* (299) = -.16; the informal context-oriented view, *r* (329) = -.15; and the formal context-oriented view, *r* (282) = -.18. Each correlation had a small effect size. According to Table 4.3.1.1, as the age level of the participants increased, their orientations tended to reflect less innatist and less interactionist perspectives, which could mean that as the participants got older, their beliefs in the innate feature of linguistic aptitude and the power of the interaction with the environment decreases.

Table 4.3.1.1 *Correlation between Age and Cognitions on Linguistic Aptitude*

		Innatist Perspective	Interactionist (Informal Context)	Interactionist (Formal Context)
Age	*Pearson Corr.*	-.16*	-.15*	-.18*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.006	.003
	N	301	331	284

*Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

In order to see the relationship between the age and the two sub-categories of cognitions on priorities in language learning, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 3 correlations, a *p* value of less than .016 (.05 / 3 = .016) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.1.2 indicated a negatively significant correlation between the age and the performance-oriented approach, *r* (373) = -.24, which revealed a small effect size. Accordingly, the younger the participants were, the more they were into the performance-oriented approach, which could suggest that the younger EFL instructors prioritize the performance and communicative elements of the language rather than the knowledge and linguistic elements. On the other hand, there was not a statistically significant correlation between the age and the competence-oriented approach (see Table 4.3.1.2).

Table 4.3.1.2 *Correlation between Age and Cognitions on Priorities in Language Learning*

		Competence-oriented Approach	Performance-oriented Approach
Age	*Pearson Corr.*	-.01	-.24*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.806	.001
	N	377	375

*Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

To evaluate the relationship between the age and the three sub-categories of cognitions on good language learners, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 6 correlations, a *p* value of less than .008 (.05 / 6 = .008) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.1.3 did not indicate any statistically significant correlations between the age and the cognitions on good language learners. The finding obtained from the Pearson correlation coefficients revealed that the age factor did not create any differences in the preferences of the participants with respect to the characteristics of good language learners.

Table 4.3.1.3 *Correlation between Age and Cognitions on Good Language Learners*

		Legislative Learners	Executive Learners	Judicial Learners
Age	*Pearson Corr.*	-.07	-.06	-.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.189	.270	.118
	N	376	372	370

4.3.2. Differences in Cognitions by Teaching Experience

With the purpose of evaluating whether the EFL instructors' language learning cognitions change significantly according to the experience factor, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted for each dimension (linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners) within the cognitions set.

To assess the relationship between the teaching experience and the three sub-categories of cognitions on linguistic aptitude, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 6

correlations, a *p* value of less than .008 (.05 / 6 = .008) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.2.1 indicated a negatively significant correlation only between the teaching experience and the formal context-oriented view, *r* (283) = -.15, which had a small effect size. This finding indicated that as the participants' teaching experience increased, they tended to reflect less formal context-oriented views, which could mean that the EFL instructors with more teaching experience seemed to disbelieve in the power of the consciously created school/classroom environment on linguistic aptitude.

Table 4.3.2.1 *Correlation between Experience and Cognitions on Linguistic Aptitude*

		Innatist Perspective	Interactionist (Informal Context)	Interactionist (Formal Context)
Experience	*Pearson Corr.*	-.13	-.11	-.15*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	.053	.007
	N	303	331	285

*Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

With the intention of evaluating the relationship between the teaching experience and the two sub-categories of cognitions on priorities in language learning, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 3 correlations, a *p* value of less than .016 (.05 / 3 = .016) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.2.2 indicated a negatively significant correlation between the teaching experience and the performance-oriented approach, *r* (374) = -.16, which revealed a small effect size. Accordingly, as the participants became more experienced, they were disinclined to adopt a performance-oriented approach, which could imply that the EFL instructors having more teaching experience did not seem to see the language as a system of communicative elements and a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations. On the other hand, there was not a statistically significant correlation between the teaching experience and the competence-oriented approach.

Table 4.3.2.2 *Correlation between Experience and Cognitions on Priorities in Language Learning*

		Competence-oriented Approach	Performance-oriented Approach
Experience	*Pearson Corr.*	.01	-.16*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.913	.002
	N	378	376

*Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

As for the relationship between the teaching experience and the three sub-categories of cognitions on good language learners, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted. Using the Bonferroni approach to control Type I error across the 6 correlations, a *p* value of less than .008 (.05 / 6 = .008) was required for significance. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.3.2.3 indicated not any statistically significant correlations between the teaching experience and cognitions on good language learners, which revealed that the experience factors did not create any differences in the preferences of the participants with respect to the characteristics of good language learners.

Table 4.3.2.3 *Correlation between Experience and Cognitions on Good Language Learners*

		Legislative Learners	Executive Learners	Judicial Learners
Experience	*Pearson Corr.*	-.08	-.02	-.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.131	.727	.025
	N	376	372	370

4.3.3. Differences in Cognitions by Type of Home Institution

With the purpose of evaluating whether EFL instructors' language learning cognitions change significantly by the type of the institution where they work, independent-samples *t* tests were conducted. For this analysis, the participants were divided into two groups: (a) the participants employed at state universities and (b) the participants teaching at private universities. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate significant values (except for the informal context-oriented view, *p*=.04) homogeneity of

variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the cognitions set (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). Independent-samples t-tests conducted to investigate whether the participants from a public institution reflected different language learning cognitions as opposed to the ones from a private institution were non-significant for all the dimensions within the cognitions set. This finding could suggest that teaching at a private or state university did not create any difference in the language learning cognitions of the EFL instructors.

4.3.4. Differences in Cognitions by Undergraduate Education

In order to evaluate whether EFL instructors' language learning cognitions change significantly according to the background variables from their undergraduate education, independent-samples *t* tests and one-way ANOVAs were conducted.

As the initial point, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants' fields of study at undergraduate education had a significant effect on their language learning cognitions. For this analysis, the participants were divided into two groups: (a) the graduates of *Education Faculties* and (b) the graduates of other faculties. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate any significant values, the homogeneity of variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the cognitions set (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The *t* tests were significant for the following three dimensions in the cognitions set: competence-oriented approach, $t(378.87)=-2.79$, $p=.006$; legislative learner-oriented view, $t(361.94)=2.01$, $p=.04$; and judicial learner-oriented view, $t(369.02)=2.03$, $p=.04$. As seen in Table 4.3.4.1, the graduates of other departments ($M=2.53$) tended to adopt a more competence-oriented approach as opposed to the ELT graduates ($M=2.30$), which could mean that the non-ELT graduates prioritized the linguistic elements of the language more than the ELT graduates. Furthermore, the ELT graduates favoured legislative learners ($M=4.18$) and judicial learners ($M=4.03$) more than the other participants did. This finding indicated that the ELT graduates favoured language learners who can take responsibility for their own learning and evaluate or judge different points, things, and people.

Table 4.3.4.1 *Differences in Cognitions by Study Field at Undergraduate Education**

Significant Dimensions	Study Field	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Competence-oriented Approach	ELT	2.30	.78	188
t(378.87)=-2.79, *p*=.006	Non-ELT	2.53	.82	193
Legislative Learner-oriented View	ELT	4.18	.49	187
t(361.94)=2.01, *p*=.04	Non-ELT	4.06	.62	192
Judicial Learner-oriented View	ELT	4.03	.65	183
t(369.02)=2.03, *p*=.04	Non-ELT	3.88	.73	190

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

As a further grouping, the participants were divided into five groups on the basis of their academic program at undergraduate education: (a) English Language Teaching; (b) English Language and Literature; (c) English Linguistics; (d) American Culture and Literature; and (e) English Translation and Interpretation. In order to test the homogeneity of variance, Levene's test for each dimension was computed, and it was seen that the homogeneity of variance was not violated (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The ANOVAs testing whether the group means on the dependent variables differ significantly from each other were significant for: innatist perspective, $F(5,297)=2.96$, $p=.013$, $\eta^2=.047$; competence-oriented approach, $F(5,375)=2.95$, $p=.012$, $\eta^2=.038$; and performance-oriented approach, $F(5,373)=4.28$, $p=.001$, $\eta^2=.054$. The strength of the relationship assessed by η^2 was small with the factor accounting for approximately 4% to 5% of the variance of the dimensions in the dependent variable. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means, and Dunnett's C test, which does not assume equal variances among the five groups, was used. For the innatist perspective, there was a significant difference in the means between the graduates of ELL (M=3.05) and LING (M=3.54). This finding could mean that the EFL instructors holding a degree from the Department of Linguistics were more inclined to believe that linguistic aptitude is inborn and fixed in humans. For the competence-oriented approach, there was a significant difference in the means between the graduates of ELT (M=2.30) and ACL (M=2.80). This could indicate that the EFL instructors graduating from the ELT departments did not seem to prioritize

the linguistic elements of the language as much as the ACL graduates did (see Table 4.3.4.2).

Table 4.3.4.2 *Differences in Cognitions by Academic Program at Undergraduate Education**

Significant Dimensions	Academic Program	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Innatist Perspective	(a) ELT	3.21	.64	187
F(5,297)=2.96, *p*=.013	(b) ELL	3.05	.65	99
	(c) LING	3.54	.74	36
	(d) ACL	3.31	.48	31
	(e) TI	3.24	.68	20
Competence-oriented Approach	(a) ELT	2.30	.78	188
F(5,375)=2.95, p=.012	(b) ELL	2.53	.80	99
	(c) LING	2.47	.70	37
	(d) ACL	2.80	.92	31
	(e) TI	2.32	.88	20
Performance-oriented Approach	(a) ELT	3.75	.73	187
F(5,373)=4.28, p=.001	(b) ELL	3.42	.71	99
	(c) LING	3.45	.63	36
	(d) ACL	4.07	.57	31
	(e) TI	3.70	.87	20

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.
ELT=English Language Teaching; ELL=English Language & Literature; LING= Linguistics; ACL=American Culture & Literature; TI=Translation & Interpretation

For the performance-oriented approach, there was a significant difference in the means between the graduates of ACL (*M*=4.07) and ELL (*M*=3.42) or LING (*M*=3.45). This finding could reveal that the instructors with a degree from the Department of American Culture and Literature tended to see the language as a vehicle for communication and interpersonal relations, as opposed to the graduates of ELL and LING (see Table 4.3.4.2).

Lastly, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants having a pedagogical formation certificate tended to reflect different language learning cognitions as opposed to the ones without a pedagogical formation certificate. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate any significant values, the homogeneity of variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the cognitions set (see

the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The *t* test was significant for only one dimension within the cognitions set, which was legislative learner-oriented view, $t(57.68)=2.23$, $p=.03$. The participants having a pedagogical formation certificate ($M=4.14$) favoured legislative learners more than the ones lacking a pedagogical formation certificate ($M=3.90$) did (see Table 4.3.4.3). This finding revealed that holding a pedagogical formation certificate created a difference only in preferences for legislative learners over other learners.

Table 4.3.4.3 *Differences in Cognitions by Holding a Pedagogical Formation Certificate**

Significant Dimension	Pedagogical Formation	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Legislative Learner-oriented View	Yes	4.14	.56	330
$t(57.68)=2.23$, $p=.03$	No	3.90	.60	48

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

4.3.5. Differences in Cognitions by Graduate Education

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants holding a Master's degree reflected different language learning cognitions as opposed to the ones without a Master's degree. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate any significant values, the homogeneity of variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the cognitions set (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The *t* test was significant for only one dimension in the cognitions set: competence-oriented approach, $t(259.41)=-2.54$, $p=.01$. Accordingly, the participants who didn't do a Master's ($M=2.55$) tended to adopt more competence-oriented approach by prioritizing the linguistic elements of the language than the ones holding a Master's degree ($M=2.32$) (see Table 4.3.5.1).

Table 4.3.5.1 *Differences in Cognitions by Holding a Master's Degree**

Significant Dimension	Holding a Master's Degree	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Competence-oriented Approach	Yes	2.32	.75	241
$t(259.41)=-2.54$, $p=.01$	No	2.55	.87	140

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants' fields of study at graduate education had a significant effect on their language learning cognitions. For this analysis, the participants were divided into two groups: (a) the participants holding a Master's degree in the field of education and (b) the participants holding a Master's degree outside the field of education. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate significant values except for the performance-oriented approach, p=.005, the homogeneity of variance was violated only for the dimension of performance-oriented approach (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The t tests were significant for two dimensions within the cognitions set: (a) competence-oriented approach, t(182.39)=-1.90, p=.05; and (b) legislative learner-oriented view, t(185.34)=3.45, p=.001. As shown in Table 4.3.5.2, the participants who did a Master's at the departments outside the field of education (M=2.43) tended to adopt more competence-oriented approach compared to the ones who did their Master's in the field of education (M=2.23). This finding could mean that the priority of the knowledge about the linguistic elements of the language was seemed to be agreed upon more by the EFL instructors holding a Master's degree outside the field of education. Furthermore, the participants having a Master's degree from education-related departments labelled legislative learners (M=4.22) as good language learners more than the other participants did (M=3.95). This finding could mean that the EFL instructors holding a Master's degree within the field of education tended to prefer language learners who can take responsibility for their own learning.

Table 4.3.5.2 *Differences in Cognitions by Study Field at Graduate Education*

Significant Dimensions	Study Field	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Competence-oriented Approach	Education	2.23	.72	133
t(182.39)=-1.90, p=.05	Non-education	2.43	.77	90
Legislative Learner-oriented View	Education	4.22	.53	130
t(185.34)=3.45, p=.001	Non-education	3.95	.56	90

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

As a further grouping, the participants were divided into five groups on the basis of their Master's program at graduate education: (a) English Language

Teaching; (b) English Language and Literature; (c) English Linguistics; (d) Educational Sciences; and (e) Other Programs. In order to test the homogeneity of variance, Levene's test for each dimension within the cognitions set was computed, and it was seen that the homogeneity of variance was not violated (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The ANOVAs testing whether the group means on the dependent variables differ significantly from each other were significant for the following dimensions: innatist perspective, $F(6,170)=3.83$, $p=.001$, $\eta^2=.119$; competence-oriented approach, $F(6,216)=2.93$, $p=.009$, $\eta^2=.075$; and legislative learner-oriented view, $F(6,213)=2.44$, $p=.027$, $\eta^2=.064$. The strength of the relationship assessed by η^2 was small to medium with the factor accounting for approximately 6% to 12% of the variance of the dimensions in the dependent variable. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means, and Dunnett's C test was used. For the innatist perspective, there was a significant difference in the means between the participants holding a Master's degree in LING ($M=3.99$) and all the other participants holding a Master's degree in other programs. For the competence-oriented approach, there was a significant difference in the means between the participants with a Master's degree in ELT ($M=2.15$) and the participants having a Master's degree in other programs ($M=2.77$). For the legislative learner-oriented view, there was a significant difference in the means between the participants holding a Master's degree in other programs ($M=3.83$) and the participants having their Master's in ELT ($M=4.22$) or EDS ($M=4.21$) (see Table 4.5.5.3).

Table 4.3.5.3 *Differences in Cognitions by Master's Program at Graduate Education*

Significant Dimensions	Master's Program	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Innatist Perspective	ELT	3.19	.61	80
F(6,170)=3.83, *p*=.001	ELL	2.95	.72	35
	LING	3.99	.44	17
	EDS	3.15	.68	42
	Other Programs	3.10	.53	32
Competence-oriented Approach	ELT	2.15	.74	87
F(6,216)=2.93, *p*=.009	ELL	2.30	.82	35
	LING	2.31	.69	17
	EDS	2.37	.68	46
	Other Programs	2.77	.56	38

Table 4.3.5.3 (continued)

Legislative Learner-oriented View $F(6,213)=2.44$, $p=.027$	ELT	4.22	.52	85
	ELL	4.01	.61	35
	LING	4.09	.58	17
	EDS	4.21	.56	45
	Other Programs	3.83	.48	38

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.
ELT=English Language Teaching; ELL=English Language and Literature; LING=Linguistics; ACL=American Culture and Literature; TI=Translation and Interpretation; EDS=Educational Sciences

These findings could mean that: the instructors holding a Master's degree in Linguistics were more inclined to agree upon the innate feature of linguistic aptitude; the instructors holding a Master's degree in English Language Teaching tended to disbelieve in the priority of the leaning about the linguistic elements of the language; and the instructors holding a Master's degree in English Language Teaching or Educational Sciences favoured language learners who can take responsibility for their own learning more than the other participants.

4.3.6. Differences in Cognitions by National/International Exam Scores

In order to see the relationship between the participants' language learning cognitions and their scores at national or international language examinations, the participants were investigated about their exam scores in YDS (Foreign Language Examination conducted by ÖSYM [Student Selection and Placement Centre] in Turkey) or TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language conducted by ETS [Educational Testing Service] in the USA.

As for the relationship between the YDS scores and the language learning cognitions of the participants, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted for each dimension within the cognitions set. However, none of the correlational analyses indicated statistically significant correlations between the YDS score and the cognitions as a *p* value of less than .001 was required for significance in order control Type I error across all the correlations (see Table 4.3.6.1).

To look into the relationship between the TOEFL scores and the language learning cognitions of the participants, Pearson correlation coefficients were

conducted for each dimension within the cognitions set. However, none of the correlational analyses indicated statistically significant correlations between the TOEFL score and the cognitions as a *p* value of less than .001 was required for significance in order control Type I error across all the correlations (see Table 4.3.6.2).

Table 4.3.6.1 *Correlation between YDS Scores and Language Learning Cognitions*

Dimensions	YDS Score		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Innatist Perspective	.10	.129	239
Informal Context-oriented View	-.08	.227	227
Formal Context-oriented View	-.21	.002	229
Competence-oriented Approach	-.04	.473	238
Performance-oriented Approach	.00	.999	294
Executive Learner-oriented View	-.09	.123	297
Legislative Learner-oriented View	-.13	.028	297
Juridical Learner-oriented View	-.09	.107	298

Table 4.3.6.2 *Correlation between TOEFL Scores and Language Learning Cognitions*

Dimensions	TOEFL Score		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Innatist Perspective	-.16	.343	36
Informal Context-oriented View	.01	.955	41
Formal Context-oriented View	-.37	.036	33
Competence-oriented Approach	.08	.583	46
Performance-oriented Approach	-.16	.281	47
Executive Learner-oriented View	.06	.696	45
Legislative Learner-oriented View	-.22	.143	45
Juridical Learner-oriented View	.05	.736	44

4.4. Descriptive Results regarding EFL Instructors' Actions

This section provides descriptive information about the third research question that focused on the participant instructors' self-reported actions in relation to pedagogical inclinations, instructional planning, error correction, learner-centred practices, and personal and professional development, which were investigated through 48 items and presented through means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages. The tendencies among the responses were interpreted through the mean values and the ratings in the options from (5) *Always* to (1) *Never* for each item. The mean value for a particular dimension was computed by summing up the responses of all the items of that dimension and dividing the sum by the number of the items within the same dimension. Table 4.4 demonstrates the descriptive results of the mean values of each dimension regarding language teaching actions. As for the first two dimensions regarding the participants' pedagogical inclinations when teaching a language, there was a slight mean difference in the ratings between the innovative (liberal) pedagogy (*M*=3.48) and the traditional (conservative) pedagogy (*M*=3.38). Accordingly, the participants seemed to be slightly more inclined to trying new and innovative ways of teaching a language.

Table 4.4 *EFL Instructors' Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions	*M**	*SD*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	3.38	.51	569
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	3.48	.60	562
Communicative Instructional Planning	3.58	.62	573
Communicative Error Correction	3.93	.58	539
Learner-centred Practices	4.02	.51	584
Personal/Professional Development	4.16	.54	583

*It was computed by summing up the responses of all the items and dividing the sum by the number of the items within a dimension.

Considering the top ratings of the dimensions within the actions set, the highest mean score was of the actions pertaining to personal and professional development (*M*=4.16), which was followed by the actions reflecting learner-centred practices

(*M*=4.02), and communicative practices in error correction (*M*=3.93). In relation to the dimension of communicative practices in instructional planning, the participants gave a considerable number of ratings, as well (*M*=3.58).

4.4.1. Actions reflecting Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy

The first dimension in the actions set was the traditional (conservative) pedagogy. As seen in Table 4.4.1, the majority of the participants tended to follow the essentials in the foreign language teaching curriculum of the school they teach (*M*=4.19). Additionally, they were likely to organize teaching situations where they can follow a pre-determined routine (*M*=3.69) and employ textbooks approved by the school administration and committee as the best resources for teaching (*M*=3.65). On the other hand, one particular item that did not receive as many ratings as the other items did was about requiring language learners to apply a pre-set language rule to the examples they are given in a deductive way (*M*=2.91).

Table 4.4.1 *Actions reflecting Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I follow the essentials in the foreign language teaching curriculum of the school I teach.	-	2.4	11.4	51.1	35.1	4.19	0.72	589
I organize teaching situations where I can follow a pre-determined routine.	1	4.1	31.3	51.9	11.7	3.69	0.77	591
I employ textbooks approved by the school administration and committee as the best resources for teaching.	1.7	7.5	28.4	49.1	13.3	3.65	0.86	588
I rely on teaching guidelines containing step-by-step strategies during in-class implementation.	3	16.9	34.6	34.6	10.8	3.33	0.98	592
I choose testing as the basic key to obtain information about my students' progress.	3.2	19.3	38	30.2	9.3	3.23	0.97	592
I include language teaching tasks that follow similar procedures to previously used ones.	2	22.3	47.6	25	3.1	3.05	0.82	588

Table 4.4.1 (continued)

I follow standard lesson planning rules based on certain norms.	6.3	21.1	42.1	26.7	3.9	3.01	0.94	592
I require my students to apply a pre-set language rule to the examples they are given in a deductive way.	5.6	26.3	43.7	20	4.4	2.91	0.93	590

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.4.2. Actions reflecting Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy

The second dimension within the actions set was the innovative (liberal) pedagogy. As seen in Table 4.4.2, most of the participants seemed to make use of imagination and creativity in implementing teaching strategies (*M*=4.01); organize teaching situations where they can try new ways of doing things (*M*=3.90); and make use of alternative assessments (such as portfolios, learning logs, diaries, etc.) to observe their students' progress (*M*=3.75). Regarding the least frequently-reported action in this dimension, it was seen that the participants were less tended to prepare language tasks that involve novelty and ambiguity (*M*=3.06).

Table 4.4.2 *Actions reflecting Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I make use of imagination and creativity in implementing teaching strategies.	0.7	3.2	22.8	40.6	32.7	4.01	0.86	591
I set goals and objectives without norms but high flexibility.	2	12.2	33.2	41.5	11.2	3.48	0.92	591
I organize teaching situations where I can try new ways of doing things.	0.7	5.2	20.1	51.6	22.3	3.90	0.83	591
I make use of alternative assessments (portfolios, learning logs, diaries, etc.) to observe my students' progress.	2.9	11.8	24.1	30	31.2	3.75	1.11	593
I try lesson planning in new ways not used by others in the past.	1.5	16	42.2	30.1	10.1	3.31	0.91	592
I offer flexible schedules and adjustable programs.	4.9	15.9	36	32.5	10.7	3.28	1.01	591

Table 4.4.2 (continued)

Each year I select brand new materials to teach my courses.	5.4	23.3	34.5	27.9	8.8	3.11	1.04	588
I prepare language tasks that involve novelty and ambiguity.	5.5	22.4	38.1	28.5	5.6	3.06	0.97	586

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.4.3. Actions reflecting Communicative Instructional Planning

In relation to instructional planning, the participants were asked to what extent they adopted communicative practices in instructional planning. As demonstrated in Table 4.4.3, most of the participants reported that they provide their students with meaningful practice rather than insignificant repetition (*M*=4.20); foster their students to become fluent in the target language through communicative tasks (*M*=4.08); organize their lessons around conversational activities and situation-based (thematic) tasks (*M*=3.72); and focus on the process of communication rather than the mastery of language forms (*M*=3.70). As for the least frequently-reported action within this dimension, avoiding a syllabus making the learners memorize newly-acquired words and structures received fewer ratings from the participants (*M*=2.95).

Table 4.4.3 *Actions reflecting Communicative Instructional Planning*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I provide my students with meaningful practice rather than insignificant repetition.	0.5	1.4	11.3	51.2	35.6	4.20	0.73	592
I foster my students to become fluent in the target language through communicative tasks.	0.7	2.2	17.1	48.7	31.3	4.08	0.79	591
I organize my lessons around conversational activities and situation-based (thematic) tasks.	1.7	7.2	29.6	40.4	21	3.72	0.93	594
I focus on the process of communication rather than the mastery of language forms.	1.2	5.6	32.5	43.8	16.9	3.70	0.86	593
I avoid constructing my lessons on structural patterns and explicitly presented grammar rules.	2	10.3	29.2	43.7	14.8	3.59	0.93	593

Table 4.4.3 (continued)

I plan to use the target language outside the classroom when interacting with my students to foster their language acquisition.	9	17.8	27.8	29.7	15.8	3.25	1.18	590
I keep away from a syllabus which is composed of linguistic structures.	4.4	21.4	38.1	28.2	7.8	3.14	0.98	588
I avoid a syllabus making my students memorize newly-acquired words and structures.	10.6	25	31.9	23.3	9.1	2.95	1.13	592

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.4.4. Actions reflecting Communicative Error Correction

As for error correction, the participants were asked to what extent the communicative approach was followed in their error correction practices through self-reported items. All the items in this dimension received a considerable number of ratings. As demonstrated in Table 4.4.4, most of the participants follow communicative practices in error correction by: permitting their students to make errors in early stages to encourage them speak well later on (*M*=4.18); letting their students interact freely without the concern of accuracy (*M*=3.99); allowing their students to learn from their own mistakes through self-correction (*M*=3.97); allowing their students to say anything in the target language no matter whether they say it correctly or not (*M*=3.95); allowing their students to learn from each other's mistakes through peer correction (*M*=3.90); ignoring when language learners make oral errors and try to understand what they are saying (*M*=3.82); promoting their students' using a fluent language rather than a correct or accurate language (*M*=3.87); and keeping silent and observing students when they are producing the language in early stages (*M*=3.69).

Table 4.4.4 *Actions reflecting Communicative Error Correction*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I permit my students to make errors in early stages to encourage them speak well later on.	1	2.6	13.7	42.6	40.2	4.18	0.84	585

Table 4.4.4 (continued)

I let my students interact freely without the concern of accuracy.	0.5	3.1	21.7	46	28.7	3.99	0.82	589
I allow my students' to learn from their own mistakes through self-correction.	-	4.2	22.2	45.9	27.7	3.97	0.82	549
I allow my students to say anything in the target language no matter whether they say it correctly or not.	0.9	7.5	20.2	38.9	32.4	3.95	0.95	583
I allow my students to learn from each other's mistakes through peer correction.	0.7	5.1	23.6	44.8	25.8	3.90	0.87	589
I promote my students' using a fluent language rather than a correct or accurate language.	1.2	3.7	25.5	45.7	23.8	3.87	0.86	588
I ignore oral errors that language learners make and try to understand what they are saying.	1.5	5.8	22.8	48.8	21.1	3.82	0.88	588
I keep silent and observe my students when they are producing the language in early stages.	1.7	9.6	25.8	44.2	18.2	3.69	0.94	586

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.4.5. Actions reflecting Learner-centeredness

Regarding learner-centeredness, it was seen that a high number of the participants reported that they follow a learner-centred approach in their language teaching practices by adjusting their instructions and explanations to their students' needs and levels (*M*=4.48); and listening attentively to their students for any matter in and outside the classroom (*M*=4.50); taking their students' needs and interests into account when they are planning and organizing the materials or resources (*M*=4.25); examining their students' characteristics and individual differences closely (*M*=4.19); trying to find a way to reach even the most difficult learners in their classrooms (*M*=4.19); carrying out responsibilities for the social and cultural development of their students (*M*=3.77); and keeping careful records of their students' language learning progress (*M*=3.68). The latter item received extra comments from some respondents such as: *It is not my responsibility to keep the records of the students in*

my institution, which indicates once more that contextual factors play significant roles in teachers' approaches. As a final but striking point about learner-centeredness, only 6.3% of the participants always and 20.5% of the participants usually let their students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class (*M*=3.03) (see Table 4.4.5).

Table 4.4.5 *Actions reflecting Learner-centeredness*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I listen attentively to my students for any matter in and outside the classroom.	0.7	1.7	5.9	30.4	61.4	4.50	0.74	593
I adjust my instructions and explanations to my students' needs and levels.	-	0.7	5.1	39.9	54.4	4.48	0.63	592
I take my students' needs and interests into account when I am planning and organizing the materials or resources.	0.8	1.7	9.9	46.5	41.1	4.25	0.77	594
I examine my students' characteristics and individual differences closely.	0.7	1.5	14.7	44.8	38.3	4.19	0.79	592
I try to find a way to reach even the most difficult learners in my classrooms.	0.3	2	13.8	45.5	38.3	4.19	0.77	593
I carry out responsibilities for the social and cultural development of my students.	0.8	9.8	23.5	42.8	23	3.77	0.94	591
I keep careful records of my students' language learning progress.	2.2	8.1	29	40.9	19.9	3.68	0.95	594
I let my students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class.	3.9	21.8	47.5	20.5	6.3	3.03	0.91	591

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.4.6. Actions reflecting Personal and Professional Development

Finally, the participants were required to rate their actions related to personal and professional development practices. All of the related actions received high ratings from the participants. According to Table 4.4.6, the participants seemed to: look up the dictionary for the meaning of an unknown word they encounter (*M*=4.27); reflect personally on their performance for their self-development (*M*=4.25); watch the films or TV in the target language without subtitles (*M*=4.25); search for the meaning of different idioms that are used by the native speakers (*M*=4.20); read magazines, newspapers, novels, or stories in the target language (*M*=4.19); work cooperatively with professional colleagues by sharing their observations and experiences in language teaching (*M*=4.16); contribute to school activities such as meetings, in-service training, materials preparation sessions, etc. (*M*=4.15); and go on getting the knowledge of general linguistic theories for their development (*M*=3.85).

Table 4.4.6 *Actions reflecting Personal and Professional Development*

Items	%					*M*	*SD*	*N*
	N	R	S	U	A			
I look up the dictionary for the meaning of an unknown word I encounter.	0.3	5.2	13.5	28.5	52.4	4.27	0.91	593
I watch the films or TV in the target language without subtitles.	0.5	2.9	13.1	38.6	44.9	4.25	0.83	594
I reflect personally on my performance for my self-development.	0.7	2.2	11.9	42.2	43.1	4.25	0.80	590
I search for the meaning of different idioms that are used by the native speakers.	-	4.8	16.1	33.6	45.5	4.20	0.88	589
I personally read magazines, newspapers, novels, or stories in the target language.	0.7	1.9	18.9	35.2	43.4	4.19	0.85	594
I work cooperatively with professional colleagues by sharing my observations and experiences in language teaching.	1.2	2.9	16.6	38	41.4	4.16	0.88	592

Table 4.4.6 (continued)

I contribute to school activities such as meetings, in-service training, materials preparation sessions, etc.	1.7	7.1	14.2	29.1	48	4.15	1.02	592
I go on getting the knowledge of general linguistic theories for my professional development.	0.8	8.4	24.2	38.3	28.2	3.85	0.96	592

N=Never, R=Rarely, S=Sometimes, U=Usually, A=Always

4.5. Inferential Results regarding EFL Instructors' Actions

This section provides the results of the inferential analyses about the fourth research question, which investigated whether the participant instructors' language teaching actions vary significantly by background variables or if there was a relationship between the participants' background variables and their actions. In order to answer this question, Pearson correlation coefficients, *t* tests, and ANOVAs conducted and necessary assumptions were checked as the initial steps of the analyses. In order to test whether the distribution is normal, skewness and kurtosis values for each dimension within the actions set were checked, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were computed (see the results of the normality tests for the dimensions within the actions set in Appendix F). The skewness and kurtosis values were between +1 and -1, which could mean that the normality of the distribution was not violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), but Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests were significant, which indicate a distribution that differed from the normal distribution. Since the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests are conservative tests, normality was examined by checking histograms, Q-Q Plots, and P-P Plots, and it was noticed that the normality assumption was not violated. Boxplots were also examined to determine whether there were any outliers, and it was seen that were no serious outliers for the dimensions within the cognitions set, except for the traditional (conservative) pedagogy. In relation to the results obtained from t-tests and ANOVAs, only the points indicating statistically significant differences/relationships were included in presentations and tables. In relation to the results obtained from t-tests and ANOVAs, only the points indicating statistically significant differences/relationships were included in presentations and tables

4.5.1. Differences in Actions by Age

In order to see whether EFL instructors' self-reported language teaching actions vary significantly by the age factor, Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted for each dimension within the actions set. The correlational analyses indicated three negatively significant correlations between the age and the actions regarding: communicative instructional planning, r (365) = -.10, p<.05; communicative error correction, r (334) = -.11, p<.05; and personal-professional development, r (376) = -.18, p=.001. These results indicated that as the participants became older, they implemented less communicative practices in curriculum planning and error correction processes. Furthermore, the older they became, the less they followed personal and professional development practices (see Table 4.5.1).

Table 4.5.1 *Correlation between Age and Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions	Age		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.04	.441	367
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	-.08	.131	362
Communicative Instructional Planning	-.10*	.037	367
Communicative Error Correction	-.11*	.035	336
Learner-centeredness	-.09	.073	379
Personal-Professional Development	-.18**	.001	378

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level.
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

4.5.2. Differences in Actions by Teaching Experience

To examine the relationship between the teaching experience and the participants' language teaching practices, correlational analyses were conducted between the variable teaching experience and each dimension in language teaching actions. The results presented in Table 4.5.2 indicated only two negatively significant correlations between the teaching experience and the practices regarding innovative (liberal) pedagogy, r (360) = -.11, p<.05; and personal and professional development, r (376) = -.16, p=.002. Accordingly, as the participants became more experienced,

they tended to exhibit less innovative (liberal) pedagogy in their language teaching actions and they tend to abandon personal and professional development actions.

Table 4.5.2 *Correlation between Experience and Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions	Experience		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.04	.480	366
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	-.11*	.044	362
Communicative Instructional Planning	-.09	.070	368
Communicative Error Correction	-.131	.017	336
Learner-centeredness	-.09	.089	379
Personal-Professional Development	-.16**	.002	378

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level.
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

4.5.3. Differences in Actions by Type of Home Institution

With the purpose of evaluating whether EFL instructors' language teaching actions change significantly by the type of institution where they work, independent-samples *t* tests were conducted. As the Levene's tests indicated, the homogeneity of variance was violated for the following dimensions: communicative error correction, p=.005; and learner-centeredness, p=.004 (see the Levene's tests results in Appendix G). Independent-samples t-tests conducted to investigate whether the participants from a public institution followed different language teaching practices as opposed to the ones from a private institution was non-significant for all the dimensions within the action set. This finding could mean that teaching at a private or state university did not create any difference in the actions of the participant instructors.

4.5.4. Differences in Actions by Undergraduate Education

With the purpose of evaluating whether EFL instructors' language teaching actions change significantly according to their background from undergraduate education, independent-samples *t* tests and one-way ANOVAs were conducted.

As the first step, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants' fields of study at undergraduate education had a significant

effect on their language teaching practices. For this analysis, the participants were divided into two groups: (a) the graduates of *Education Faculties* and (b) the graduates of other faculties. As the Levene's tests did not indicate any significant values, the homogeneity of variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the actions set (see the Levene's results in Appendix G). The *t* tests were significant for the following dimensions within the actions set: (a) innovative (liberal) pedagogy, $t(359.06)=-2.00$, $p=.04$; (b) communicative instructional planning, $t(368.30)=-2.19$, $p=.03$; and (c) communicative error correction, $t(336.91)=-2.34$, $p=.02$.

Table 4.5.4.1 *Differences in Actions by Study Field at Undergraduate Education*

Significant Dimensions	Study Field	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	ELT	3.43	.59	180
t(359.06)=-2.00, *p*=.04	Non-ELT	3.55	.57	187
Communicative Instructional Plan.	ELT	3.53	.56	181
t(368.30)=-2.19, *p*=.03	Non-ELT	3.65	.56	190
Communicative Error Correction	ELT	3.85	.56	180
t(336.91)=-2.34, *p*=.02	Non-ELT	3.99	.54	181

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

According to the mean scores in Table 4.5.4.1, the graduates of other departments ($M=3.55$) tended to follow more innovative (liberal) pedagogy as opposed to the ELT graduates ($M=3.43$). Furthermore, the graduates of other departments tended to implement more communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction processes compared to the ELT graduates.

As a further grouping, the participants were divided into five groups on the basis of the their academic program at undergraduate education: (a) English Language Teaching; (b) English Language and Literature; (c) English Linguistics; (d) American Culture and Literature; and (e) English Translation and Interpretation. In order to test the homogeneity of variance, Levene's test for each dimension within the actions set was computed, and it was seen that the homogeneity of variance was not violated for the analyses (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The ANOVAs testing whether the group means on the dependent variables differ

significantly from each other were significant for: communicative practices in instructional planning, $F(5,365)=4.21$, $p=.001$, $\eta^2=.054$; and error correction, $F(5,333)=2.81$, $p=.017$, $\eta^2=.041$. The strength of the relationship assessed by η^2 was small with the factor accounting for approximately 4% to 5% of the variance of the dimensions in the dependent variable. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. Accordingly, the graduates the Department of American Culture and Literature tended to act more communicatively in curriculum planning (M=3.85) and error correction (M=4.19) practices than the graduates of other departments (see the mean scores in Table 4.5.4.2).

Lastly, independent-samples *t* tests were conducted to investigate whether the participants holding a pedagogical formation certificate tended to reflect different language teaching practices as opposed to the ones without a pedagogical formation certificate. As the Levene's tests indicated, the homogeneity of variance was not violated (see the Levene's test results in Appendix G). The *t* tests were non-significant for all the dimensions within the actions set, which could mean that having a pedagogical formation certificate did not create any difference among the participants in terms of self-reported language teaching practices.

Table 4.5.4.2 *Differences in Actions by Academic Program at Undergraduate Education**

Dimension	BA Program	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Communicative Instructional Planning	(a) ELT	3.53	.56	181
$F(4,365)=4.21$, $p=.001$	(b) ELL	3.54	.54	99
	(c) LING	3.64	.47	35
	(d) ACL	3.85	.53	30
	(e) TI	3.62	.65	20
Communicative Error Correction	(a) ELT	3.85	.56	180
$F(4,364)=2.81$, $p=.017$	(b) ELL	3.88	.50	99
	(c) LING	4.02	.46	35
	(d) ACL	4.19	.64	30
	(e) TI	4.03	.60	20

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.
ELT=English Language Teaching; ELL=English Language and Literature;
LING=Linguistics; ACL=American Culture and Literature; TI=Translation and Inter.

4.5.5. Differences in Actions by Graduate Education

First of all, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether the participants holding a Master's degree followed different language teaching actions as opposed to the ones without a Master's degree. As the Levene's tests evaluating the assumption that the variances of the two groups are equal, did not indicate any significant values, the homogeneity of variance was not violated concerning the dimensions within the actions set (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The *t* tests were significant for only two dimensions in the actions set: traditional (conservative) pedagogy, $t(249.95)=-2.55$, $p=.01$ and innovative (liberal) pedagogy, $t(249.62)=2.11$, $p=.01$. As seen in Table 4.5.5.1, the participants who didn't hold a Master's degree ($M=3.52$) tended to adopt more traditional (conservative) pedagogy in their language teaching practices compared to the ones holding a Master's degree ($M=3.37$). Alternatively, the participants who hold a Master's degree ($M=3.66$) tended to adopt more innovative (liberal) pedagogy in their language teaching practices compared to the ones without a Master's degree ($M=3.47$). These findings could mean that being engaged in a graduate study would create difference in pedagogical inclinations of the EFL instructors.

Table 4.5.5.1 *Differences in Actions by Holding a Master's Degree**

Significant Dimensions	Master's Degree	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	Yes	3.37	.48	240
$t(249.95)=-2.55$, $p=.01$	No	3.52	.56	140
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	Yes	3.66	.51	240
$t(249.62)=-2.11$, $p=.01$	No	3.47	.58	140

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to investigate whether the participants' fields of study (education or non-education) at Master's program had a significant effect on their language teaching actions. As the Levene's tests indicated, the homogeneity of variance was not violated for the dimensions within the action set (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). None of the *t* tests for the dimensions within the actions set indicated a significant result, which could mean

that the study field (education or non-education) at graduate education did not create any difference among the participants in terms of their language teaching practices.

As another step, the participants were divided into five groups on the basis of their Master's program. In order to test the homogeneity of variance, Levene's test for each dimension within the actions set was computed, and it was seen that the homogeneity of variance was not violated (see the results of the Levene's tests in Appendix G). The ANOVAs testing whether the group means on the dependent variables differ significantly from each other were significant for only communicative error correction, $F(6,189)=3.02$, $p=.008$, $\eta^2=.087$. The strength of the relationship assessed by η^2 was small to medium with the factor accounting for approximately 9% of the variance of the dependent variable. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. Accordingly, the graduates of other departments ($M=3.48$) tended to implement less communicative practices in error correction compared to the ones holding a Master's degree from the departments of ELT ($M=3.99$), LING ($M=3.98$), or ELL ($M=3.91$) (see the mean scores in Table 4.5.5.2).

Table 4.5.5.2 *Differences in Actions by Master's Program at Graduate Education*

Significant Dimensions	Master's Program	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Communicative Error Correction	ELT	3.99	.51	74
$F(4,189)=3.02$, $p=.008$	ELL	3.91	.49	30
	LING	3.98	.23	13
	EDS	3.87	.56	19
	Other Programs	3.48	.53	60

*Only the results indicating statistically significant differences are included.

4.5.6. Differences in Actions by National/International Exam Scores

In order to examine the relationship between the national/international exam scores and the participants' language teaching practices, correlational analyses were conducted between the variables. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 4.5.6.1 did not indicate any statistically significant correlations between the YDS scores and the language teaching practices of the participants. Similar analyses performed with TOEFL scores also did not indicate any statistically significant correlations (see Table 4.5.6.2).

Table 4.5.6.1 *Correlation between YDS Scores and Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions	YDS Score		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	-.08	.157	293
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.11	.074	285
Communicative Instructional Plan.	.07	.271	291
Communicative Error Correction	.06	.335	261
Learner-centeredness	-.07	.239	299
Personal-Professional Development	.05	.412	298

Table 4.5.6.2 *Correlation between TOEFL Scores and Language Teaching Actions*

Dimensions	TOEFL Score		
	Pearson Corr.	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*N*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	-.22	.154	43
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.23	.118	45
Communicative Instructional Plan.	-.11	.476	46
Communicative Error Correction	.02	.911	42
Learner-centeredness	.19	.192	47
Personal-Professional Development	-.05	.723	47

4.6. Canonical Correlation between Cognitions and Actions

The fifth research question aimed to examine the pattern and the strength of the relationship between cognitions and actions of the participant EFL instructors. In other words, it was intended to answer how strongly one set of variables (language learning cognitions) would relate to or predict the other set of variables (language teaching actions). To answer this question, a canonical correlation analysis was conducted. As canonical correlation is used when the variables in each set can be grouped together conceptually, it is defined to be an exploratory technique enabling researchers to see which variables would go together and which subset of the variables in one set would best relate to which subset of the variables in the other set (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

The first set of variables selected for the analysis was *cognitions set*, which included language learning cognitions on *innatist*, *interactionist*, *competence-oriented*, *performance-oriented*, *executive learner-oriented*, *legislative learner-oriented*, and *judicial learner-oriented* views. The second set of variables was *actions set*, which included language teaching practices reflecting *traditional (conservative)* and *innovative (liberal) pedagogies*, *communicative instructional planning* and *error correction*, *learner-centeredness*, and *personal and professional development*.

Necessary assumptions for the analysis such as multivariate normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity were checked as the initial step of the analyses. As the first assumption, multivariate normality is that all variables and all linear combinations of variables are normally distributed. As Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state, multivariate normality is not an easily testable hypothesis, but if the variables happen to be normally distributed, the likelihood of multivariate normality is increased. Therefore, univariate normality was checked through skewness and kurtosis values, significance of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests and histograms with normal curves. Not all skewness and kurtosis values were close enough to the ideal value zero, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests indicated significant ($p < .05$) values, which could mean that the data were not normally distributed (see the results of normality tests for the dimensions in Appendix F). However, Field (2009) claims that it is easier to get such significant results from small deviations from normality in a study with a large sample size. Considering this argument, it was thought to look at the shape of the distribution rather than using formal inference tests as the sample was quite large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, Q-Q plots, and histograms were inspected for normality assumption. It was noticed that the univariate normality was not violated based on the histograms with normal curves. Boxplots were also examined to determine whether there were any outliers, and it was seen that there were no serious outliers. Secondly through an examination of scatterplots, the linearity was checked to determine whether the variables are linearly related, and the homoscedasticity was inspected to see that the variability in scores for one continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of another continuous variable. Accordingly, if both variables

are normally distributed and linearly related, the scatterplot is oval-shaped, and if the scatterplot between the two variables are of roughly the same width all over with some bulging toward the middle, the homoscedasticity was ensured. As the homoscedasticity is related to the assumption of normality, if the normality assumption is met, the relationships between variables become homoscedastic (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For the current data set, the shapes of most of the scatterplots reflected no obvious departures from linearity and homoscedasticity since the overall shapes did not curve and they were about the same width throughout. Finally, it was important that the variables in each set and across sets are not too highly correlated with each other, and thus the multicollineratity was checked in the output. As Field (2006) suggests, there should be no perfect linear relationship (>.90) between two or more of the predictors. Accordingly, none of the correlations in the matrix exceeded .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As demonstrated in Table 4.6.1, neither among the variables in the *cognitions set*, nor among the variables in the *actions set*, and not even between the two sets there was a correlation over .60. Accordingly, most of the variables in each set were weakly or moderately correlated with each other, which were not interpreted as a violation of the assumption.

Table 4.6.1 *Bivariate Correlations among Predictors and Outcome Variables*

		Set I - Cognitions Set							Set II - Actions Set					
		INN	INT	CA	PA	LL	EL	JL	TCP	ILP	CIP	CEC	LC	PPD
Set-I	INN	1.0												
	INT	.38	1.0											
	CA	.07	.18	1.0										
	PA	.20	.34	.15	1.0									
	LL	.28	.35	-.07	.24	1.0								
	EL	.21	.43	.27	.12	.28	1.0							
	JL	.33	.33	-.03	.07	.56	.26	1.0						
Set-II	TCP	.10	.22	.33	.09	-.04	.34	.03	1.0					
	ILP	.18	.32	.07	.21	.26	.11	.27	-.07	1.0				
	CIP	.18	.28	-.06	.29	.20	.03	.15	-.13	.61	1.0			
	CEC	.18	.30	-.10	.23	.21	.18	.24	.20	.22	.32	1.0		
	LC	.14	.37	.12	.24	.16	.09	.20	-.01	.45	.49	.21	1.0	
	PPD	.20	.36	-.01	.16	.22	.12	.14	.08	.40	.32	.18	.47	1.0

INN=Innatist Perspective; INT=Interactionist Perspective; CA=Competence-oriented Approach; PA=Performance-oriented Approach; EL=Executive Learner-oriented View; LL=Legislative Learner-oriented View; JL=Judicial Learner-oriented View; TCP= Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy; ILP=Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy; CIP=Communicative Instructional Planning; CEC=Communicative Error Correction; LC=Learner-centeredness; PPD= Personal and Professional Development in Tables 4.6.1 and 4.6.2.

A canonical correlation analysis was performed to determine the structure of the relationship between the two sets, and the analysis yielded two functions with squared canonical correlations (Rc^2) of .308 and .215, respectively. Both of the functions accounted for a significant amount of overlapping variance, and both of the solutions were over .30. The first canonical correlation was .55 (31% overlapping variance); the second was .46 (22% overlapping variance). With both canonical correlations included, Wilks' $\lambda = .471$, $p < .001$. With the first removed, Wilks' $\lambda = .681$, $p > .001$ (see Table 4.6.2).

Table 4.6.2 *Correlation Solutions for Cognitions Predicting Actions*

Variables		First Canonical Correlation			Second Canonical Correlation		
		Coefficient	Loading (*rs*)	rs^2 (%)	Coefficient	Loading (*rs*)	rs^2 (%)
Predictors	INN	-.06	-.10	.01	.47	.26	.07
	INT	-.13	-.02	.00	-.12	.05	.00
	CA	.77	.85*	.72	-.55	-.27	.07
	PA	-.19	-.16	.03	.16	.13	.02
	EL	.41	.43*	.18	.80	.48*	.23
	LL	-.34	-.38*	.14	-.17	-.18	.03
	JL	.01	-.18	.03	-.69	-.45*	.20
Outcomes	TCP	.85	.76*	.58	.42	.50*	.25
	ILP	.20	-.18	.14	-.75	-.54*	.29
	CIP	-.33	-.44*	.19	.67	.02	.00
	CEC	-.46	-.38*	.14	.23	.29	.08
	LC	.28	-.06	.00	-.70	-.45*	.20
	PPD	-.35	-.26	.07	.45	.11	.01

* >.30
rs: structure coefficient (canonical loadings)
rs^2: squared structure coefficient

As the first canonical correlation revealed statistically significant results to make meaningful interpretations, the second model was not taken in to consideration for discussion. In the framework of the first canonical correlation, competence-oriented approach, executive learner-oriented view, and legislative learner-oriented view were significantly correlated with the first variate at .85, .43, and -.38, respectively. On the other hand, traditional (conservative) pedagogy, communicative instructional planning, and communicative error correction were significantly correlated with the first variate at .76, -.44, and -.38, respectively. When redundancy analysis output was examined, it was seen that the first canonical variate for the cognitions set extracted 32% of the variance from the cognitions (its own set) and 10% of the variance from the actions (the other set). Similarly, the first canonical variate for the actions set extracted 36% of the variance from the actions (its own set) and 11% of the variance from the cognitions (the other set).

Figure 4.6.1 presents the loadings and correlations for both pairs in the first canonical solution. Accordingly, competence-oriented approach, executive learner-oriented view, and legislative learner-oriented view as the three predictors were related to the three outcomes, which were traditional (conservative) pedagogy, communicative curriculum planning, and communicative error correction. Considering positive and negative signs of the loadings, it was interpreted that the participants having more competence-oriented approach and executive learner preferences would probably follow more traditional (conservative) pedagogy but less communicative practices in curriculum planning and error correction. Similarly, the participants disfavouring legislative learners would probably follow less communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction; on the contrary they would probably reflect more traditional (conservative) pedagogy. In other words, the EFL instructors who see the language as a system of linguistic elements emphasizing the knowledge about the language and who prefer learners performing a task according to the given instructions rather than the learners who take reasonability for their own learning would probably follow customary patterns of thoughts and practices about teaching that have been used for a long time and also implement less communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction procedures.

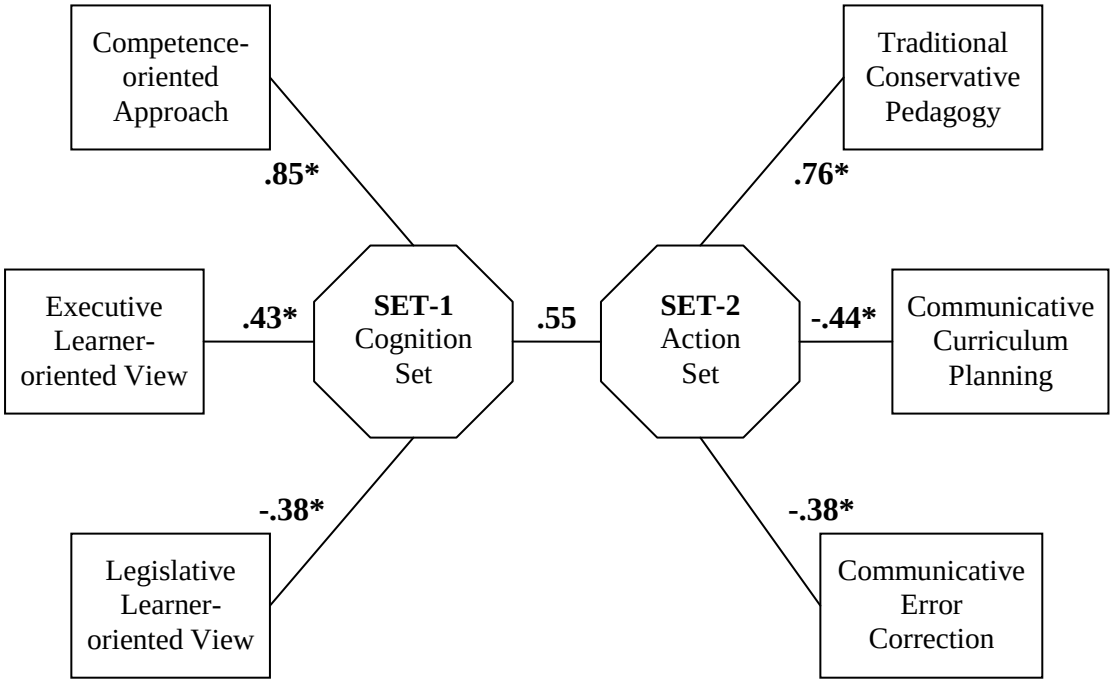

Figure 4.6 *Canonical Correlation Model*

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses the main results pertaining to language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of the EFL instructors teaching at tertiary level, the factors influencing their cognitions and actions, and the relationship between those cognitions and actions. Implications for practice and further research are provided at the end of the chapter, as well.

5.1. Discussion of the Descriptive Results

This section, firstly, summarizes the background of the participants in the study and later discusses the descriptive results in relation to language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of the participants under two headings.

First of all, the items in relation to demographic information were not responded to by all of the participants. Among the participants responding to the demographic information items, almost half of them were at the age of 30 and below, and more than half of them had 1 to 10 years of teaching experience. The participants in the study represented 15 different teaching contexts (higher education institutions) in Ankara. While almost half of the participants were working at state universities, the other half were from private universities. Concerning the participants' English language proficiency, the mean value regarding YDS scores was 95 out of 100.

As to academic background of the participants, half of the participants were the graduates of the departments of English Language Teaching; whereas the other half graduated from alternative routes to teaching profession. This finding puts forwards the claim that *Education Faculties* supply half of the demand for the instructors

teaching English at universities in Turkey, and the other half graduate from faculties other than *Education* and do the same task, which is teaching. Another striking point was that one-fourth of the graduates of *Non-education Faculties* did not hold a pedagogical formation certificate.

The participants in the study represented the graduates of 38 different universities in Turkey and other countries. However, the highest percentages were from Hacettepe University and Middle East Technical University. These proportions could mean that these two prominent universities have the potential to supply the demand for tertiary level EFL instructors in Ankara. Regarding the participants' tendencies to carry out graduate studies, it was seen that more than half of the participants held a Master's degree, which was a significant indication of the participants' attempts to further academic development and research-based approach. The highest percentages of the Master's holders were again from Middle East Technical University and Hacettepe University. These proportions could also indicate that these two universities offer preferable graduate studies for the EFL instructors in Ankara.

5.1.1. Discussion of the Descriptive Results Regarding Cognitions

In relation to the first research question investigating language learning cognitions of EFL instructors with regards to linguistic aptitude, priorities in language learning, and good language learners, it was seen that the participants did not reflect clear-cut or straightforward positions or orientations towards a particular dimension; instead, they had tendencies towards diverse perspectives and approaches at the same time. Similar cases was also stated in the literature, as it was claimed that teachers usually adopted a combination of dichotomous approaches in teaching (Hong, 2012; Ong, 2011) or eclectic methods and techniques (Saengboon, 2012) rather than relying on a single way that could not work perfectly in all situations (Tantani, 2012).

Even so, there appeared some significant accumulations in particular aspects of the inventory. To exemplify for linguistic aptitude, the *interactionist* perspective received much more ratings than the *innatist* perspective did, as the frequencies indicated. This finding revealed that the EFL instructors were inclined to believe that

language learning occurs through countless interactions between the learner and the environment, which takes a reference from Vygotsky's (1962) socio-cultural theory emphasizing the role of interaction and reflects Krashen's theory (1994) that interaction can enhance second language acquisition and fluency. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), "in the social interactionist view, it has been argued that language and social interaction cannot be separated without resulting in a distorted picture of the development of linguistic and interactive skills" (p. 480).

Regarding the subcategories in the *interactionist* perspective, both *informal (natural) context* and *formal (created) context* were rated to be important factors on language learning aptitude in the responses of the participant instructors even though they were slightly in favour of the *formal context-oriented* view. In this framework, it was predominantly believed that: the more social connections the learners have, the better they learn a foreign language (Long, 1985; Pica, 1996); it is better to learn a foreign language in a country where it is spoken as an official language (Vibulphol, 2004; Diab; 2009); and the learnability of a language depends on comprehensible input taken in sufficient quantities, which is consistent with the conceptual literature (Krashen, 1985, 1994) highlighting the critical role of comprehensible input for second language acquisition.

On the other hand, it was also reported, by the majority of the participants, that linguistic competence is highly related to a positive and encouraging classroom atmosphere; and improved teaching techniques makes language learners learn a language faster and to a greater degree. These findings support the assumption that school setting has a significant role in implementing an innovation; therefore, it is essential to improve current classroom conditions before starting a desirable innovation (Kırkgöz, 2008).

In the matter of the *innatist* perspective, which presupposes that certain aspects of language are innate and hardwired (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Randall, 2007), even if most of the participants seemed to think that the capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans, they also tended to disbelieve that all people learn a language more or less in the same way, and language competence is a result of 80% ability and 20% effort. The latter finding is fairly contradictory with the finding in Vibulphol's (2004) study, in which almost 90% of participants were inclined to admit that some

people possess a special ability for learning foreign languages. This point was rated by more than half of the participants in Diab's (2009) study, as well. However in the current dissertation, only one-fifth of the EFL instructors were inclined to this point.

Nonetheless, most of the participants tended to believe that the capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans; language skills are inherent in our genes; all people, regardless of intelligence, can learn to speak a language; and learning a language is like learning to walk. Regarding a similar position, Gass and Selinker (2008) shed light on the concept, by claiming that it is innate for people to learn languages just like it is innate to ride a bike. As Lightbown and Spada (2006) also state, "Chomsky argued that children are biologically programmed for language and that language develops in the child in just the same way that other biological functions develop" (p. 15). Consequently, it could mean that the EFL instructors had parallel views on certain points with the conceptual literature putting forward that the innatist perspective has a mentalist orientation that underlines the role of "a complex and biologically specified language module in the mind of the learner" (Ellis et al. 2009, p. 10).

When the participants' cognitions on priorities in language learning were examined, it was seen that they were mostly on the side of the *performance-oriented* approach, which was also highlighted as communication-oriented language teaching beliefs in Yook's (2010) dissertation. On the other hand, the *competence-oriented* approach had fewer ratings, which is in opposition to the findings in Canh (2011); Chia (2003); Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997); and Soontornwipast (2010), whose participants reflected a tendency towards formal, explicit, conscious, and deductive instruction of grammar in language teaching as the *competence-oriented* approach usually suggests.

Although Burns (1992) mentions the emphasis on both communicative and linguistic competences in language proficiency, the *competence-oriented* approach was less popular among the participants in the current study, because they tended to disbelieve that: literary language is superior to spoken language; understanding grammatical rules of the target language is the primary goal of language learning; the basic indication of language proficiency is to be able to translate from one language into another; language learning requires a detailed presentation of a set of

consciously learned grammatical structures; and the preliminary skills to be developed in language learning are reading and writing. Those items' getting fewer ratings indicated that the participants did not attach much importance to the idea that language is the target of learning. In contrast, the *performance-oriented* approach, which sees the language as a tool of communication, was much more popular, because the participants were supportive of the following ideas: language proficiency is reflected best in real-life situations in which target language is used effectively, and language learning requires an intense exposure to spoken communication.

As stated before, some dimensions in the inventory did not receive straightforward ratings and hence did not reflect clear-cut tendencies among the participants. For instance, the participant instructors both favoured learners taking responsibility for their own learning and desired to have learners analyzing, evaluating, and judging the things and ideas; at the same time they were fond of learners listening carefully to directives of their teachers. Consequently, the mean scores of all the categories of the cognitions on good language learners were highly close to each other. This finding showed that the participants did not exhibit definite preferences about their learners' characteristics, which is emphasized in the literature as well. As learners learn through different ways, the way that works for a particular group might not work for others (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). Considering that every single learner has the right to be successful, teachers are expected "to improve the chances of success for students who are struggling" (Nel, 2008, p. 54). Similarly, Naiman et al. (1996) remind that teachers need to exhibit a wide repertoire of learning styles and characteristics, because successful learners, with predetermined overall characteristics, do not exist, and learners cannot be expected to be tied to one particular set of habits.

However, the percentages indicated that the participants tended to favour the *legislative* learners a little more than they favoured the *judicial* and *executive* learners. For instance, good language learners were attributed to be more comfortable with activities that allow them to do things their own way; work better on language tasks that require creative strategies; try to learn a topic that they believe is important; and like open-ended and flexible assignments when they decide for what to do and how to do it. The participants did not rate the *executive* learners as much as

they rated the *legislative* and *judicial* learners, because they preferred learners who can take responsibility for their own learning, and they tended to disfavour the learners who adopt the views their teachers believe to be correct on a point. These positions are depicted in Ellis (1992) through the concepts named "active task approach" which stands for the learners "who take charge of their own learning rather than relying on the teacher and who are persistent in pursuing goals" and "awareness of the learning process" which represents "thoughtful learners who make conscious decisions about what study habits and tactics to employ" (p. 184). Similarly, higher level learners are described to have strategies to regulate and manage their own learning (Griffiths, 2008), and therefore instilling confidence, independence, and ability to communicate well among the learners are recommended (Mori, 2011). Besides all those, the participants also perceived good language learners as the ones who like projects promoting analysis, judgment, and evaluation of the things and ideas and activities in which they can review and compare different points of views, which are parallel with the constructivist orientations of the participants in Poulson et al. (2001).

5.1.2. Discussion of the Descriptive Results Regarding Actions

In relation to the third research question exploring EFL instructors' language teaching actions, it was seen that the participants' actions regarding *personal and professional development* received the highest ratings compared to other dimensions. In this framework, the participants seemed to follow necessary paths to develop themselves both personally and professionally. As highlighted by Sprinthall et al. (1996), professional development is somewhat of personal development, and for this reason "getting satisfaction in professional development would guarantee personal development in general" (p. 667).

Another top rating was given to *learner-centred* practices being inconsistent with Caner, Subaşı, and Kara's (2010) study confirming the learner-centred attitudes of the two Turkish teachers in early childhood education. However, in some of the literature from Far East and Middle East (Ali & Ammar, 2005; J. Choi, 2008; D. Li, 1998), EFL teachers were inclined to the traditional teacher-centred approach over the constructive learner-centred approach.

One of the two items that did not receive as many ratings as the other items among *learner-centred* practices in the inventory were about letting the students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class. The rating given to this item revealed a confirmatory finding on the related literature claiming that in-service language teachers have challenges in internalizing the idea of autonomy and promoting learner autonomy in their classrooms (Dickinson, 1992; Hurd, Beaven & Ortega, 2001; Littlewood, 1997; Nunan, 1997). The other item having fewer ratings was about keeping careful records of the students' language learning progress, on which the participants provided further comments like: *It is not my responsibility, because the people in test development unit design the test, and the ones in student affairs unit keep the records of the students in my institution*.

As for the third dimension receiving the highest ratings, the participants in the study exhibited considerable tendencies to follow *communicative* practices in *error correction*, as they reported to: permit their students to make errors in early stages to encourage them to speak well later on; let their students interact freely without the concern of accuracy; allow their students to learn from their own mistakes through self-correction; allow their students to say anything in the target language no matter whether they say it correctly or not; allow their students to learn from each other's mistakes through peer correction; and ignore language learners' oral errors and try to understand what they are saying. Similar to these findings, Mori's (2011) sample also attached importance to corrective feedback and communicative ability in language teaching. In opposition, a tendency to form-focused correction, which places too much emphasis on grammar-based errors, was found among the sample in Paiva's (2011) dissertation.

Regarding the *communicative* practices in *instructional planning*, it could also be concluded that the participants were positively inclined to communicative language teaching, as in Nishino (2008), seeing that the participants had a tendency to provide their students with meaningful practice rather than insignificant repetition and foster their students to become fluent in the target language through communicative tasks. However, one particular item did not receive as many ratings as the other items in *instructional planning* dimension, apparently due to contextual factors: *I avoid a syllabus making my students memorize newly-acquired words and*

structures. At this point, the participants provided further comments by referring to this item, and the following sentence could summarize the main theme emerging from those comments: *As a teacher, I do not have any interference in the curriculum development process, which was employed by the curriculum and material development unit.*

As justified in the literature as well, teachers' practices might be shaped by the social, psychological and environmental realities of the workplace (Borg, 1998c). In particular, contextual factors like curriculum mandates, standardized tests, and school policies are mentioned in a lot of papers (Ahn, 2009; Borg, 2003; Farrell & Lim, 2005; H. Lee, 2006; Ng & Farrell, 2003). A similar claim is made by Davis, Konopak, and Readence (1993), who suggest the environmental realties of the school and classroom as the factors hindering the teachers' personally held belief systems. The powerful influence of contextual factors on what teachers could do is emphasized in many other studies (Erkmen, 2010; Kang, 2008; Spada & Massey, 1992; Pennington & Richards, 1997; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Tsui, 1996).

Finally, the participants' language teaching actions were explored as signs of their pedagogical inclinations, and it was observed that participants tended to follow practices which were neither completely traditional (conservative) nor entirely innovative (liberal). This is also supported in the preceding literature (Hong, 2012; Ong, 2011; Saengboon, 2012; Tantani, 2012) mentioning teachers' tendencies to make use of more than one approach rather than relying solely on one approach. Still in this study, the actions reflecting the *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy seemed to be employed slightly more than the *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy by the participants, as opposed to the findings in Canh (2011); J. Choi (2008); El-Okda (2005); Ellis (2006); D. Li (1998); Phipps and Borg (2009); and Sifakis and Sougari (2005).

The *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy was rated more, as in Wolf and Riordan (1991), because the participants of this study tended to make use of imagination and creativity in implementing teaching strategies; organize teaching situations where they can try new ways of doing things; and make use of alternative assessments (such as portfolios, learning logs, diaries, etc.) to observe their students' progress. This indicates a parallel finding with Chan (2008)'s study, which reports the

majority's use of task-based assessments more frequently than traditional paper-and-pencil assessments.

On the other hand, most of the participants tended to follow the essentials in the foreign language teaching curriculum of the school they teach, most probably due to institutional policies in many contexts. This item also received some further comments by the participants such as: *Our syllabus is designed by the curriculum development unit, so we are supposed to follow what is written on the agenda.*

In order to summarize the findings through a broad and descriptive look, EFL instructors' language learning cognitions indicated: (a) an *interactionist* perspectives emphasizing the significance of the environment around individuals when learning a language; (b) a *performance-oriented* approach focusing on real-life functions of language skills and areas; and (c) a slight orientation to *legislative* learners who can create their own rules and decide on their own priorities. On the other hand, their self-reported actions for language teaching revealed: (a) both traditional (conservative) and innovative (liberal) pedagogies; (b) communicative practices in error correction and instructional planning; (c) learner-centeredness; and (d) personal and professional development attempts.

5.2. Discussion of the Inferential Results

This section reviews the results obtained from inferential analyses with respect to the background factors affecting language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of the participants as well as the patterns of the relationships between those cognitions and actions.

5.2.1. Discussion of the Impacts of Background Factors

To answer the second and fourth research questions aiming to examine possible relationships between the background factors (such as age, teaching experience, type of home institution, undergraduate education, and graduate education) and language learning cognitions or language teaching actions of the participants, necessary inferential analyses were performed. As Borg (2003) states, teachers' cognitions and educational practices are shaped by a wide range of interacting factors. In this framework, the gender effect, as a variable, on teacher

cognition was investigated in a few papers. For example, Bacon and Finneman (1992) claimed that beliefs regarding language learning could be predicted by gender, whereas Tercanlıoğlu (2001) stated that beliefs about language learning did not vary by gender as the differences among males and females were not significant. Similarly, Moini (2009) and Rakıcıoğlu (2005) found that the relationship between beliefs and gender was not statistically significant. As the female instructors outnumbered the male instructors in both of the pilot works of the current study, the gender factor was not taken as a background variable in the scope of the study.

However, the age factor was interpreted to have impacts on certain aspects of both cognitions and actions, in contrast to Chan (2008), who claim that the relationship between teacher belief and age is not statistically significant. To interpret more specifically, as the participants got older, their tendencies to adopt *innatist* or *interactionist* perspectives decreased, which could mean younger instructors could easily base linguistic aptitude upon the innate features as well as the environment (formal or informal). In other words, older instructors seemed to rely on neither *innatist* nor *interactionist* perspectives much as much as the younger ones did. Another point was that the older the participants became, the more ratings the *competence-oriented* approach received from them, which could mean that the younger instructors did not seem to agree upon the priority of knowing about the language over doing something with the language. As for actions, the age factor was found to be negatively correlated with the actions reflecting *communicative* practices in *instructional planning* and *error correction* as well as *personal and professional development*. These results indicated that the older participants tended to abandon communicative practices in their *instructional planning* and *error correction*. Besides, as they became older, they showed fewer tendencies towards attempts for *personal and professional development*.

As the second variable, the experience factor suggested similar findings to the age factor. For instance, there appeared a negatively significant correlation between the teaching experience and the *performance-oriented* approach, which could reveal that the more experienced the participants were, the less they were inclined to the *performance-oriented* approach, which emphasizes the communicative elements of the language. In addition, as the participants' teaching experiences increased, their

ratings for the *formal context-oriented* view decreased, which could indicate that the younger EFL instructors supported the *formal context-oriented* view more than their older colleagues. These findings could be interpreted on the basis of two assumptions: (1) Classroom events that the participants experienced routinely over years might have created shifts in their cognitions; or (2) Pre-service teacher education that the participants received years ago might have helped them construct those cognitions long ago.

In a great number of papers, teaching experience is mentioned as an important factor affecting teachers' cognitions or actions (Akyel, 1997; Breen et al. 2001; Canh, 2011; Chan, 2008; Chia, 2003; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Cumming, 1990; Johnson, 2003; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Moini, 2009; Mok, 1994; Nishino, 2008; Nunan, 1992; Osam & Balbay, 2004; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü 2009; Richards, 1998; Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Tantani, 2012; Tsui, 2003; Westerman, 1991). In relation to the impact of teaching experience on actions, it was seen that the experience factor had negative correlations with the actions concerning *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy and *personal and professional development*. More specifically, as the participants became more experienced, they tended to diverge from *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy in their language teaching practices and their adherence to *personal and professional development* decreased. These findings justify Johnson's (1992b) work, which revealed a relationship between years of teaching experience and teachers' theoretical orientation. Accordingly, the less experienced teachers employed the most recent theoretical stances and the more experienced teachers were on the side of the least recent ones. However, a positive impact of teaching experience was indicated both in Gatbonton (2008), who assert that experienced teachers' pedagogical knowledge and practices are more stable, and in Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, and Ölçü (2009), who report that in-service teachers reflected learner-centred perspective as they became experienced.

As the third variable, the workplace's effect (being a private/public institution) on cognitions and actions was explored. Unlike Kavanoz (2006), who claim a difference between private and public primary school teachers in terms of conceptualization and implementation of learner-centeredness, there was not a significant difference between private and state institutions, as indicated in the

analyses, in terms of both language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of the participant instructors. Therefore in this study, it was concluded that teaching at a private or state university did not create any difference in cognitions or actions of the EFL instructors. All in all, it could be summarized that this study did not put forward the statistically significant effect of the workplace (being a private/public institution) on teacher cognitions and actions, as opposed to many papers attaching importance to the impact of working environment and setting (Ahn, 2009; Borg, 1998c; Burns, 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Davis, Konopak, & Readence, 1993; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Kang, 2008; H. Lee, 2006; Moini, 2009; Ng and Farrell; 2003; Pennington & Richards, 1997; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Spada & Massey, 1992; Tsui, 1996).

As one of the most central foci of investigation in some studies, educational background is claimed to be an important source of teacher cognition by Johnston and Goettsch (2000). Therefore, the impact of pre-service years on teacher cognitions and actions was also explored in this study, and it was discovered that 'the field of study' at undergraduate education had a significant effect on the participants' language learning cognitions concerning *competence-oriented* approach, *legislative learner-oriented* view, and *judicial learner-oriented* view as well as on their language teaching actions concerning *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy; *communicative instructional planning*; and *communicative error correction*. Since the impact of pre-service years was observed in only six dimensions out of fourteen dimensions in the inventory, it could be interpreted that pre-service years created a limited effect on teachers' cognitions as justified by the previous literature (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990; Hobbs, 2007; Kagan, 1992; Kunt & Özdemir, 2010; H. Lee, 2006; Nettle, 1998; Peacock, 2001; Pennington & Urmston, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Urmston, 2003; Weinstein, 1990).

The following interpretations were deduced from the inferential results regarding the impact of the pre-service years (undergraduate education) on teachers' cognitions and actions:

(1) Firstly, the graduates of other departments tended to adopt a *competence-oriented* approach more than the ELT graduates did, and the ELT graduates favoured *legislative* and *judicial* learners more than the

graduates of other departments did. These two results could imply that the pre-service teacher education programs at ELT departments might have created positive cognitive changes among their graduates (Chambless & Bass, 1996; L. Li, 2012; Özmen, 2012; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). Likewise, Grisham (2000) illustrates the influence of teacher education programs on promoting more constructivist views among the participants.

(2) However for actions, it was discovered that the graduates of other departments claimed to follow slightly more *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy as opposed to the ELT graduates. Besides, the graduates of other departments claimed to adopt slightly more *communicative* practices in *instructional planning* and *error correction* than the ELT graduates did. These findings could mean that the pre-service teacher education programs at ELT departments might not have created intended changes in their graduates' behaviours particularly in terms of *communicative* practices in *instructional planning* and *error correction* as well as *innovative (liberal)* pedagogy.

(3) Considering the first two findings discussed above, it could be interpreted that there seemed to be gaps between cognitions and actions of the ELT graduates according to the responses given to the items in the inventory. Discrepancies between cognitions and practices were mentioned in some other papers as well. For instance, Karavas-Doukas (1996) found that the teachers' classroom practices deviated from their attitudes towards communicative language teaching; Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) found little evidence of communicative language teaching in practice, while positive understandings about communicative language teaching among the participants were observed. Similarly, S. Choi (2000) and D. Li (1998) claimed discrepancies between the teachers' perceptions of CLT and their instructional practices. Alternatively, Almarza (1996) proposed an opposite point by emphasizing the fully-exhibited behavioural changes but partially-exhibited cognitive changes among the participants even though teacher education programs were claimed to exert cognitive and behavioural changes on pre-service teachers at the same time.

(4) Secondly, the cognitions about the *innatist* perspective was rated more by the graduates of the departments of Linguistics, which might be attributed to the theories taught through the curricula implemented at the Linguistics departments, as Binnie-Smith (1996) claim that the teachers' decisions were influenced heavily by their personal constructs of L2 theories. Based on this finding, it could be interpreted that Linguistics graduates tended to believe in innatist theories that see aptitude for language learning as a fixed and inborn feature among all humans.

(5) Another interesting finding was that the cognitions about the *competence-oriented* approach was rated more by the graduates of the departments of American Culture and Literature, which could mean they that attached more importance to knowledge about language rather than a communicative performance in the case of a real life situation. However, the same group of the participants (the graduates of the Department of American Culture and Literature) tended to follow *communicative* practices in *instructional planning* and *error correction* more. These two positions indicated a gap between the cognitions and actions of the American Culture and Literature graduates, as well.

(6) Lastly, it was indicated that the participants completing a pedagogical formation course in their pre-service years favoured *legislative* learners more than the ones lacking a pedagogical formation certificate did. This finding could be interpreted that attending an intensive teacher certification program might have created changes, at least, on cognitions regarding good language learners, since the ones having a pedagogical formation certificate had a tendency towards more autonomous learners taking responsibility for their own learning. For actions, however, it was seen that having a pedagogical formation certificate did not create any difference among the participants in terms of their language teaching practices.

According to Chia (2003), teachers' academic degree is slightly associated with their beliefs and pedagogies. In a parallel standpoint, Moini (2009) emphasizes the importance of educational level in creating significant differences in cognitions

and practices of teachers. Taking a reference from these arguments, the impact of graduate education, which was not discussed in the literature thoroughly as a critical source, was also explored in this study, and it was seen that the features of graduate education had some impacts on certain dimensions of both cognitions and actions. The following findings were drawn from the inferential results regarding the impact of graduate education on teachers' cognitions and actions:

(1) First of all, the participants' holding or not holding a Master's degree crated significant differences in their cognitions on *competence-oriented* approach and actions regarding *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy. Accordingly, it could be concluded that the participants without a Master's degree were more inclined to the *competence-oriented* approach than the ones having a Master's degree. Similarly, the participants who did not have a Master's degree tended to adopt a *traditional (conservative)* pedagogy more than the ones holding a Master's degree. In view of these findings, being engaged in graduate studies could be claimed to have positive cognitive changes among the participants.

(2) Secondly, 'the field of study' at graduate programs had a significant effect on the participants' language learning cognitions regarding *competence-oriented* approach and *legislative learner-oriented* view. For instance, the participants who did a Master's at the departments outside the field of education tended to adopt a more *competence-oriented* approach compared to the ones who did their Master's in the field of education. Furthermore, the participants having a Master's degree from *education-related* departments favoured *legislative* learners more than the other participants did. However, for actions, the participants' fields of study (education or non-education) at their Master's program did not have any significant effects on their language teaching practices. These findings could mean that graduate studies might have created some cognitive but not behavioural differences among the participants.

(3) Comparing the categories of the academic programs at graduate education more specifically, it was indicated that adherence to cognitions about the *innatist* perspective was more common among the participants holding a

Master's degree in the departments of Linguistics, which might be interpreted once more as the result of the curricula at graduate programs of the Linguistics departments.

(4) On the other hand, the participants with a Master's degree in ELT departments diverged from the cognitions concerning *competence-oriented* approach, but they showed more tendencies towards *legislative learner-oriented* view. These two points indicated certain impacts of the graduates programs offered at the ELT departments on cognitive changes in the participants.

(5) As for actions, the participants having a Master's in ELT, ELL, and LING tended to adopt more *communicative* practices in *error correction* compared to the graduates of other departments.

(6) Considering the findings (from 1 to 5) discussed above, the effect of M.A./M.S. courses was also investigated by Burns and Knox (2005), who claimed that teachers reflected more traditional approaches and experienced difficulty in transferring their knowledge despite the courses in M.A. programs.

5.2.2. Discussion of the Relationship between Cognitions and Actions

In order to answer the fifth research question, the patterns of the relationships between cognitions and actions were examined. Based on the literature (Breen, 1991; Burns, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996a; Flores, 2001; Johnson, 1992b, 1994; Mitchell, Brumfit, & Hooper, 1994a, 1994b; Mitchell & Hooper, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richards et al., 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Smith, 1996; Thompson, 1992) that gives a wide coverage to the causal relationship between teachers' beliefs or thinking and their pedagogical (reported or observed) practices, an illustrative model revealing the patterns of the connections between cognitions and actions was obtained as a result of the canonical correlation analysis.

As the model revealed, there was a relationship among the following sets of variables: (1) competence-oriented approach; executive learner-oriented view; legislative learner-oriented view; (2) traditional (conservative) pedagogy; communicative instructional planning; and communicative error correction. In this

framework, competence-oriented approach, executive learner-oriented view, and legislative learner-oriented view were the three predictors of the outcomes concerning traditional (conservative) pedagogy, communicative instructional planning, and communicative error correction. Considering positive and negative correlations in the analyses, the participants having competence-oriented approach and executive learner preferences exhibited adherence to traditional (conservative) pedagogy, but divergence from communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction. At this point, it could be concluded that EFL instructors seeing the language as a system of linguistic elements and the learners as individuals performing pre-established duties by following given instructions would probably adopt traditional and conservative ways in their language teaching practices, rather than employing communicative principles in their instructional planning and error correction practices. Similarly, the participants disfavouring legislative (more autonomous) learners would tend to diverge from communicative practices in instructional planning and error correction; on the contrary they would reflect a tendency towards traditional (conservative) pedagogy.

As justified by various studies in the literature, teacher cognition and classroom practice exist in 'symbiotic relationships' (Foss & Kleinsasser 1996: 441, cited in Borg, 2003). For instance, Johnson (1992b) highlights the relationship between teachers' theoretical beliefs and their classroom practices. In another study, Johnson (1994) mentions the associations between beliefs about language teaching and the instructional practices of pre-service teachers. Consistent findings are also seen in the studies of Smith (1996), who claims that teachers' curricula design and selection of learning tasks and teaching approaches are influenced by their beliefs about second language teaching and learning. Likewise, Richards and Lockhart (1996) emphasize that teachers' beliefs influence how they make decisions or act in a classroom. Andrews (2003), more specifically, claim that the teachers' beliefs in a form-focused approach to grammar are positively correlated to beliefs in a deductive approach to grammar. Finally, Altan (2006) states that teachers' beliefs influence their consciousness as well as their teaching attitudes, methods and policies.

Considering all the points discussed so far and asserted in the related literature, there are noticeable relationships between cognitions and actions, and the canonical

correlation model in the current dissertation justifies the idea that it is essential to create awareness in cognitions to be able to create changes in actions.

5.3. Implications for Practice

Research on teaching suggested that it is necessary to uncover teachers' cognitions, because teachers' mental lives are claimed to be underlying sources of their educational practices. Teachers' approaches, attitudes, awareness, behaviours, consciousness, curricular decisions, instructional policies, pedagogical orientations, and teaching methods and strategies are all linked to their interactions with their learners and their learners' development. In this respect, both cognitions and actions are mutually informative about the implications to be drawn in teaching. With the help of this empirical study, a comprehensive understanding of what happens in EFL teaching at tertiary level contexts in Turkey was obtained. The findings obtained from this study offered implications for teachers as well as the other stakeholders in the contexts of both pre-service and in-service years.

5.3.1. Implications for Teachers' Development

It is revealed that teaching has a complex feature being both a cognitive as well as a social activity, and it is mostly guided by teachers' personal, practical, and experiential knowledge as well as their beliefs and understandings. This study had an objective to explore teachers' cognitions, and therefore it could be seen as a tool for the teachers to confront their own cognitions and reflect on their cognitive and behavioural orientations when teaching. It had also a value for raising awareness among the participants of the study.

In this study, it was not intended to criticize or misrepresent the teachers by uncovering their thoughts, beliefs, or knowledge; on the contrary, this dissertation exists to be a valuable opportunity for them to reflect on. Through this reflection, they might replace inefficient or out-dated understandings or perceptions about teaching or reinforce efficient teaching practices and pedagogies that work effectively in the classroom. Employing a reflective teaching approach might result in discovering new ideas as well as reshaping existing beliefs and thinking.

Concerning the current research, the first thing for teachers to reflect on could be about the participants' not taking active roles in curriculum and test development processes at institutional levels. As inferred from the further comments of the participants on certain items and low ratings that certain items received, some of the institutions adopt a top-down approach about instructional policies and set up separate curriculum development units that decide on and design the scope of the instruction, and therefore the teachers are expected to follow pre-determined rules and established guidelines. However, it was argued, long ago by Taba (1962), that teachers, as the users of the programs, should participate in curriculum development phases. Being obliged to follow the institutional curricula brings a standard, but it also takes away the flexibility and variability principles of instruction. For that reason, EFL instructors should search for the ways to be involved in all decision-making processes regarding both curriculum and assessment. Otherwise, their autonomy might be limited, and they might feel dependent. Teachers with limited autonomy might have difficulty in promoting learner autonomy in their classrooms.

Promoting learner autonomy would start with internalizing the meaning of autonomy. As one of the findings of this study put forward, letting students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class was not acknowledged by the participants as much as the other items This might also restrict autonomy from the learners' sides. It is obvious among the principles of curriculum development that not only teachers, but other stakeholders like students are expected and should be permitted to take active roles in decision-making processes. In this case, EFL instructors should consider involving their students at classroom level decisions and themselves at school level decisions. Considering the finding that most of the participants did not believe in people's special ability in language learning but the importance of the environment, in particular school setting and classroom conditions, EFL instructors should do their best to create positive and encouraging learning atmospheres for their learners.

Another striking point was about keeping careful records of students' progress, which received lower ratings than the other items in the same category. This finding indicated a kind of indifference towards tertiary level learners' progress. In fact, teaching is not a job that starts and finishes in the classroom; on the contrary it is

extended to a lot of duties such as planning, assessing, and keeping records. Teaching at tertiary level should not prevent keeping careful records of the learners, because learners, no matter at what age, always need guidance and monitoring of their teachers.

As one of the valuable findings of the study, EFL instructors choose to benefit from diverse perspectives and look from broader views, rather than adhering to straightforward orientations. This approach enables them to have a rich repertoire of pedagogy and reach their fullest potential in teaching. However, there appeared certain factors that led shifts in cognitions and actions of the instructors such as age, experience, and undergraduate/graduate education. For instance, as the instructors get older and more experienced, they tended to diverge from personal and professional development, and their cognitions and actions tended to reflect traditional and conservative approaches. Even though it is a personal choice to employ certain approaches in teaching, it is also important to seek for opportunities to refresh minds. Experienced teachers' cognitions could be refreshed with the help of their newly-graduated and younger colleagues. As an important step, they could start or join a teacher network within the institution or across the country or even internationally, and by this way they could establish professional links outside the school. It was also seen that being engaged in a graduate study might have positive changes both in cognitions and actions; hence, those instructors could consider carrying out graduate studies and adopting a research-based teaching approach.

5.3.2 Implications for Improving Pre-service Teacher Education

Both conceptual and empirical literature on teaching indicated that teachers' pedagogical beliefs, thinking, and knowledge influence their learners' learning and improvement, and the formation of those cognitions mostly occur during pre-service years. It was persistently mentioned that certain educational beliefs are shaped by individuals through certain educational programs. The results in the current study also revealed that pre-service years, either during authorized teacher education programs or through alternative certification routes, had an important impact on teachers' cognitive and behavioural development. For instance, it was seen that ELT programs created tendencies towards certain orientations among their own graduates

while non-ELT programs created different tendencies among their own graduates. Considering another finding that put forward the fact that authorized teacher education programs supply only half of the demand for tertiary level EFL teachers and that the other half come from alternative routes, there ought to be other steps to be taken in order to fill in the gap between the graduates of these two edges. It should also be noted that providing pedagogical formation certificates did not seem to have a powerful effect on cognitions and actions of the participants and that one-fourth of the teachers coming from alternative routes did not have pedagogical formation certificates. All these points indicate a need for a joint, interdisciplinary, and updated program to be initiated by the two pre-service paths mentioned above. Although it is not stated literally, it could be seen, from current conditions, that alternative programs also train EFL teachers in Turkey. Therefore, the programs offered in those paths might need to be updated to include components of pedagogy and language teaching. Taking a look at the programs of the departments that supply the demand for the EFL teachers/instructors in Turkey, the following points were noted from *Hacettepe University ECTS Information Package and Course Catalogue* (HUPIMS, 2014):

- The three main components of the programs implemented at the departments of English Language and Literature are *Literature* (69%); *Culture* (9%); and *History* (6%). Besides, *Language Skills*, *Translation*, and *Research* (3% each) are included in the program.
- The programs implemented at the departments of American Culture and Literature basically consist of *Literature* (45%); *Culture* (22%); *History* (18%); *Research* (5%); and *Language Skills* (3%).
- The programs implemented at the departments of Linguistics include *Theories of Linguistics* (50%); *Linguistic Analysis* (27%); *Research* (7%); *Language Skills* (6%); and *Translation* (4%).
- The departments of Translation and Interpretation consist of a program including *Translation* (55%); *Language Skills* (15%); *Culture and History* (12%); *Linguistics* (8%); and *Literature* (4%).
- The components that the programs implemented at the departments of English Language Teaching were *ELT Methodology* (28%); *Language*

Skills (21%); *Educational Sciences* (18%); *Literature* (9%); *Teaching Practice* (8%); *Linguistics* (7%); and *Translation* (5%).

As the points above indicate, the ELT programs seem to offer a comprehensive perspective of other disciplines (*Literature*, *Linguistics*, and *Translation*). However, the alternative routes (the other four programs) rather seem to have a single-focus. As the ELT programs include pieces from other disciplines, those alternative routes could also include a 'language teaching' component. However, it is crucial that this component be organized not literally through intense certification programs but through extensive and integrated programs, because 'the art of teaching' might require time to internalize.

As student teachers' cognitive development should be considered in all planning and guiding phases of pre-service teacher education, the findings of the current study could also be utilized to reshape the current content and structure of authorized teacher education programs, because a gap between the cognitions and actions of the graduates of pre-service teacher education programs was inferred from the findings. To illustrate, it was seen that the ELT programs created intended cognitive changes among their own graduates but limited behavioural transfer of those changes. In other words, the cognitions of the ELT graduates did not seem to be reflected on their practices. There might be two possible reasons for this situation: (1) current contextual factors might be restricting teachers' ability or potential to transfer their cognitions into actions; or (2) teachers might not have had sufficient real classroom practices when they were student teachers in pre-service years. The first assumption would be the issue of in-service training and institutional policies, but the second one brings the importance of practice teaching in pre-service education to surface. At this point, a teacher education program should provide optimized opportunities of real teaching practices for its students to transfer their cognitions into actions. This could be ensured through various attempts such as increasing the amount of school experience and practice teaching courses, which takes only 8% of the whole program (HUPIMS, 2014) and including diverse school settings for practice teaching. For instance, teacher candidates are usually sent to primary or secondary education institutions to gain initial teaching experience; however, they do not have the opportunity to teach to young adults at tertiary level.

Considering that teaching at higher education level might be the first choice of teacher candidates, including higher education institutions into the practice teaching agenda and enabling teacher candidates to receive mentoring from an instructor at a university would add to cognitive and behavioural development of prospective teachers. Cognitive and behavioural changes in prospective teachers, no matter limited, weak, or powerful, could be tracked in pre-service training through surveys, interviews, observations, reflections, journals, narratives, diaries, and so on. Improvement and enrichment in teacher education programs would certainly have an effect on prospective teachers' cognitions and actions regarding all teaching and learning issues.

Based on the findings obtained in this study, teacher educators could consider acknowledging how cognitions are linked to actions, and teaching certificate providers could establish valuable environments that will guide early development of teacher candidates and provide them with insights about how to guide their own further development in teaching profession. Fostering necessary attitudes towards teaching and learning among prospective teachers as well as assisting them in internalizing pedagogical orientations could be best achieved during pre-service years. For that reason, this study will be a good base for teacher educators in order to design effective teacher certification programs.

5.3.3. Implications for Improving In-service Teacher Education

Pre-service teacher education cannot be considered a single-handed party in preparing teachers for a life-long career and enabling their personal and professional development. In-service years also play significant roles in teachers' development. Based on the findings obtained in this study, in-service teacher trainers could also consider acknowledging the significance of studying teacher cognition, because understanding how teachers' cognitions relate to certain practices might provide the them with useful signs about teachers' orientations towards educational issues.

As asserted in many other studies as well as in the current study, teachers' cognitions cannot be static or unchangeable. Cognitive development has such a dynamic feature that it is possible to observe changes in teachers' cognitions and actions as they become more experienced. This assumption was justified by the

current dissertation, because the experience factor created variations in both the cognitions and actions of the participants. Taking this finding into account, designing professional development activities as in-service trainings are good ways to update practicing teachers about the latest developments and innovations in education and thus promote necessary cognitive and behavioural changes among them. Such a design should include training modules that could be provided for the teachers coming from alternative routes, since the current study asserted that there are cognitive differences between the graduates of authorized teacher education programs and alternative certification routes. In order to fill in this gap and update the target group, specific training programs could be initiated just after they start to teach.

Since teachers' priorities in designing their teaching and creating effective learning environments rely on their own assumptions or knowledge about learning and teaching, positive impacts of in-service trainings on creating intended changes in teachers' thinking and acting would be inevitable. Such in-service trainings could be designed on the basis of the findings obtained from inferential analyses, which claimed the impacts of three major variables on cognitions and actions: age/experience, pre-service years, and graduate studies. These variables shed light on the three key elements that would essentially support teacher development processes: experience; schooling, in particular pre-service years; and research. Considering these key components, the following features could portray the philosophy of teacher development: (1) *Appreciation of Research:* Having a crucial meaning research should be appreciated from the sides of both more and less experienced teachers, because an inquiry-based teaching approach would provide valuable contributions to practicing teachers' personal and professional development. (2) *Balance of Expertise between Experienced and Novice Teachers:* There should be a balance between the more and less experienced teachers, as they share mutual responsibilities and equal spaces to work together to reach their fullest potential. In such cooperative work, experienced teachers might bring know-how with their real in-class experiences, and novice teachers might bring fresh backgrounds from their schooling including theoretical and methodological issues. Hence, such cooperation put neither an expert on top of everything nor layers between the stakeholders. Both parties happen to be

learners, since they learn from each other through peer-interaction and pave the way together towards their mutual development. When doing this, they might be expected to observe, monitor, and reflect on each other's progress. Each party should have a complementary role for the other one, because it possible that they have different strengths and potentials to share and different weaknesses to improve. (3) *Continuity:* There should be a continuous process in teacher development. Teaching is considered a life-long career, because knowledge is tentative and constantly being created and revised. Therefore, there is not an end for learning and developing in the art of teaching.

To sum up the implications for practice, a considerable body of research, together with the current study, claim that both development of teachers and their classroom practices are influenced by their educational orientations. Thus, identifying teachers' cognition creates spaces for teachers' own growth as well as their students and their schools. All types of teacher organizations, teacher educators, directors, teacher education researchers, educational specialists, and other stakeholders who are responsible for the professional development of teachers should take into account the systematic examinations of teachers' cognitions.

5.4. Implications for Further Research

With regard to the methodology adopted in this study, an important and valid step was taken to examine self-reported cognitions and actions of the EFL instructors teaching at tertiary level in Turkey. Still, it is acceptable that eliciting cognitive and behavioural inclinations of individuals through only a survey is a challenging task. Considering the complexity of studying teacher cognition, a qualitative aspect could be added to the current design as a follow-up study, and therefore an in-depth exploration could be ensured. To portray contextual realities better and more meaningfully, case studies form different teaching contexts could be employed as a research design in further studies.

As there are two main components (cognitions and actions) of the current study, different methods for different components could be utilized to work more efficiently. This could be realized in two ways: (a) investigating cognitions through interviews and (b) actions through observations. A researcher could take only one

aspect and work on it or combine both aspects and use observations and interviews together. Such an approach would facilitate a comparison between cognitive and behavioural aspects, because it would enable a detailed description of cognitions together with underlying sources behind them and patterns of behaviours through real practices rather than reported ones.

Another step could be taken about the data source, the sample, although the size and representativeness of the current study group should not be underestimated. For instance, EFL instructors from other universities all around the country or EFL teachers from all levels of education could be involved as the sample of a future study. Investigating EFL teaching contexts at different educational levels and in different institutions with a larger sample would definitely add value to the significance of this study. This could be accomplished by including all geographical areas or provinces and selecting equal sample sizes from each institution, which would make it more objective to analyze group differences.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Last Decade's International Research

Last Decade's International Research on Teacher Cognition: EFL/ESL Contexts

Year	Researcher(s)	Concept(s)	Focus/Foci	Study	Context(s)*	
2004	Baştürkmen, Loewen, & Ellis	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	3	in-service years	NZ
2004	Castro, Sercu, & Garcia	-perceptions	-FLE objectives -teaching culture	35	in-service years	Spain
2004	Gupta	-beliefs -practices	-literacy -teaching reading	29	pre-service years	Singapore
2004	Karabenick & Noda	-beliefs -practices	-immigrant ESL learners	729	in-service years	USA
2004	Luo	-knowledge	-TEYL	4 4	pre-service in-service years	Taiwan
2004	Mangubhai et al.	-practical theory	-CLT practices	1	in-service years	Australia
2004	Tsang	-personal practical knowledge	-interactive decision-making	3	pre-service years	HK
2004	Vibulphol	-beliefs	-language learning	42	pre-service years	Thailand
2005	Ali & Ammar	-beliefs -practices	-epistemological beliefs' impact	114	pre-service years	SA
2005	Andrews & McNeil	-knowledge	-KAL -good teachers	3	in-service years	HK UK
2005	Bigelow & Ranney	-knowledge -practices	-transfer of KAL - lesson-planning	20	pre-service years	USA
2005	M. Borg	-pedagogical thinking	-development in thinking -language learning & teaching	1	pre-service years	UK
2005	Burns & Knox	-knowledge -practices	-transfer of KAL	2	in-service years	Australia
2005	Choe	-perceptions	-native speaker teachers' role	4	in-service years	Korea
2005	El-Okda	-cognitions	-teaching reading	57	pre-service years	Oman
2005	Farrell & Lim	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	2	in-service years	Singapore
2005	Hislam & Cajkler	-knowledge -practices	-transfer of KAL	4	novice years	UK
2005	Norman & Spencer	-beliefs -experiences	-writing -teaching writing	59	pre-service years	USA

2005	Popko	-knowledge -practice	-transfer of KAL	4	pre-service years	USA
2005	Sifakis & Sougari	-beliefs -practices	-teaching pronunciation	421	in-service years	Greece
2005	da Silva	-perceptions	-teaching four skills	3	pre-service years	Brazil
2005	Zacharias	-beliefs	-internationally-published materials	100	in-service years	Indonesia
2006	Goker	-beliefs -practices	-instructional skills -self-efficacy -change in beliefs -impact of training	32	pre-service years	NC
2006	Farrell (a)	-beliefs -experiences	-induction process	1	novice years	Singapore
2006	Farrell (b)	-belief systems -metaphors	-change in beliefs -teaching-learning	3	pre-service years	Singapore
2006	Farrell (c)	-beliefs -concept maps	-change in concepts -teaching reading	20	pre-service years	Singapore
2006	H. Lee	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -teaching-learning	4	in-service years	Korea
2006	Kim, K. J.	-beliefs	-language learning -teachers' and students' beliefs	29	in-service years	Korea
2006	Kubanyiova	-cognitive development	-change in beliefs -motivation	8	in-service years	Slovakia
2006	Linek et al.	-beliefs -practices	-change in beliefs -teaching literacy	11	pre-service years	USA
2007	Farrel & Kun	-beliefs	-native language use in class	3	in-service years	Singapore
2007	Gil & Carazzi	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	1	in-service years	Brazil
2007	Hobbs	-beliefs -practices	-change in beliefs -language teaching	12	pre-service years	UK
2007	Lau	-orientations -practices	-teaching reading	493	in-service years	China
2007	Mattheoudakis	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -teaching-learning	66	pre-service years	Greece
2008	Bernardo	-beliefs	-epistemological beliefs	864	pre-service years	Philippines
2008	Chan	-beliefs -practices	-multiple assessments	520	in-service years	Taiwan
2008	Choi	-beliefs	-teaching methods	20	pre-service years	Korea
2008	C. Chou	-practical knowledge	-TEYL	3	in-service years	Taiwan
2008	Y. Chou	-belief systems -practices	-reading theories and strategies	42	in-service years	Taiwan
2008	Decker & Rimm-Kaufman	-personality -beliefs	-teaching	397	pre-service years	USA
2008	Delgado	-beliefs -practices	-teaching reading -learners with learning disability	1	in-service years	USA
2008	Gatbonton	-knowledge	-pedagogical knowledge	4 7	novice in-service years	Canada

2008	Kang	-perceptions	-native language use in class -TEE Policy	1	in-service years	Korea
2008	E. Kim	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -teaching methods -CLT	1	in-service years	Korea
2008	Mann	-metaphors	-induction process	5	novice years	Taiwan Japan Cyprus Shanghai
2008	Nishino	-beliefs -practices	-CLT	21	in-service years	Japan
2008	Zhang	-beliefs -practices	-teaching vocabulary	7	in-service years	China
2008	Urmston & Pennington	-beliefs -practices	-change in beliefs -language teaching	3	novice years	HK
2009	Ahn	-orientations -practices	-CLT -TEE Policy	4	pre-service years	Korea
2009	Diab	-beliefs	-language learning	19 31	pre-service in-service years	Lebanon
2009	Moini	-cognitions	-differences in cognitions -teaching grammar	130	in-service years	Iran
2009	Orafi & Borg	-beliefs -practices	-CLT	3	in-service years	Libya
2009	Wallestad	-beliefs -perceptions -experiences	-change in beliefs -cooperative learning	7	pre-service years	China Japan Korea Poland USA
2010	Doğruer, Meneviş, & Eyyam	-beliefs	-language learning	35	in-service years	NC
2010	Erkmen	-beliefs	-language learning & teaching	9	novice years	NC
2010	Grisham	-conceptions -beliefs -practices -knowledge	-teaching reading -teaching language arts	12	pre-service years novice years	USA
2010	Khonamri & Salimi	-belief systems -practices	-reading strategies	57	in-service years	Iran
2010	Kunt & Özdemir	-beliefs	- language learning -impact of training	89	pre-service years	NC
2010	Soontornwipast	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	12	in-service years	Thailand
2010	Yin	-cognitions	-language assessment	2	in-service years	UK
2010	Yook	-beliefs	-language teaching -educational reform	158	in-service years	Korea
2011	Bangou, Flemeng, & Goff-Kfouri	-beliefs -knowledge	-ESL -EFL	11 8	pre-service years	Lebanon Canada
2011	Borg	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -language learning & teaching	6	in-service years	UK

2011	Canh	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	8	in-service years	Vietnam
2011	Kuzborska	-beliefs -practices	-teaching reading	8	in-service years	Lithuania
2011	Mori	-cognitions	-corrective feedback	2	in-service years	Japan
2011	Ong	-beliefs	-teaching grammar	39	pre-service years	Singapore
2011	Paiva	-beliefs	-grammar-based feedback on writing	15	in-service years	Brazil
2012	Abdullah, Ferran, & Malek	-perceptions	-readers -teaching reading	60	pre-service years	Malaysia
2012	Debreli	--beliefs	-language learning & teaching -change in beliefs -impact of training	3	pre-service years	NC
2012	Ezzi	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar	80	in-service years	Yemen
2012	Hong	-cognitions	-teaching grammar	37	in-service years	Singapore
2012	Li	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -teaching-learning	2	pre-service years	UK
2012	Musayeva-Vefalı & Tuncergil	-beliefs -practices	-change in beliefs -impact of training	13	in-service years	NC
2012	Saengboon	-beliefs -practices	-teaching-learning	2	in-service years	Thailand
2012	Tantani	-knowledge -practices	-teaching grammar	8	in-service years	Libya

*The there columns represent sample size, study group, and country.
CLT=Communicative Language Teaching; ESL=English as a Second Language; EFL=English as a Foreign Language; FLE=Foreign Language Education; HK=Hong Kong; KAL=Knowledge about Language; NC=Northern Cyprus; NZ=New Zealand; SA=Saudi Arabia; TEE=Teaching English in English; TEYL=Teaching English to Young Learners; UK=United Kingdom; USA=United States of America

Appendix B: Studies in Turkish Context

Studies Conducted in Turkish Context: Concept and Focus

Year	Researcher(s)	Concept(s)	Focus/Foci
1998	Sendan & Roberts	-personal theories	-effective teaching -change in beliefs
2001	Tercanlıoğlu	-perceptions	-reading -teaching reading
2004	Vanci-Osam & Balbay	-decision-making	-FLE -instructional planning
2005	Erdoğan	-personal theories	-effective teaching
2005	Rakıcıoğlu	-beliefs	-relationship btw self-efficacy and epistemological beliefs
2005	Tercanlıoğlu	-beliefs	-foreign language learning -gender effect
2006	Altan	-beliefs	-foreign language learning
2006	Bayyurt	-conceptions -perceptions	-teaching culture
2006	Kavanoz	-beliefs -assumptions -knowledge	-learner-centeredness
2007	Akbulut	-beliefs	-induction process -teaching
2007	Arıoğul	-practical knowledge	-factors shaping practical knowledge
2007	Kaya	-interactive decisions	-difference btw novice & experienced teachers
2007	Phipps	-beliefs -awareness -practices	-teaching grammar -change in beliefs -impact of training
2008	Cabaroglu & Yurdaisik	-views -approaches	-teaching reading
2008	Kırkgöz	-understandings -practices	-CLT -TEYL
2008	Üstünel	-views -practices	-classroom management
2009	Atay et al.	-opinions -attitudes	-teaching intercultural competence
2009	Phipps & Borg	-beliefs -practices	-teaching grammar
2009	Seferoglu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü	-metaphors -thinking	-teaching -teachers
2009	Tüzel & Akcan	-awareness -perceptions	-target language use -language awareness -impact of training
2010	Balçıkanlı	-beliefs	-learner autonomy
2010	Caner, Subaşı, & Kara	-beliefs -practices	-TEYL
2010	Kömür	-knowledge	-relationship btw knowledge and competency
2010	Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz	-attitudes	-use of interactive whiteboards
2010	Polat	-beliefs	-change in beliefs -impact of training -effectiveness of materials

2012	Altan	-beliefs	-foreign language learning
2012	Guven	-beliefs	-epistemological beliefs -meta-cognitive strategies
2012	Hismanoglu	-perceptions	-integrating ICT into FLE
2012	Özmen	-beliefs	-FLE -change in beliefs -impact of training
2012	Savas	-perceptions	-role of MI Theory in FLE

CLT=Communicative Language Teaching; FLE=Foreign Language Learning; ICT=Information and Communication Technology; MI=Multiple Intelligences; TEYL=Teaching English to Young Learners

Studies Conducted in Turkish Context: Research Setting

Year	Researcher(s)	Sample Size	Study Group(s)	Context(s)
1998	Sendan & Roberts	1	pre-service teacher	a BA Program
2001	Tercanlıoğlu	132	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2004	Vanci-Osam & Balbay	7 4	pre-service teachers in-service teachers	a BA Program a Secondary Level Inst
2005	Erdoğan	4	in-service teachers	a Secondary Level Inst
2005	Rakıcıoğlu	456	pre-service teachers	five BA Programs
2005	Tercanlıoğlu	118	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2006	Altan	248	pre-service teachers	five BA Programs
2006	Bayyurt	12	in-service teachers	two Secondary Level Inst
2006	Kavanoz	4	in-service teachers	two Primary Level Inst
2007	Akbulut	13	novice teachers	graduates of a BA Program
2007	Arıoğul	3	in-service teachers	a Tertiary Level Inst
2007	Kaya	4 4	novice teachers in-service teachers	a Tertiary Level Inst
2007	Phipps	1	in-service teacher	a DELTA course
2008	Cabaroglu & Yurdaisik	50	in-service teachers	three Tertiary Level Inst
2008	Kırkgöz	32	in-service teachers	22 Primary Level Inst
2008	Üstünel	65	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2009	Atay et al.	200	in-service teachers	seven Regions
2009	Phipps & Borg	3	in-service teachers	a Tertiary Level Inst
2009	Seferoglu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü	150 70	pre-service teachers in-service teachers	a BA Program Various Inst.
2009	Tüzel & Akcan	5	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2010	Balçıkanlı	112	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2010	Caner, Subaşı, & Kara	2	in-service teachers	a Primary Level Inst
2010	Kömür	39	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2010	Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz	82	in-service teachers	seven different Inst
2010	Polat	90	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2012	Altan	217	pre-service teachers	seven BA Programs
2012	Guven	381	pre-service teachers	two BA Programs
2012	Hismanoglu	85	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2012	Özmen	49	pre-service teachers	a BA Program
2012	Savas	160	pre-service teachers	a BA Program

BA=Bachelor of Arts; DELTA=Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults; Inst=Institution

Appendix C: Sample Copy of the Inventory

EFL INSTRUCTORS' COGNITIONS AND ACTIONS INVENTORY (*EFLICAI*)

Dear colleague,

The following inventory has been designed to investigate the language learning cognitions and language teaching actions of the instructors teaching English at tertiary level and to see to what extent those cognitions and actions change with respect to certain variables. Since the results of this study will contribute both to the stakeholders in the profession and other institutions responsible for teacher training and development, it is absolutely essential that you express your views sincerely.

Your identity and individual responses will be kept strictly confidential, and the results of the survey will be used only for research purposes. If you would like to receive a report about the findings, you can provide your e-mail address at the end of the form. Thank you for your participation and sincerity.

Mustafa ÖZTÜRK
PhD Student
Department of Educational Sciences
Middle East Technical University

SECTION I: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Age: _____
2. The university you graduated from: _____
3. The undergraduate program you graduated from:
   1. ( ) English Language Teaching
   2. ( ) English Literature
   3. ( ) Linguistics
   4. ( ) American Culture and Literature
   5. ( ) Translation and Interpretation
   6. ( ) Other (please specify _____)

4. How long have you been teaching English? _____ year(s)
5. Do you have pedagogical formation certificate?
   1. ( ) Yes
   2. ( ) No

6. The type of the institution you are currently working at:
   1. ( ) State
   2. ( ) Private

7. The name of the institution you are currently teaching at:
_____
8. Do you hold a Master's degree?
   1. ( ) Yes (Please indicate the name of the university and the program:
_____
   2. ( ) No

9. Have you done/been doing a PhD?

1. ( ) Yes (Please indicate the name of the university and the program: _____
2. ( ) No

10. Could you write your latest test score for any of the following exams if you have?

1. YDS: _____
2. TOEFL: _____

SECTION II: LANGUAGE LEARNING COGNITIONS

Part I: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates your opinion in relation to <u>linguistic aptitude.</u>*	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. Learning a language is like learning to walk.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The capacity to learn a language is inborn in all humans.	1	2	3	4	5
3. All people, regardless of intelligence, can learn to speak a language.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Language skills are inherent in our genes.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Linguistic aptitude is fixed in humans.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The innate talent for language makes all languages equally learnable.	1	2	3	4	5
7. All people learn a language more or less in the same way.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Language competence is a result of 80% ability and 20% effort.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Language is learned subconsciously within a natural context.	1	2	3	4	5
10. It is better to learn a foreign language in a country where it is spoken as an official language.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The more social connections the learners have, the better they learn a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Linguistic aptitude is in constant interplay with the social class the learner belongs to.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Learners' performance in language learning depends on home environment and family background.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Language aptitude is highly related to a strong parental interest, attention and support.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Learnability of a language depends on comprehensible input taken in sufficient quantities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Learners construct their linguistic knowledge on	1	2	3	4	5

the basis of societal background and interactional opportunities in real life.					
17. Consciously created academic contexts facilitate a better process for language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
18. School context, where language learning takes place, directly affects learners' language aptitude.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Linguistic competence is highly related to a positive and encouraging classroom atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The teacher's approach and attitude has the greatest influence on a learner's linguistic aptitude.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Language learning occurs best when learners learn from each others by interacting freely.	1	2	3	4	5
22. A remarkable and intensive educational program has the central role in shaping learners' language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
23. The quality of the materials used in class is the key factor to learn a language efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Improved teaching techniques makes the learners learn a language faster and to a greater degree.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates your opinion in relation to priorities in language learning.*	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
25. Understanding grammatical rules of the target language is the primary goal of language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Language learning requires a detailed presentation of a set of consciously learned grammatical structures.	1	2	3	4	5
27. The basic indication of language proficiency is to be able to translate from one language into another easily.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Literary language is superior to spoken language.	1	2	3	4	5
29. The preliminary skills to be developed in language learning are reading and writing.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Language proficiency means using language forms appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
31. It is necessary to teach language learners speaking skills before they acquire grammar and vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Language learning requires an intense exposure to spoken communication.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Language proficiency is reflected best in real-life	1	2	3	4	5

situations in which target language is used effectively.					
34. Language is primarily speech.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Language learners need to master listening and speaking skills before they begin to read and write.	1	2	3	4	5
36. It is more important for language learners to focus on what they are trying to say than how to say it.	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: *Continue the sentence "Good language learners…" with each statement below and then circle the choice across each statement that best indicates your opinion.*	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
37. … listen carefully to directives of their teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
38. … work better on tasks with clear instructions and established guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5
39. … are safer with activities in which it is clear what role they must play or in what way they should participate.	1	2	3	4	5
40. … like projects with clear structures and pre-determined aims and goals.	1	2	3	4	5
41. … try to learn a topic whose priorities and steps are provided in detail.	1	2	3	4	5
42. … adopt the views their teachers believe to be correct on a language point.	1	2	3	4	5
43. … take responsibility for their own learning.	1	2	3	4	5
44. … work better on language tasks that require creative strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
45. … are more comfortable with activities that allow them to do things their own way.	1	2	3	4	5
46. … like open-ended and flexible assignments when they decide for what to do and how to do it.	1	2	3	4	5
47. … try to learn a topic that they believe is important.	1	2	3	4	5
48. … develop their own criteria for correctness on a language point.	1	2	3	4	5
49. … know to criticize the way the teachers teach.	1	2	3	4	5
50. … work better on language tasks that allow for their judgment.	1	2	3	4	5
51. … are happier with activities in which they can review and compare different points of views.	1	2	3	4	5
52. … like projects that enable them to analyze, judge, and evaluate things and ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
53. … evaluate and judge the performance of other	1	2	3	4	5

people and each other.					
54. … question explanations even from language experts.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III: LANGUAGE TEACHING ACTIONS

Part IV: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates the frequency of your action in relation to pedagogical decision making.*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
1. I organize teaching situations where I can follow a pre-determined routine.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I follow standard lesson planning rules based on certain norms.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I employ textbooks approved by the school administration and committee as the best resources for teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I follow the essentials in the foreign language teaching curriculum of the school I teach.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I choose testing as the basic key to obtain information about my students' progress.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I rely on teaching guidelines containing step-by-step strategies during in-class implementation.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I include language teaching tasks that follow similar rules and procedures to those previously/traditionally used.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I require my students to apply a pre-set language rule to the examples they are given in a deductive way.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I set goals and objectives without norms but high flexibility.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I organize teaching situations where I can try new ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I try lesson planning in new ways not used by others in the past.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Each year I select brand new materials to teach my courses.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I prepare language tasks that involve novelty and ambiguity.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I offer flexible schedules and adjustable programs.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I make use of alternative assessments (such as portfolios, learning logs, diaries, etc.) to observe my students' progress.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I make use of imagination and creativity in	1	2	3	4	5

implementing teaching strategies.					

Part V: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates the frequency of your action in relation to instructional planning.*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
17. I avoid a syllabus making my students memorize newly-acquired words and structures.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I organize my lessons around conversational activities and situation-based (thematic) tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I focus on the process of communication rather than the mastery of language forms.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I provide my students with meaningful practice rather than insignificant repetition.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I foster my students to become fluent in the target language through communicative tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I avoid constructing my lessons on structural patterns and explicitly presented grammar rules.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I keep away from a syllabus which is composed of linguistic structures.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I plan to use the target language outside the classroom when interacting with my students to foster their language acquisition.	1	2	3	4	5

Part VI: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates the frequency of your action in relation to error correction.*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
25. I keep silent and observe my students when they are producing the language in early stages.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I ignore oral errors that language learners make and try to understand what they are saying.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I allow my students to learn from each other's mistakes through peer correction.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I let my students interact freely without the concern of accuracy.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I allow my students to learn from their own mistakes through self-correction.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I permit my students to make errors in early stages to encourage them speak well later on.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I promote my students' using a fluent language rather than a correct or accurate language.	1	2	3	4	5

32. I allow my students to say anything in the target language no matter whether they say it correctly or not.	1	2	3	4	5

Part VII: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates the frequency of your action in relation to learner-centeredness.*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
33. I take my students' needs and interests into account when I am planning and organizing the materials or resources.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I adjust my instructions and explanations to my students' needs and levels.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I examine my students' characteristics and individual differences closely.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I try to find a way to reach even the most difficult learners in my classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I keep careful records of my students' language learning progress.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I listen attentively to my students for any matter in and outside the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I let my students choose their own activities and decide what they want to do in class.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I carry out responsibilities for the social and cultural development of my students.	1	2	3	4	5

Part VIII: *Circle the choice across each statement that best indicates the frequency of your action in relation to personal and professional development.*	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Usually**	**Always**
41. I personally read magazines, newspapers, novels, or stories in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I watch the films or TV in the target language without subtitles.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I look up the dictionary for the meaning of an unknown word I encounter.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I search for the meaning of different idioms that are used by the native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I go on getting the knowledge of general linguistic theories for my professional development.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I work cooperatively with professional colleagues	1	2	3	4	5

by sharing my observation and experiences in language teaching.					
47. I reflect personally on my performance for my self- development.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I contribute to school activities such as meetings, in-service training, materials preparation sessions, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

Please provide your further comments on any item here by referring to item number:

_____
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Please provide your e-mail address if you want to have a report of the study results:

_____

Appendix D: Tables and Figures regarding Factor Analyses

Test of Normality for Cognitions Set

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		SE		*SE*		*df*	*Sig.*		*df*	*Sig.*
item 1	-.705	.104	-.705	.104	.245	435	.000	.862	435	.000
item 2	-.787	.103	-.787	.103	.230	435	.000	.853	435	.000
item 3	-.509	.100	-.509	.100	.223	435	.000	.887	435	.000
item 4	-.566	.100	-.566	.100	.222	435	.000	.886	435	.000
item 5	-.218	.101	-.218	.101	.183	435	.000	.906	435	.000
item 6	-.085	.103	-.085	.103	.181	435	.000	.910	435	.000
item 7	.515	.103	.515	.103	.200	435	.000	.864	435	.000
item 8	.121	.100	.121	.100	.185	435	.000	.908	435	.000
item 9	-.728	.100	-.728	.100	.279	435	.000	.861	435	.000
item 10	-1.440	.100	-1.440	.100	.303	435	.000	.739	435	.000
item 11	-1.536	.100	-1.536	.100	.314	435	.000	.714	435	.000
item 12	-.420	.103	-.420	.103	.218	435	.000	.898	435	.000
item 13	-.332	.100	-.332	.100	.215	435	.000	.904	435	.000
item 14	-.152	.104	-.152	.104	.171	435	.000	.916	435	.000
item 15	-.830	.104	-.830	.104	.272	435	.000	.811	435	.000
item 16	-.768	.104	-.768	.104	.303	435	.000	.819	435	.000
item 17	-.630	.100	-.630	.100	.265	435	.000	.861	435	.000
item 18	-.717	.100	-.717	.100	.280	435	.000	.857	435	.000
item 19	-1.073	.100	-1.073	.100	.247	435	.000	.802	435	.000
item 20	-.856	.100	-.856	.100	.263	435	.000	.838	435	.000
item 21	-.699	.100	-.699	.100	.265	435	.000	.846	435	.000
item 22	-.719	.103	-.719	.103	.285	435	.000	.856	435	.000
item 23	-.600	.103	-.600	.103	.239	435	.000	.874	435	.000
item 24	-.774	.109	-.774	.109	.259	435	.000	.831	435	.000
item 25	.447	.100	.447	.100	.195	578	.000	.868	578	.000
item 26	.311	.100	.311	.100	.183	578	.000	.892	578	.000
item 27	.520	.100	.520	.100	.199	578	.000	.874	578	.000
item 28	.702	.100	.702	.100	.210	578	.000	.852	578	.000
item 29	.325	.100	.325	.100	.174	578	.000	.892	578	.000
item 30	-.226	.100	-.226	.100	.198	578	.000	.905	578	.000
item 31	-.014	.100	-.014	.100	.178	578	.000	.915	578	.000
item 32	-1.081	.100	-1.081	.100	.267	578	.000	.810	578	.000
item 33	-1.351	.100	-1.351	.100	.316	578	.000	.731	578	.000
item 34	-.638	.100	-.638	.100	.224	578	.000	.880	578	.000
item 35	-.031	.100	-.031	.100	.171	578	.000	.913	578	.000
item 36	-.751	.100	-.751	.100	.247	578	.000	.868	578	.000
item 37	-1.827	.100	-1.827	.100	.434	563	.000	.603	563	.000
item 38	-1.250	.100	-1.250	.100	.255	563	.000	.784	563	.000
item 39	-1.069	.100	-1.069	.100	.267	563	.000	.789	563	.000
item 40	-.817	.100	-.817	.100	.229	563	.000	.829	563	.000
item 41	-1.187	.100	-1.187	.100	.249	563	.000	.794	563	.000
item 42	-.517	.100	-.517	.100	.214	563	.000	.889	563	.000
item 43	-1.095	.100	-1.095	.100	.269	563	.000	.803	563	.000
item 44	-1.113	.100	-1.113	.100	.240	563	.000	.800	563	.000
item 45	-.844	.100	-.844	.100	.239	563	.000	.848	563	.000
item 46	-.936	.100	-.936	.100	.262	563	.000	.835	563	.000
item 47	-.668	.100	-.668	.100	.234	563	.000	.868	563	.000
item 48	-.157	.100	-.157	.100	.166	563	.000	.912	563	.000
item 49	-.585	.100	-.585	.100	.237	563	.000	.882	563	.000
item 50	-.580	.100	-.580	.100	.237	563	.000	.842	563	.000
item 51	-.994	.100	-.994	.100	.262	563	.000	.780	563	.000

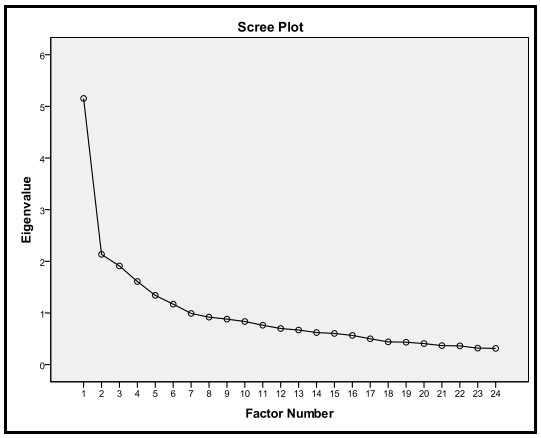
item 52	-1.062	.100	-1.062	.100	.304	563	.000	.759	563	.000
item 53	-.986	.100	-.986	.100	.258	563	.000	.827	563	.000
item 54	-.719	.101	-.719	.101	.237	563	.000	.863	563	.000

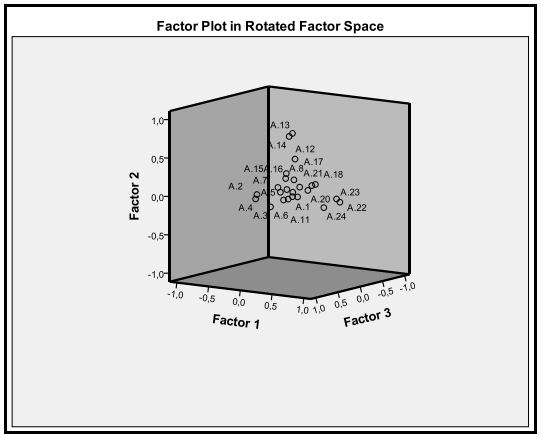
Test of Normality for Actions Set (Pedagogical Inclinations)

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		SE		*SE*		*df*	*Sig.*		*df*	*Sig.*
item 1	-.493	.101	.721	.201	.299	540	.000	.835	540	.000
item 2	-.188	.100	-.295	.201	.223	540	.000	.899	540	.000
item 3	-.590	.101	.416	.201	.283	540	.000	.861	540	.000
item 4	-.683	.101	.388	.201	.262	540	.000	.798	540	.000
item 5	-.076	.100	-.450	.201	.198	540	.000	.906	540	.000
item 6	-.208	.100	-.445	.201	.198	540	.000	.903	540	.000
item 7	.022	.101	-.184	.201	.247	540	.000	.871	540	.000
item 8	.082	.101	-.193	.201	.214	540	.000	.898	540	.000
item 9	-.365	.101	-.157	.201	.249	540	.000	.884	540	.000
item 10	-.650	.101	.462	.201	.294	540	.000	.839	540	.000
item 11	.028	.100	-.372	.201	.231	540	.000	.893	540	.000
item 12	-.045	.101	-.606	.201	.175	540	.000	.912	540	.000
item 13	-.119	.101	-.448	.202	.195	540	.000	.905	540	.000
item 14	-.252	.101	-.364	.201	.195	540	.000	.906	540	.000
item 15	-.530	.100	-.589	.200	.200	540	.000	.873	540	.000
item 16	-.581	.101	-.035	.201	.231	540	.000	.840	540	.000

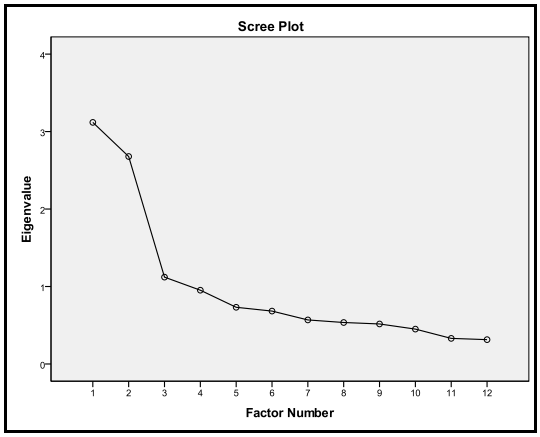
KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Dimensions	KMO Measure	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
Linguistic Aptitude	.797	χ^2 (276) =2802.01, $p < .001$
Priorities in Language Learning	.774	χ^2 (66) =1956.53, $p < .001$
Good Language Learners	.848	χ^2 (153) =4516.66, $p < .001$
Pedagogical Inclinations	.755	χ^2 (120) =1861.38, $p < .001$

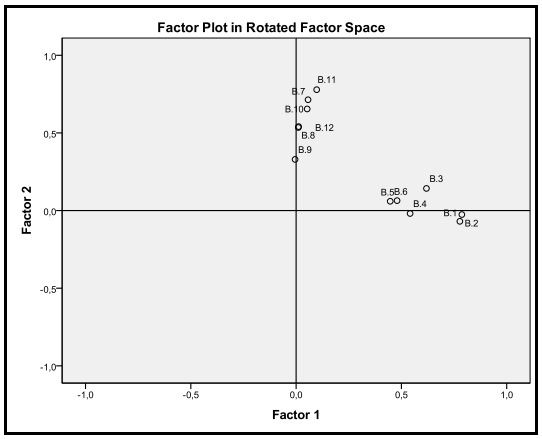




Scree Plot for Linguistic Aptitude *Factor Plot for Linguistic Aptitude*



Scree Plot for Priorities in Language Learning



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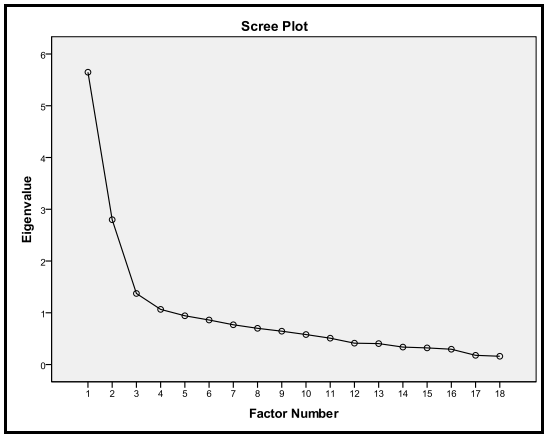
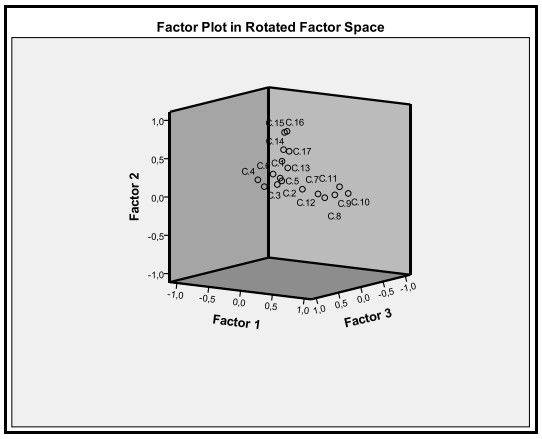
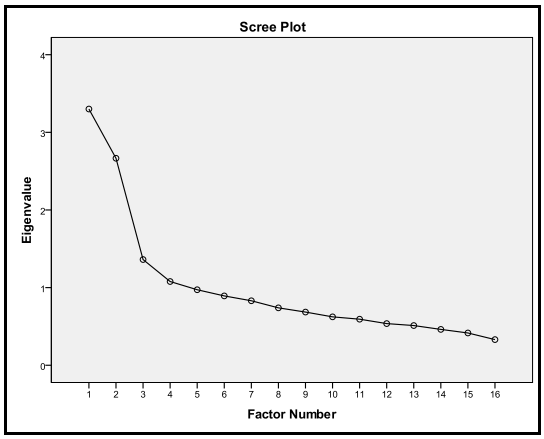


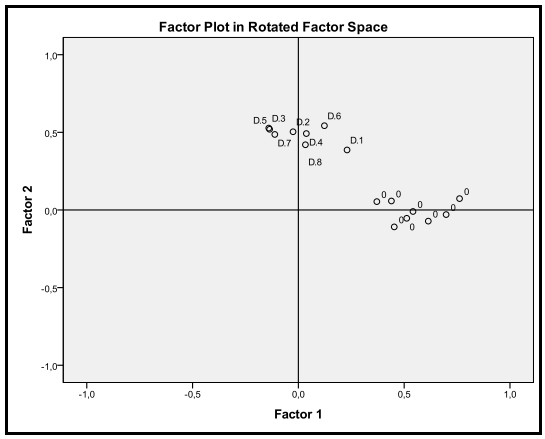
Scree Plot for Good Language Learners



Factor Plot for Good Language Learners



Scree Plot for Pedagogical Inclinations



Factor Plot for Pedagogical Inclinations

Appendix E: List of Participants' Institutions

Institutions the Participants Received Undergraduate/Graduate Degrees From

Name of Institution (n=32) (Undergraduate Education)	Name of Institution (n=15) (Graduate Education)
Ahmet Yesevi University	Ahmet Yesevi University
Anadolu University	Anadolu University
Atılım University	Atılım University
Auckland University	-
Başkent University	-
Celal Bayar University	Celal Bayar University
Çağ University	-
Çankaya University	Çankaya University
Çukurova University	Çukurova University
Dicle University	-
Dokuz Eylül University	Dokuz Eylül University
Dumplupınar University	-
Ege University	-
Erciyes University	-
-	Gazi University
Gearge Mason University	-
İstanbul University	-
Karadeniz Technical University	-
Keele Univesity	Keele Univesity
Kherson University	-
Koç University	Koç University
London University	-
Marmara University	Marmara University
Mersin University	-
METU NCC	-
Ondokuze Mayıs University	-
Rider University	-
Selçuk University	-
Stirling University	Stirling University
Süleyman Demirel University	-
-	Turgut Özal University
-	Ufuk University
Victoria University	Victoria University
Yakın Doğu University	-
Yeditepe University	-

Appendix F: Results regarding Normality Tests

Test of Normality for the Dimensions within Cognitions Set

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		SE		*SE*		*df*	*Sig.*		*df*	*Sig.*
Innatist Perspective	.093	108	-.189	.216	.048	397	.030	.994	397	.143
Informal Context-oriented View	-.422	.105	.752	.210	.071	397	.000	.982	397	.000
Formal Context-oriented View	-.553	.110	.610	.220	.088	397	.000	.969	397	.000
Competence-oriented Approach	.137	.100	-.534	.201	.070	397	.000	.985	397	.000
Performance-oriented Approach	-.241	.101	-.145	.201	.067	397	.000	.985	397	.001
Executive Learner-oriented View	-.484	.101	-.055	.201	.084	397	.000	.953	397	.000
Legislative Learner-oriented View	-.651	.101	.791	.202	.069	397	.000	.959	397	.000
Juridical Learner-oriented View	-.476	.102	-.154	.203	.099	397	.000	.959	397	.000

Test of Normality for the Dimensions within Actions Set

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		SE		*SE*		*df*	*Sig.*		*df*	*Sig.*
Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.030	.102	415	.204	.082	458	.000	.989	458	.002
Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	-.258	.103	-.210	.206	.077	458	.000	.988	458	.001
Communicative Instructional Plan.	-.370	.102	.927	.204	.058	458	.001	.977	458	.000
Communicative Error Correction	-.460	.105	.657	.210	.066	458	.000	.975	458	.000
Learner-centeredness	-.775	.101	1.204	.202	.092	458	.000	.960	458	.000
Personal-Professional Development	-.613	.101	.208	.202	.082	458	.000	.962	458	.000

Appendix G: Levene's Test Results (Homogeneity of Variance)

Independent-Samples t Tests for Type of Home Institution

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	.054	.816
	Informal Context-oriented View	4.369	.037
	Formal Context-oriented View	.004	.949
	Competence-oriented Approach	.005	.942
	Performance-oriented Approach	1.143	.286
	Executive Learner-oriented View	.562	.454
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	2.422	.120
	Juridical Learner-oriented View	.680	.410
Actions Set	Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.776	.379
	Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	1.632	.202
	Communicative Instructional Planning	3.613	.058
	Communicative Error Correction	7.888	.005
	Learner-centeredness	8.528	.004
	Personal and Professional Development	.090	.765

Independent-Samples t Tests for Study Field at Undergraduate Education

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	.092	.762
	Informal Context-oriented View	.305	.581
	Formal Context-oriented View	.044	.835
	Competence-oriented Approach	.347	.556
	Performance-oriented Approach	.007	.935
	Executive Learner-oriented View	11.541	.111
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	.049	.824
	Juridical Learner-oriented View	4.210	.141
Actions Set	Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.740	.390
	Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.005	.945
	Communicative Instructional Planning	.006	.939
	Communicative Error Correction	.002	.967
	Learner-centeredness	.060	.807
	Personal and Professional Development	1.004	.317

ANOVAs for Academic Program at Undergraduate Education

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances			
		F	*df1*	*df2.*	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	1.250	5	297	.286
	Competence-oriented Approach	.700	5	375	.623
	Performance-oriented Approach	2.170	5	373	.057
Actions Set	Communicative Instructional Plan.	1.027	5	365	.402
	Communicative Error Correction	1.063	5	333	.381

Independent-Samples t Tests for Pedagogical Formation Certificate

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	1.368	.243
	Informal Context-oriented View	.490	.484
	Formal Context-oriented View	.158	.691
	Competence-oriented Approach	2.197	.139
	Performance-oriented Approach	.277	.599
	Executive Learner-oriented View	1.037	.309
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	.217	.642
	Juridical Learner-oriented View	.207	.649
Actions Set	Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.774	.379
	Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.617	.433
	Communicative Instructional Planning	.023	.878
	Communicative Error Correction	1.417	.235
	Learner-centeredness	.426	.515
	Personal and Professional Development	1.092	.297

Independent-Samples t Tests for Holding a Master's Degree

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	.369	.544
	Informal Context-oriented View	.931	.335
	Formal Context-oriented View	1.503	.221
	Competence-oriented Approach	3.232	.073
	Performance-oriented Approach	1.264	.262
	Executive Learner-oriented View	.016	.900
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	1.438	.231
	Juridical Learner-oriented View	.615	.433
Actions Set	Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.963	.327
	Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.454	.501
	Communicative Instructional Planning	.043	.835
	Communicative Error Correction	.956	.329
	Learner-centeredness	.520	.471
	Personal and Professional Development	.607	.436

Independent-Samples t Tests for Study Field at Graduate Education

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	.251	.617
	Informal Context-oriented View	.346	.557
	Formal Context-oriented View	1.002	.318
	Competence-oriented Approach	.359	.550
	Performance-oriented Approach	7.946	.005
	Executive Learner-oriented View	.069	.793
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	.150	.699
	Juridical Learner-oriented View	.316	.575
Actions Set	Traditional (Conservative) Pedagogy	.008	.928
	Innovative (Liberal) Pedagogy	.110	.741
	Communicative Instructional Planning	.944	.332
	Communicative Error Correction	.027	.869
	Learner-centeredness	3.933	.059
	Personal and Professional Development	.531	.467

ANOVAs for Academic Program at Graduate Education

Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances			
		F	*df1*	*df2.*	*Sig.*
Cognitions Set	Innatist Perspective	1.271	6	170	.273
	Competence-oriented Approach	.938	6	216	.469
	Legislative Learner-oriented View	1.461	6	213	.193
Actions Set	Communicative Error Correction	2.242	6	189	.061

Appendix H: Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Öztürk, Mustafa
E-mail Address: moustaphaozturk@gmail.com

EDUCATION

PhD	METU, Curriculum and Instruction	2014
MS	METU, Educational Sciences	2008
Non-degree Postgraduate	University of Turku, Learning, Learning Environments, and Educational Systems	2007
BA	METU, Foreign Language Education	2004
High School	Niğde Anatolian Teacher Training High School	2000

WORK EXPERIENCE

2008- Present	Hacettepe Univ. Dept. of Basic English	EFL Instructor
2011-2013	Hacettepe Univ. Sch. of Foreign Languages	Vice Director
2011-2012	Hacettepe Univ. Sch. of Foreign Languages	Erasmus Coordinator
2008-2011	Hacettepe Univ. Dept. of Basic English	Test Developer

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS

Öztürk, M. (2014). Generating teacher development models from context-specific predicaments of new teachers in induction period. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 116,* 206-211.

Öztürk, M. (2013). The value teachers add to educational systems: The case of Finland. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, Special Issue* (1), 298-310.

Öztürk, M. & Yıldırım, A. (2013). Adaptation challenges of novice teachers. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, 28* (1), 294-307.

Öztürk, M. (2013). Effectiveness of EAP curriculum for the preparatory students enrolled in language-related departments. In M. Akkuş, U. Ataş, G. Balıkçı, Z. Ölçü, & G. Taner (Eds.), *7th and 8th International METU Postgraduate Conference on Linguistics and Language Teaching: Selected Papers* (pp. 145-158). Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.

Öztürk, M. & Yıldırım, A. (2012). EFL instructors' induction: Early practices of language teachers teaching at tertiary level. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry, 3*(2), 1-17.

Öztürk, M. (2012). How to sort general English curricula into effective preparatory programs? In Z. Bilgin & B. İnal (Eds.), *Çankaya University Preparatory School 2nd Foreign Language Teaching Symposium: A Proactive Look at English Language Teaching Programs in the Preparatory Schools of Universities* (pp. 29-35). Ankara: Turuncu Digital.

Öztürk, M. (2009). Reflections of culture, religion, ideology, and multiculturalism on education: The case of Israeli educational system. In H. Asutay & E. B. Bayır (Eds.), *The 5th International Balkan Education and Science Congress: Congress Full Text Book* (Vol. 2, pp. 256-260). Edirne: Trakya University.

Appendix I: Turkish Summary

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME VE ÖĞRETME SÜREÇLERİNE İLİŞKİN BİLİŞ VE EYLEMLERİ

Giriş

Öğretmenin, eğitimde başarıyı etkileyen değişkenler arasında önemli bir yeri olduğu düşünüldüğünde, öğretmen eylemlerinin de aynı şekilde başarının şekillenmesinde önemli bir etki yarattığı açıktır. Bu eylemlerin birtakım bilişlerin yansımaları olduğu varsayıldığı için, 'öğretmen bilişi' eğitim araştırmalarında derinden incelenen önemli bir konu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Öğretim işinin sadece davranışların gözlemlenmesi ile değerlendirilemeyeceği, araştırmalarda öğretmenlerin bilişsel yönlerinin de ağırlıklı olarak incelenmesi gerektiği göze önünde bulundurulduğu için, bu çalışmanın iki temel bileşeni vardır: 'biliş' ve 'eylem' bileşenleri. Çalışmadaki 'biliş' kavramı genel manada bireyin zihninde oluşturduğu bilgi, inanç, düşünce ve algının tamamını temsil ederken, 'eylem' kavramı ise herhangi bir durum ile başa çıkmak veya her hangi bir işlevi yerine getirmek üzere yürütülen davranışları kapsar. Her iki bileşen de, öğrenci başarısı ve öğretmen gelişimi üzerinde önemli etkilere sahiptir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada elde edilen bulgular, günümüzde yürütülmekte olan İngilizce öğretim uygulamalarının daha iyi anlaşılmasını sağlamanın yanı sıra yabancı/ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi konusunda hizmet-öncesi eğitim ve hizmet-içi mesleki gelişim etkinliklerini yönlendirmek için de bir temel oluşturacaktır.

Yapılan alanyazın taramasında, öğretmen eğitimine ve öğretmen gelişimine katkı sağlayabilecek her türlü yenilik konusunda uygun adımlar atabilmek için araştırmacıların öncelikle öğretim konusunu derinlemesine anlamaları gerektiği ortaya konmuştur. Öğretim işini anlayabilmek için de öğretmenlerin bilişsel

altyapılarını incelemek gerektiği vurgulanmış, bu nedenle öğretmenlerin bilişsel süreçleri son yılların eğitim araştırmalarının ana odağı olmuştur. Yapılan çalışmaların bazıları öğretmenlerin belli konular hakkındaki algılarını anlamaya veya bilgilerini saptamaya çalışırken, bazı çalışmalar ise öğretmenlerin inanış ve düşünce biçimlerini incelemeyi hedeflemiştir. Çoğu çalışma bunu yaparken, bilişsel süreçlere kişisel, pedagojik ve pratik boyutları da dâhil etmiş, biliş boyutu uygulama boyutuyla ilişkilendirilerek incelenmiştir. Bu çalışmalar sayesinde öğretimin yapısı ve doğasının ortaya konması amaçlanmıştır.

1980'lerden itibaren, öğretimin bilişsel boyutlarının pedagojik uygulamalara yansıması, özellikle de öğretmenlerin bilişsel altyapıları ile sınıf içi uygulamaları arasındaki ilişki birçok araştırmanın konusu olmuştur. 1990'lara gelindiğinde, alan öğretmeni yetiştirme konusu önem kazanmış, öğretmen bilişi, alan temelli olarak incelenmeye başlanmıştır. Bu nedenle dil öğretimi alanında yapılan çalışmalar öğretmen bilişini çoğunlukla yabancı/ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğrenme ve öğretme konusunda incelemiştir. Bu çalışmalar temel olarak üç tema altında toplanmıştır: aday öğretmen bilişi ve hizmet-öncesi dönem; yeni öğretmen bilişi ve ilk yıllar; deneyimli öğretmen bilişi ve hizmet-içi yıllar.

Öğretimin, bilişsel süreçlere ağırlık verilerek incelendiği çalışmalarda, 'biliş' başlığı altında yer alabilecek bir dizi farklı tema ve kavram kullanılmıştır. Bunlardan bazıları, pratik bilgi (Elbaz, 1981, 1983; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijard, 1999); kuramlar ve inançlar (Clark & Peterson, 1986); öğretim kültürü (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992); pedagojik bilgi (Gatbonton 1999; Shulman, 1987); pedagojik muhakeme (Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Shulman, 1987); kavrayış (Freeman, 1993); yerleşmiş kavrayış (Wubbels, 1992); yansımalar (Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994); inançlar (Richards & Lockhart, 1996); IVB (inançlar, varsayımlar, bilgi) (Woods, 1996); özdeyişler (Richards, 1996); kişisel pedagojik sistemler (Borg, 1998); örtük kuramlar ve bilgi (Richards, 1998); kişisel kuramlar (Sendan & Roberts, 1998); rutinler (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999); pedagojik ilkeler (Breen ve diğerleri, 2001); bilişler (Borg, 2003); öğretime ilişkin bakış açıları (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 2003) gibi kavramlardır.

Şu ana kadar ne kadar çeşitli kavram veya terim kullanılmış olursa olsun, Calderhead'in (1996) ifade ettiği gibi, inanç, değer, tutum, yargı, görüş, ideoloji, algı,

kavrayış, kavramsal sistem, yerleşmiş kavrayış, eğilim, örtülü kuram, kişisel kuram ve perspektif gibi terimler birbiri yerine kullanılagelmiştir. Dolayısıyla, öğretmenler, herhangi bir öğretim durumunu, öğrenme ve öğretme konusunda taşıdıkları bilişler ışığında yorumlar ve bu yorumlama ile sınıflarında etkili bir öğretim oluşturmak için kendi kararlarını ve girişimlerini yönlendirir hale gelmiştir. Woods'a (1996) göre, bilişsel bilimlerdeki gelişmeler üç öğeden oluşan bir model ortaya koymuştur: (1) sınıf içi etkinlikler ve eylemler, (2) bu etkinlik ve eylemler öncesinde yapılan planlama, (3) bu etkinlik ve eylemler sonrasında edinilen algı ve yapılan değerlendirmeler. Bütün bunların ışığında, öğretim işi bilişsel bir faaliyet olarak tanımlanmış, 'öğretmen bilişi' kavramı, bir dizi farklı kavram ve çoklu bakış açılarının yansıtıldığı kapsayıcı bir terim olarak karşımıza çıkmıştır. Öğretmen bilişi kavramı, Borg (2006) tarafından "öğretmenlerin taşıdıkları öğretim kaygıları ya da düşünceler, uygulamaya çalıştıkları ilkeler ya da özdeyişler; farklı bağlamlar hakkındaki düşünceleri, sahip oldukları pedagojik bilgileri, kişisel bilgi ve inançları" şeklinde özetlenmiştir.

Allen'ın (2002) ifade ettiği gibi, eğitim araştırmalarında öğretmen bilişini incelemenin üç temel gerekçesi vardır: (1) öğretmenlerin inançları ve sınıf içi eylemleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek eğitim uygulamalarını yönlendirir; (2) eğer öğretmen eğitimi, öğretmen adaylarının gelecekte yürütecekleri eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini etkileyen bir olgu ise, öğretmen eğitiminde öğretmen bilişini dikkate alan ve inceleyen bir yol izlenmelidir; (3) öğretmenlerin inançları dikkate alınmadan yenilikçi uygulamalara teşebbüs edilmesi hayal kırıklığına yol açan sonuçlar yaratabilir. Bu gerekçeler doğrultusunda, öğretmen bilişi ve bu bilişin eylemlere yansıması eğitim araştırmalarında kayda değer bir araştırma konusu olarak sıkça yer almıştır.

Çalışmanın Önemi

Cumhuriyetin kuruluşundan bu yana, ülke olarak Türkiye, gelişmişlik, refah ve istikrar açısından batılı ülkeler arasında yer almayı amaç edinmiş, bu nedenle de diğer tüm alanlarda olduğu gibi eğitim alanında da birçok reform girişiminde bulunmuştur. Eğitim alanındaki reformların kuşkusuz iki önemli başlığı 'yabancı dil eğitimi' ve 'öğretmen yetiştirme' olmuştur. Bu kapsamda, en az bir yabancı dil

konuşabilen nesiller ve bu nesilleri eğitebilecek yeterliğe sahip nitelikli öğretmenler yetiştirmek hedeflenmiştir. Bu hedefler dikkate alındığında, bu çalışmanın temel iki odağı olan 'yabancı dil öğretimi' ve 'öğretmenlerin biliş ve eylemleri' konularının önemi daha açık anlaşılabilecektir.

Yabancı dil eğitimi, Türk eğitim sisteminde üzerinde en çok durulan konulardan biri olmuş, çağdaş, bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmeler dikkate alınarak eğitim politikaları arasında öncelikli bir konumda yer almıştır. Bu durum, eğitimin her düzeyinde (ilk, orta ve yükseköğretim) yabancı dil öğretimi ile ilgili programların nicelik ve nitelik açısından sıkça yenilenmesini ve güncellenmesini zorunlu hale getirmiştir. Buna rağmen, Türkiye, İngilizce dil yeterliği açısından Avrupa ülkelerinin, hatta bazı Uzakdoğu ülkelerinin çok gerisinde kalmıştır (EFEPI Report, 2013). Yabancı dil öğretiminin ilköğretim düzeyinde erken yaşlara kadar inmesi ya da K–12 kademelerindeki yabancı dil ders saatlerinin artması gibi stratejik girişimlere rağmen, bireylerin yabancı dil edinimi ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim yıllarında başarılamayan bir hedef olmuş, bu sorunun çözümü çoğunlukla üniversite yıllarına bırakılmıştır. Bu gerçek, yükseköğretim kurumlarının yabancı dil bilen mezunlar yetiştirebilmek için bir-iki yıllık yoğun dil eğitim programları planlayıp uygulamasını zorunlu kılmış, bunun sonucu olarak da üniversiteler Türkiye'de yabancı dilin öğretildiği öncü kurumlar olmaya zorlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada odak olarak yükseköğretim düzeyinin seçilmesinin arkasındaki neden, örgün eğitim kapsamında yoğun dil öğretim programları sunan tek düzey olarak yükseköğretimin Türkiye'deki yabancı dil öğretimine ışık tutacak sağlıklı bir veri kaynağı olabilecek bir ortama sahip olmasıdır.

Genel olarak yabancı dil yeterliğini artırmak için yapılan tüm bu girişimler aynı zamanda yabancı dil öğretmeni yetiştiren kurumların hedeflerine de yansıtılmıştır. Yaygın anlayışa göre, öğretmen adayları eğitim yaklaşımları ve dil öğretim yöntemleri açısından kapsamlı bir bilgi ile eğitilmektedir. Ancak, uygulamada, bazı nedenlerin alanyazında yer aldığı bazılarının ise yeterince irdelenmediği bir dizi güçlük ile karşılaşılmaktadır. Bu varsayımdan hareketle, öğretmenlerin bilişsel ve davranışsal gelişimini besleyen kaynakların veya etkileyen faktörlerin incelenmesi gerekliliği ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu husus da mevcut çalışmanın amaçları arasında yer almıştır. Öğretmen bilişi, yürütülmekte olan eğitim

uygulamaları için önemli ipuçları taşıdığı için, bu araştırma ile sınıfta işlerin nasıl yürüdüğü, öğretmenlerin işlerini nasıl gördüğü, bilişlerin davranışları nasıl yönlendirdiği veya yönettiği, öğretmenlerin öğretim etkinliklerini nasıl ve neden yürüttükleri, eğitimde yeni bir tekniği ne denli benimseyecekleri ve hayata nasıl geçirecekleri, eğitim reformlarını ne derece uygulayacakları, eğitim politikalarına nasıl tepki verecekleri gibi konuların anlaşılmasının daha kolay olacağı düşünülmüştür.

Çalışma, temelini bilişsel psikolojinin öğretilerinden almaktadır. Bilişsel psikoloji, bilgi, düşünce ve inançların insanların davranışları üzerinde yaratığı etkiyi incelemektedir. Bu nedenle, öğretimi anlamak öncelikle öğretmenlerin zihinsel hayatını anlamayı gerektirir (Borg, 2006). Geniş kabul görmüş bir sayıltıya göre, yabancı dil öğretiminin en önemli çıktılarından biri olan öğrencilerin dil öğrenme ve dil gelişimleri, öncelikle öğretmenlerin öğretim stillerinden etkilenmektedir. Aynı şekilde, öğretmenlerin öğretim stillerinin de düşünme stillerinden etkilenmiş olması beklenir. Bu neden-sonuç zinciri göz önüne alındığında, öğretmenlerin öğrenme ve öğretmeye ilişkin kavrayışlarının ve bu kavrayışların yansıması olarak tutum ve davranışlarının eğitim araştırmalarının önemli konuları arasında yer alması beklenir. Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışmanın amacı öğretmenlerin dil öğretiminin hem bilişsel hem de davranışsal yönlerini incelemektir.

Çalışmaya, katılımcı grup olarak hizmet-içi öğretmen grubunun dâhil edilmesinin nedeni ise Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin biliş ve eylemleri üzerinde yapılan araştırmaların çoğunlukla hizmet-öncesi öğretmen grubuyla yürütülmüş çalışmalarla sınırlı olmasıdır. Yabancı/ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi konusunda dünyada yapılmış uluslararası çalışmalar genellikle hizmet-içi öğretmenleri ele alırken, Türkiye'de bu tür çalışmalar sayıca çok azdır. Türkiye'de, kapsam, içerik ve katılımcı sayısı açısından da sınırlı olan söz konusu çalışmalar genellikle 'öğretmen inancı' bileşeni üzerinde yoğunlaşmış, söz konusu çalışmalar hizmet-öncesi öğretmen adaylarını merkeze almış ve tek bir kurumu temsil eden örneklemlerle yürütülmüştür. Sonuç olarak, mevcut çalışmanın daha kapsayıcı kavramlar olan biliş ve eylem kavramlarını ele alması, daha geniş bir katılımcı grubu ile yürütülmüş olması ve yükseköğretim düzeyindeki yabancı dil öğretim ortamlarını yansıtabilecek bir çalışma olması bu araştırmanın güçlü yanlarındandır.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının, dil yeteneği, dil öğrenmede öncelikler ve dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özelliklerine ilişkin bilişleri ile eğitim yaklaşımı, öğretimi planlama, yanlış düzeltme, öğrenci merkezci olma ve kişisel ve mesleki gelişim konularına yönelik eylemlerini araştırmaktır. Ayrıca çalışma kapsamında, bu değişkenler arasında var olan ilişki biçimleri ile öğretmenlerin bilişsel ve davranışsal gelişimine katkı sağlayan etkenlerin de incelenmesi hedeflenmiştir.

Belirtilen hedefler doğrultusunda, çalışma, yabancı dil öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerine ilişkin koşullara, özelliklere, algılara ve uygulamalara ilişkin mevcut durumu betimlemeyi hedeflediği için bir tarama araştırması; aynı zamanda istenilen verileri toplamak üzere tasarlanmış ölçek kullanılarak herhangi bir güdümleme veya müdahale olmadan var olan değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri irdelemeyi hedeflediği için de bir korelasyon araştırması özelliği taşır.

Çalışmanın beş temel araştırma sorusu bulunmaktadır:

- İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının, dil yeteneği, dil öğrenmede öncelikler ve dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özelliklerine ilişkin dil öğrenme bilişleri nelerdir?
- Bu bilişler, yaş, deneyim, akademik geçmiş, görev yeri, ulusal/uluslararası yabancı dil sınav puanları gibi değişkenlere göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının, eğitim yaklaşımı, öğretimi planlama, yanlış düzeltme, öğrenci merkezci olma ve kişisel ve mesleki gelişim konularına yönelik dil öğretme eylemleri nelerdir?
- Bu eylemeler, yaş, deneyim, akademik geçmiş, görev yeri, ulusal/uluslararası yabancı dil sınav puanları gibi değişkenlere göre farklılık göstermekte midir?
- İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının dil öğrenme bilişleri ile dil öğretme eylemleri arasındaki ilişki biçimi nedir?

Çalışmada, ‘dil öğrenme bilişleri’ öğretmenlerin dil öğrenme hakkında ne düşündükleri, neye inandıkları, ne bildikleri ve dil öğrenme konusundan ne anladıklarını ifade eder. Benzer şekilde, dil öğretme eylemleri de öğretmenlerin,

önceki öğrenme hayatı, hizmet-öncesi ve hizmet-içi eğitimlerinden ve sınıf içi öğretmenlik deneyimlerinden elde ettikleri kazanımların bir sonucu olarak rutin bir şekilde yürüttükleri dil öğretim uygulamalarını kapsamaktadır.

Nicel bir araştırma olan bu çalışmanın ilk aşaması, araştırma sorularının ve (bağımlı/bağımsız) değişkenlerin tespit edildiği araştırma probleminin seçimi ve tanımı ile başlamıştır. Bu aşamayı, araştırma problemi ile ilgili kavramsal kaynakların ve önceki yıllarda yürütülmüş deneysel çalışmaların incelendiği alanyazın taraması takip etmiştir. Araştırmanın en önemli aşamalarından biri olan alanyazın taraması, hem çalışmanın hedeflediği katılımcı grubun seçimi ve tanımlanması için, hem de veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılacak ölçek için gerekli maddelerin toplanacağı madde havuzunun oluşturulması için temel oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın örneklemi Ankara ilinde bulunan 15 farklı (özel ve devlet) yükseköğretim kurumunda görev yapmakta olan 606 İngilizce öğretim elemanından oluşmaktadır. Veri toplama aracı geliştirilirken, detaylı bir süreç izlenmiştir. Havuzda bulunan maddeler, akran görüşü, uzman görüşü ve danışman değerlendirmesi sonucunda süzgeçten geçirilmiş, elde edilen taslak iki defa pilot edilmiştir. İlk pilot çalışma Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde görev yapmakta olan 55 öğretim elemanı, ikinci pilot çalışma ise Türkiye'nin farklı yükseköğretim kurumlarında görev yapmakta olan 86 öğretim elemanı ile yürütülmüştür. Pilot çalışmalarda elde edilen veriler, geçerlik, güvenilirlik ve madde analizi yapılmasına olanak sağlamış, veri toplama aracının son şeklini almasında önemli katkılar sağlamıştır.

Veriler, araştırmacı tarafından tasarlanmış ve uygulamaya konulmuş olan *İngilizce Öğretim Elemanları Biliş ve Eylem Envanteri* isimli ölçek yoluyla toplanmıştır. Veri toplama aracı üç temel bölümden oluşmaktadır: (1) Katılımcıların kişisel bilgilerine ve akademik geçmişlerine yönelik maddelerin yer aldığı demografik kısım; (2) Dil yeteneği, dil öğrenmede öncelikler ve dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özellikleri boyutlarının yer aldığı dil öğrenmeye ilişkin bilişler; (3) Eğitim yaklaşımı, öğretimi planlama, yanlış düzeltme, öğrenci merkezci olma, kişisel ve mesleki gelişim boyutlarının yer aldığı dil öğretmeye ilişkin eylemler. Envanterin ikinci ve üçüncü bölümleri 5'li *Likert* tipi ölçek kullanılarak tasarlanmış kapalı uçlu maddelerden oluşmaktadır. Veriler, frekans dağılım tabloları, yüzdeler, aritmetik

ortalamalar, standart sapma, t-testi, ANOVA, Pearson korelasyon katsayısı ve kanonik korelasyon gibi betimleyici ve çıkarsamalı istatistik yöntemleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Sonuçlar ve Tartışma

Birinci ve üçüncü araştırma sorusunu cevaplandırmak üzere gerçekleştirilen betimsel analizlerin genel sonuçları, araştırmanın biliş boyutuna ilişkin olarak, katılımcıların dil öğrenen bireyler için çevrenin önemini vurgulayan *etkileşimci* bir görüşe, dil beceri ve alanlarının gerçek hayattaki işlevlerine öncelik veren *performansa odaklı* bir yaklaşıma, kendi kurallarını oluşturabilen ve kendi önceliklerine karar verebilen *kural koyucu* öğrenci tercihine daha yatkın olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Araştırmanın eylem boyutuna ilişkin genel sonuçları ise, hem *geleneksel* hem de *yenilikçi* eğitim anlayışının; öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme süreçlerinde *iletişimsel* uygulamaların; *öğrenci-merkezci* olmanın; *kişisel ve mesleki gelişim* girişimlerinin katılımcılar tarafından benimsendiğini göstermiştir.

Ölçeğin birinci bölümünde yer alan demografik bilgilere ilişkin maddeler tüm katılımcılar tarafından cevaplandırılmamıştır. Bu maddeleri cevaplandıranlar dikkate alındığında, katılımcıların neredeyse yarısının 30 yaş ve altında olduğu, yarısından fazlasının 10 yıl ve daha az öğretmenlik deneyimine sahip olduğu izlenmiştir. Ankara'da bulunan 15 farklı yükseköğretim kurumunu temsil eden katılımcıların yarısı özel bir kurumda görev yaparken diğer yarısının devlet üniversitelerinde görevli olduğu saptanmıştır.

Akademik geçmişlere ilişkin sonuçlar, katılımcıların yarısının İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinden mezun olduğunu; diğer yarısının ise Eğitim Fakülteleri dışındaki alternatif programlardan mezun olduklarını göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, Eğitim Fakülteleri mezunlarının, üniversitelerin İngilizce öğretim elemanı talebinin yarısına kaynak oluşturabildiğini, ihtiyacın diğer yarısının Eğitim Fakülteleri dışındaki fakültelerden mezun olanlar tarafından karşılandığına işaret etmektedir. Diğer bir çarpıcı nokta ise alternatif programlardan mezun olan öğretim elemanlarının dörtte birinin pedagojik formasyon eğitimi almamış olduğudur.

Çalışmanın katılımcıları Türkiye içinde ve dışında bulunan toplam 38 farklı üniversitenin mezunlarını temsil etmektedir. Lisansüstü çalışma yürütme eğilimine

ilişkin olarak, katılımcıların yarısından fazlasının yüksek lisans derecesine sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Bu bulgu da, yükseköğretim kurumlarında görev yapan öğretim elemanlarının, akademik gelişimlerini destekleyecek girişimlerde bulunan ve araştırma temelli bir öğretim yaklaşımı benimseyen bireyler olduğunun önemli bir göstergesi olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

İngilizce Öğretim Elemanlarının Dil Öğrenmeye İlişkin Bilişleri

İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının bilişlerinin belirli bir görüşü açık ve kesin bir şekilde yansıtmadığı, aksine farklı bakış açıları ve yaklaşımları benimseme eğilimi gösterdikleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Alanyazındaki benzer bulgular, öğretmenlerin tüm öğretim durumları için mükemmel bir şekilde işlemesi beklenen tek bir yönteme bel bağlamak yerine (Tantani, 2012), genellikle farklı yaklaşımların birleşimi olabilecek tutumlar geliştirdiğini (Ong, 2011 Hong, 2012) ya da derleyici yöntem ve teknikleri benimsediğini (Saengboon, 2012) göstermiştir.

Yine de bu çalışmada veri toplama aracının belirli boyutlarında bir takım yığılmalar olduğu gözlenmiştir. Örneğin dil yeteneği konusunda, *etkileşimci* bakış açısının *doğuştanlık* bakış açısından daha fazla onay gördüğü ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu bulgu, İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının ağırlıklı olarak, Vygotsky'nin (1962) sosyo-kültürel kuramını temel alan ve Krashen'ın (1994) ikinci dil ediniminde *etkileşim*in rolünü vurgulayan kuramını yansıtan bir yaklaşımla, dil öğrenmenin öğrenen ve çevre arasındaki sayısız etkileşimin bir ürünü olduğu görüşüne daha yakın olduklarını ortaya koymaktadır.

Etkileşimci bakış açısı altında yer alan kategorilere ilişkin eğilimler, biraz daha biçimsel (oluşturulmuş) ortam lehine olsa da, İngilizce öğretim elemanları, dil öğrenme konusunda hem doğal hem de oluşturulmuş ortamın önemini vurgulayan bir yaklaşım sergilemişlerdir. Bu çerçevede ağırlıklı olarak, dil öğrenenlerin ne kadar çok sosyal bağlantıları olursa o derece daha iyi dil öğrenebilecekleri (Long, 1985; Pica, 1996); hedef dilin resmi dil olarak konuşulduğu bir ülkede yabancı dil öğrenmenin daha etkili olacağı (Vibulphol, 2004; Diab; 2009); bir dilin öğrenilebilirliğinin o dilde maruz kalınan anlaşılır girdinin yeterli miktarda alınmasına bağlı olduğu görüşlerine inanıldığı saptanmıştır. Bu yöndeki bulgular,

Krashen'ın (1985, 1994) ikinci dil ediniminde anlaşılır girdinin ciddi rolünü vurgulayan kavramsal alanyazın ile tutarlı sonuçlar içermektedir.

Dil yeteneğinin bazı yönlerinin doğuştan ve değiştirilmez olduğunu öngören (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Randall, 2007) *doğuştanlık* bakış açısına ilişkin sonuçlar, katılımcıların belli bir kısmının dil öğrenme kapasitesinin tüm insanlarda doğuştan var olduğu görüşüne sahip olduğunu, ancak bütün insanların bir dili aşağı yukarı aynı şekilde öğrenebileceği ve dil edinimin %80 yetenek %20 çaba sonucu olabileceği görüşlerini pek benimsemediklerine işaret etmektedir. Bu bulgu, katılımcıların yaklaşık % 90'ının bazı insanların yabancı dil öğrenme konusunda özel bir yeteneğe sahip olduğunu iddia ettiği Vibulphol'un (2004) çalışmasındaki bulgular ile ters düşmektedir. Benzer bir yargı, Diab'ın (2009) çalışmasında katılımcıların yarısından fazlası tarafından onay görmüştür. Ancak mevcut çalışmada, İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının sadece beşte biri bu konuda benzer bir biliş sergilemiştir.

Katılımcıların dil öğrenme öncelikleri hakkında bilişleri incelendiğinde, İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının çoğunlukla dili kullanmanın öncelikli olarak vurgulandığı *performans* odaklı bir yaklaşım benimsediği görülmüştür. Benzer bir durum, Yook'un (2010) çalışmasında "iletişime dayalı dil öğretime dair inançlar" şeklinde vurgulanmıştır. Öte yandan, dil hakkında bilgi edinmenin önceliğini vurgulayan *edinç* odaklı yaklaşım ise daha az sayıda katılımcı tarafından onay görmüştür.

Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, ölçeğin bazı boyutlarına katılımcılar tarafından verilen yanıtlar kesin ve net eğilimleri yansıtmamıştır. Örneğin, dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özelliklerine ilişkin kategorilerden her üçünün de ortalama değerleri birbirine çok yakın çıkmıştır. Katılımcılar bir yandan kendi öğrenmeleri için sorumluluk alabilen öğrenciler ile analiz, değerlendirme ve yargılama yapabilen öğrencileri tercih ettiklerini yansıtırken, aynı zamanda öğretmenlerinin direktiflerini dikkatle dinleyen öğrencileri de önemsediklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ancak, yüzdelik dilimler incelendiğinde, katılımcılar arasında *kural koyucu* öğrencilerin *yürütücü* ve *eleştirici* öğrencilere göre daha popüler olduğu izlenmiştir.

İngilizce Öğretim Elemanlarının Dil Öğretmeye İlişkin Eylemleri

Üçüncü araştırma sorusunda İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının dil öğretim eylemleri incelenmiş, katılımcılar tarafından verilen derecelendirmelerde kişisel ve mesleki gelişime yönelik eylemlerin diğer boyutlara göre daha yüksek frekansta işaretlendiği saptanmıştır. Bu çerçevede, katılımcıların hem kişisel hem de profesyonel olarak kendilerini geliştirmek için gerekli yolları takip ettiği söylenebilir. Sprinthall ve diğerleri (1996) tarafından vurgulandığı üzere, mesleki gelişim bir nevi kişisel gelişimdir, bu nedenle mesleki gelişimden alınan tatmin kişisel gelişimi de garanti etmiş alacaktır.

Dil öğretim eylemleri arasında sıkça yansıtılan diğer bir boyut ise, Caner, Subaşı, ve Kara'nın (2010) çalışmalarında da vurgulandığı gibi öğrenci-merkezci olma eğilimidir. Fakat Uzakdoğu ve Ortadoğu'da yapılmış bazı çalışmalarda (Ali & Ammar, 2005; Choi, 2008; Li, 1998), öğretmenlerin öğrenci-merkezci yaklaşıma göre geleneksel öğretmen-merkezci yaklaşıma daha yatkın olduğu saptanmıştır. Mevcut çalışmada ise öğrenci-merkezci olma boyutu altında bulanan diğer maddelere göre oldukça az rağbet gören maddelerden biri sınıfta uygulanacak etkinliklerin öğrenciler tarafından seçilmesine ve öğrencilerin karar verme sürecine dahil edilmesine ilişkin maddedir. Bu maddenin frekans oranlarının azlığı, öğrenci özerkliğinin hizmet-içi öğretmenler tarafından yeterince içselleştirilemediğine ya da sınıf içinde yeterince teşvik edilemediğine değinen ilgili çalışmaları (Dickinson, 1992; Hurd, Beaven & Ortega, 2001; Littlewood, 1997; Nunan, 1997) destekler niteliktedir.

Üçüncü olarak katılımcılar arasında en fazla rağbet gören boyut yanlış düzeltme boyutudur. Buna göre katılımcılar, öğrenci yanlışı düzeltme konusunda kayda değer düzeyde *iletişimsel* uygulamaları benimsemişlerdir. Örneğin, öğretim elemanları, öğrencilerin ilerleyen zamanlarda hedef dili daha iyi konuşabilmesi adına, erken aşamalarda ifade hataları yapmalarına izin veren ve öğrencilerinin dil bilgisel açıdan doğru cümle kurması kaygısı taşımadan serbestçe iletişim kurmasını destekleyen bir tutum sergilediklerini ortaya koymuştur. Söz konusu tutumlar, Mori'nin (2011) çalışmasının sonuçları ile benzer bulgular ortaya koyarken, gramer tabanlı hataların çokça vurgulandığı yapı-temelli yanlış düzeltme yaklaşımının benimsendiği Paiva'nın (2011) bulguları ile ters düşmektedir.

Öğretimi planlama sürecinde yürütülen *iletişimsel* uygulamalar ile ilgili olarak, katılımcıların iletişimsel dil öğretimi yaklaşımına oldukça yatkın oldukları görülmüştür. Bu bulgular, öğretmenlerin anlamsız tekrarlar yerine anlamlı egzersizleri destekleyen, iletişim ağırlıklı etkinlikler yoluyla öğrencilerin hedef dili akıcı bir şekilde konuşabilecekleri bir ortam yaratmaya daha yatkın oldukları sonuçlarına varan Nishino'nun (2008) çalışmasını destekler niteliktedir.

Son olarak, dil öğretim eylemlerinin yansıttığı eğitim yaklaşımı iki kategori altında değerlendirilmiştir. Yapılan analizlerde, katılımcıların ne tamamen *gelenekçi* bir eğitim yaklaşımını, be de bütünüyle *yenilikçi* bir eğitim yaklaşımını benimsediklerini ortaya koymuştur. Bu durum önceki yıllarda yürütülmüş bazı çalışmalarca da desteklenmektedir (Hong, 2012; Ong, 2011; Saengboon, 2012; Tantani, 2012). Fakat bütün bu ikiliğe rağmen, mevcut çalışmanın katılımcıları, daha önce yapılmış birçok çalışmanın aksine (Canh 2011); J. Choi, 2008; El-Okda, 2005; Ellis, 2006; D. Li, 1998; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005), *yenilikçi* eğitim yaklaşımına az bir farkla da olsa daha yatkın bir yaklaşım sergilemişlerdir.

İngilizce Öğretim Elemanlarının Biliş ve Eylemelerini Etkileyen Faktörler

Yaş, deneyim, akademik geçmiş, görev yeri (kurum türü), ulusal/uluslararası yabancı dil sınav puanları gibi bağımsız değişkenler ile katılımcıların dil öğrenme bilişleri veya dil öğretme eylemleri arasındaki olası ilişkileri incelemeyi amaçlayan ikinci ve dördüncü araştırma sorularını cevaplandırmak için yürütülen çıkarsamalı analizler göstermiştir ki, yaş, öğretmenlik deneyimi, lisans eğitimi ve lisansüstü eğitim gibi değişkenler, katılımcıların dil öğrenme bilişleri ve dil öğretme eylemleri üzerinde farklılıklar yaratmıştır.

Öğretmen bilişi ve yaş arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığını öne süren Chan'ın (2008) tersine, yaş faktörünün hem bilişlerin hem de eylemlerin bazı boyutlarında etkili olduğu düşünülmektedir. Daha belirgin bir biçimde yorumlanacak olursa, katılımcıların yaşı arttıkça, *doğuştanlık* ve *etkileşimci* bakış açılarını benimseme eğilimleri azalmıştır. Bu da yaşça daha genç öğretim elemanlarının, bireylerin dil yeteneğini doğuştan gelen özelliklere ve çevreye daha kolay bir şekilde dayandırabildikleri anlamına gelmektedir. Diğer bir nokta ise, katılımcılar yaşlandıkça, *edinç odaklı* yaklaşımı daha fazla benimseme eğilimi

göstermişlerdir. Bu da, yaşça daha büyük olan öğretim elemanlarının, genç öğretmenlerin aksine, dili kullanarak bir performans sergilemekten çok, dille ilgili bilgi edinmeye öncelik verilmesi görüşüne daha yatkın olduklarına işaret etmektedir. Eylemlere bakıldığında ise, sonuçlar, yaşça büyük katılımcıların *öğretimi planlama* ve *yanlış düzeltme* süreçlerinde iletişimsel uygulamalardan vazgeçme eğiliminde olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Bunun yanı sıra, katılımcılar yaşlandıkça, *kişisel ve profesyonel gelişime* yönelik çabaları da azalma eğilimi göstermiştir.

İkinci değişken olan deneyim faktörü, yaş faktörüyle benzer sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Örneğin, öğretmenlik deneyimi ve *performans odaklı* yaklaşım arasında olumsuz yönde anlamlı bir korelasyon bulunmuştur. Bu da katılımcıların deneyim kazandıkça dilin *iletişimsel* unsurlarını vurgulayan *performans odaklı* yaklaşıma olan eğilimlerinin azaldığını ortaya koymuştur. Buna ek olarak, katılımcıların öğretmenlik deneyimleri arttıkça, *oluşturulmuş ortam odaklı* görüşle ilgili derecelendirmelerinde azalma izlenmiştir. Bu da yaşça daha büyük olan meslektaşlarıyla kıyaslandığında, genç İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının *oluşturulmuş ortam odaklı* görüşü daha çok desteklediklerini işaret etmektedir. Öğretmenlik deneyimin eylemler üzerindeki etkisine bakıldığında, deneyim faktörünün *yenilikçi* eğitim yaklaşımı ve *kişisel ve profesyonel gelişim* boyutlarını yansıtan eylemlerle arasında olumsuz bir korelasyon olduğu gözlenmiştir. Daha belirgin olarak, katılımcılar daha fazla deneyim kazandıkça, dil öğretme uygulamalarında *yenilikçi* eğitim yaklaşımından uzaklaşma eğilimi göstermiş, *kişisel ve profesyonel gelişime* olan teşebbüsleri ise azalmıştır. Bu bulguyu destekleyecek şekilde, çok sayıda çalışmada, öğretmenlik deneyimi öğretmenlerin bilişsel ve davranışsal yönlerini etkileyen önemli bir faktör olarak ele alınmıştır (Akyel, 1997; Breen et al. 2001; Canh, 2011; Chan, 2008; Chia, 2003; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Cumming, 1990; Johnson, 2003; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Moini, 2009; Mok, 1994; Nishino, 2008; Nunan, 1992; Osam & Balbay, 2004; Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil, & Ölçü 2009; Richards, 1998; Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Tantani, 2012; Tsui, 2003; Westerman, 1991).

Üçüncü değişken olan görev yerinin (özel veya devlet kurumu olması), öğretmenlerin bilişleri ve eylemleri üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir. Ancak, iş ortamının etkisini vurgulayan birçok çalışmanın (Ahn, 2009; Borg, 1998c; Burns, 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Davis, Konopak, & Readence, 1993; Farrell & Lim,

2005; Kang, 2008; H. Lee, 2006; Moini, 2009; Ng and Farrell; 2003; Pennington & Richards, 1997; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Spada & Massey, 1992; Tsui, 1996) aksine, mevcut çalışmada kurum türünün ne bilişler ne de eylemler üzerinde istatistiksel açıdan anlamalı bir etkisinin olduğu ortaya konmuştur.

Johnston ve Goettsch (2000) çalışmalarında, akademik geçmişin öğretmenlerin bilişsel temellerinin önemli bir kaynağı olduğunu öne sürmüşlerdir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmada hizmet-öncesi yılların (lisans eğitimi) öğretmen bilişleri ve eylemleri üzerindeki etkisi de incelenmiştir. Genel olarak, katılımcıların lisans eğitimi sırasındaki akademik çalışma alanlarının, katılımcıların *edinç odaklı* yaklaşım, *kural koyucu öğrenci odaklı* görüş ve *eleştirici öğrenci odaklı* görüş boyutlarına ilişkin bilişleri üzerinde ve *yenilikçi* eğitim yaklaşımı; *iletişimsel öğretimin planlanması* ve *iletişimsel yanlış düzeltme* boyutlarına ilişkin eylemler üzerinde önemli etkilerinin olduğu keşfedilmiştir.

Lisans eğitimin bilişler üzerinde yattığı farklara ilişkin olarak, alternatif programlardan mezun olan öğretim elemanlarının, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi (İDÖ) mezunlarına kıyasla daha çok *edinç odaklı* bir yaklaşım benimsedikleri ve İDÖ mezunlarının diğer bölümlerin mezunlarına kıyasla *kural koyucu ve eleştirici* öğrenci tipini daha çok tercih ettikleri saptanmıştır. Bu iki sonuç, İDÖ bölümlerinde yürütülen hizmet-öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının, mezunlar üzerinde bir takım bilişsel değişiklikler yaratabildiği anlamına gelebilir (Chambless & Bass, 1996; L. Li, 2012; Özmen, 2012; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). Fakat eylemler söz konusu olduğunda, İDÖ mezunlarının aksine, alternatif programlardan mezun olan öğretim elemanları daha *yenilikçi* bir eğitim yaklaşımı takip ettiklerini iddia etmişlerdir. Bunun yanı sıra, İDÖ mezunlarıyla kıyaslandığında diğer bölümlerin mezunlarının, *öğretimin planlanması* ve *yanlış düzeltme* boyutlarında *iletişimsel* uygulamaları biraz daha fazla benimsedikleri görülmüştür. Bu bulgular yoluyla, İDÖ bölümlerindeki hizmet-öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının, özellikle *öğretimin planlanması* ile *yanlış düzeltmede iletişimsel* uygulamalar ve *yenilikçi* eğitim yaklaşımı boyutları açısından, hedeflenen davranışsal değişiklikleri mezunlarının eylemlerine yansıtamadığı sonucuna varılabilir. Ölçekte yer alan maddelere verilen cevaplara göre, yukarıda bahsedilen iki bulgu, İDÖ mezunlarının bilişleri ve eylemleri arasında birtakım farklılıkların olduğu şeklinde yorumlanabilir.

İkinci olarak, *doğuştanlık* bakış açısıyla ilgili olan bilişler Dilbilim bölümü mezunları tarafından daha fazla kabul görmüştür. Binnie-Smith'in (1996) öğretmenlerin kararlarının ciddi ölçüde kendilerinin ikinci dil kuramları ilgili oluşturdukları kişisel kurgulardan etkilendiğini ortaya koyduğu gibi, bu sonuç Dilbilim bölümlerinde uygulanan eğitim programları yoluyla öğretilen kuramlara de dayandırılabilir. Diğer ilginç bir bulgu ise *edinç odaklı* yaklaşımla ilgili olan bilişlerin Amerikan Kültürü ve Edebiyatı bölümü mezunları tarafından daha fazla rağbet görmüş olmasıdır. Bu da o bölümün mezunlarının, dil öğrenmede öncelik konusunda, gerçek hayat ortamına yansıtılabilecek iletişimsel performans yerine dil hakkında bilgi edinmeyi daha çok önemsedikleri anlamına gelebilir. Fakat aynı grup katılımcıların (Amerikan Kültürü ve Edebiyatı bölümü mezunları) *öğretimi planlama* ve *yanlış düzeltme* konusunda daha çok *iletişimsel* uygulamaları takip ettikleri görülmektedir.

Son olarak, hizmet-öncesi yıllarında pedagojik formasyon eğitimi alan katılımcıların *kural koyucu* öğrenci tipini, pedagojik formasyon sertifikası olmayan öğretim elemanlarına oranla daha fazla tercih ettikleri saptanmıştır. Pedagojik formasyon sertifikasına sahip olan öğretim elemanları, daha çok kendi öğrenme sorumluluğunu üstlenen özerk öğrencileri benimsedikleri için, bu bulgu yoğun öğretmenlik sertifikası programına katılmanın en azından dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özelliklerine ilişkin bilişlerde farklılık yaratmış olabileceği şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Fakat eylemlere bakıldığında, pedagojik formasyon sertifikasına sahip olmanın dil öğretim uygulamaları açısından katılımcılar arasında herhangi bir fark oluşturmadığı da ortaya konmuştur.

Alanyazında önemli bir kaynak olarak derinliğine ele alınmayan lisansüstü eğitimin etkisi de bu çalışmada incelenmiştir ve yüksek lisans eğitiminin, hem bilişlerin hem de eylemlerin belli boyutları üzerinde bir takım etkileri olduğu izlenmiştir.

İlk olarak, katılımcıların yüksek lisans derecesine sahip olup olmadıkları *edinç odaklı* yaklaşımla ilgili bilişlerinde ve *geleneksel* eğitim yaklaşımı ilişkili eylemlerinde önemli farklılıklar oluşturmuştur. Buna bağlı olarak, yüksek lisans derecesine sahip olmayan katılımcılar *edinç odaklı* yaklaşıma yüksek lisans derecesi olanlardan daha çok yönelmişlerdir. Benzer şekilde, yüksek lisans derecesine sahip

olmayan katılımcılar *geleneksel* eğitim yaklaşımını yüksek lisans derecesi olanlara kıyasla daha çok benimsemişlerdir. Bu bulgular göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, lisansüstü çalışma yürütmüş olmanın İngilizce öğretim elemanları arasında olumlu bilişsel değişiklere neden olduğu söylenebilir.

Ayrıca, yüksek lisans programlarındaki çalışma alanlarının, katılımcıların *edinç odaklı* yaklaşıma ve *kural koyucu öğrenci odaklı* görüşe ilişkin olarak dil öğrenme bilişleri üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olduğu görülmektedir. Örneğin, eğitim alanı dışındaki programlarda yüksek lisans yapmış olan katılımcılar eğitim alanında yüksek lisans yapmış olanlarla kıyaslandığında *edinç odaklı* yaklaşımı daha çok benimsemişlerdir. Buna ek olarak, eğitimle ilgili bölümlerden yüksek lisan derecesine sahip olan katılımcılar, diğer katılımcılarla kıyaslandığında *kural koyucu* öğrenci tipini daha çok tercih etmişlerdir. Fakat eylemlere bakıldığında, katılımcıların yüksek lisans programındaki çalışma alanlarının (eğitim ya da eğitim dışı olması) dil öğretme uygulamaları üzerinde önemli bir etkisinin olmadığı ortaya konmuştur.

Yüksek lisans eğitimindeki akademik programların kategorileri daha belirgin olarak kıyaslandığında, dil yeteneğiyle ilgili bilişlere ilişkin olarak *doğuştanlık* görüşüne bağlılığın Dilbilim bölümlerinden yüksek lisans derecesi olan katılımcılar arasında daha yaygın olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bu da, bir kez daha Dilbilim bölümlerinin yüksek lisans programlarındaki içeriğin sonucu olarak yorumlanabilir. Öte yandan, İDÖ bölümlerinden yüksek lisans derecesine sahip olan katılımcılar dil öğrenmedeki öncelikler ilgili bilişlere ilişkin olarak *erinç odaklı* yaklaşımdan uzaklaşmış, ancak dil öğrenmeye yatkın öğrenci özellikleriyle ilgili bilişlere ilişkin olarak *kural koyucu öğrenci* tipini daha fazla benimsemişlerdir. Eylemler incelendiğinde, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı ve Dilbilim bölümlerinde yüksek lisans yapmış olan katılımcılar, diğer bölümlerin mezunlarıyla kıyaslandığında *yanlış düzeltme* konusunda daha çok *iletişimsel* uygulamaları benimsemişlerdir.

Bilişler ve Eylemler Arasındaki İlişki Biçimi

Beşinci araştırma sorusunu cevaplandırmak için bilişler ve eylemler arasındaki ilişki biçimi incelenmiştir. Öğretmenlerin görüşleri ya da düşünceleri ve (rapor edilen veya gözlemlenen) pedagojik uygulamaları arasındaki nedensel ilişkiye geniş bir yer

veren alanyazına (Breen, 1991; Burns, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996a; Flores, 2001; Johnson, 1992b, 1994; Mitchell, Brumfit, & Hooper, 1994a, 1994b; Mitchell & Hooper, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richards et al., 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Smith, 1996; Thompson, 1992) dayalı olarak yapılan kanonik korelasyon analizi sonucunda, bilişler ve eylemler arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya çıkaran tanımlayıcı bir model elde edilmiştir.

Kanonik korelasyon modelinin ortaya koyduğu iki grup değişken arasında bir ilişki bulunmuştur: (1) edinç odaklı yaklaşım; yürütücü öğrenci odaklı görüş; kural koyucu öğrenci odaklı görüş; ve (2) geleneksel eğitim yaklaşımı; iletişimsel öğretimi planlama; iletişimsel hata düzeltme. Analizlerdeki olumlu ve olumsuz korelasyonlara bakıldığında, dil öğrenmede öncelikler konusunda *edinç odaklı* bir yaklaşım benimseyen ve önceden belirlenmiş kuralları söylendiği gibi uygulayan *yürütücü* öğrencileri tercih eden katılımcıların, geleneksel eğitim anlayışına daha yatkın olabileceği, fakat öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme konusunda *iletişimsel* uygulamalardan uzaklaşabileceği gözlenmiştir. Benzer şekilde, kendi önceliklerine karar verebilen *kural koyucu* öğrencileri tercih etmeyen katılımcıların da öğretimi planlama ve yanlış düzeltme konusunda iletişimsel uygulamalardan uzaklaşabileceği ve geleneksel eğitim anlayışına daha yatkın olabileceği gözlenmiştir.

Uygulamaya Yönelik Öneriler

Bu çalışmada, öğretimin, öğretmenlerin kişisel, pratik ve deneyime dayalı bilgi, inanç ve algıları yoluyla yürütülen, sosyal ve bilişsel bir faaliyet olarak ne denli karmaşık bir yapısı olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Bu nedenle, çalışmada elde edilen bulgular, öğretmenlerin gelişimi için olduğu kadar hizmet-öncesi ve hizmet-içi öğretmen eğitimiyle ilgili paydaşlar için de kayda değer öneriler ortaya koymuştur.

Bilişsel altyapılarının (inanç, düşünce, bilgi ve algılarının) ve eylemlerinin incelendiği bu çalışmada, öğretim elemanlarını eleştirmek ya da uygulamalarına yanlış anlamlar yüklemek gibi bir amaç yoktur; bu çalışma daha çok öğretim elemanlarına kendileri ile ilgili öz-değerlendirme yapabilecekleri yansıtıcı düşünme için bir fırsat tanımaktadır. Bu doğrultuda, öğretim elemanları uygulamalarını gözden geçirerek, etkili çağdaş uygulamaları pekiştirirken, güncel olmayan yaklaşım ve tutumlarını yenileyebileceklerdir. Daha özel bulgulardan hareketle, öğretim

elemanlarının ilk olarak karar verme süreçlerine kendi öğrencilerini daha sık dâhil etmeleri önerilmektedir. Öğrenci özerkliğinin teşvik edilemediği bir ortamda öğretmen özerkliğinden bahsedilemeyeceği açıktır. Dolayısıyla, program geliştirme ve öğretimin değerlendirilmesi süreçlerinden başlayarak, sınıf düzeyinde öğrencilerin, kurumsal düzeyde de öğretim elemanlarının tüm karar verme süreçlerine dâhil edilmesi gerekmektedir. Ayrıca, öğretim elemanlarının, kendi öğrencilerinin gelişimlerini takip ederek, başarılarının kaydını tutması son derece önemlidir. Yükseköğretim düzeyinde, genç yetişkinlere yönelik öğretim etkinlikleri düzenliyor olmanın öğretim elemanlarını bu gibi sorumluluklardan muaf tutuyor olması beklenemez. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin, eğitimin hangi kademesinde olursa olsun benzer ilgi ve hassasiyetle yapılıyor olması beklenir, çünkü öğretmenlik sadece sınıf içi süreçlerle sınırlı bir iş değildir. Planlama, değerlendirme ve kayıt tutma süreçlerinde de öğretim elemanlarının aktif rol alması gerekmektedir.

Bu çalışma kapsamında hizmet-öncesi öğretmen eğitimine ilişkin bulgular, ister alternatif lisans programları, ister İngilizce Öğretmenliği programları yoluyla olsun, lisans eğitimi sürecinin öğretim elemanlarının bilişsel ve davranışsal gelişimi üzerinde önemli etkileri olduğunu teyit etmiştir. Örneğin, İngilizce Öğretmenliği programlarının yükseköğretim kurumlarında görev yapan öğretim elemanı ihtiyacının yarısını karşılayabiliyor olması, İDÖ mezunları ile alternatif programlardan mezun olan öğretim elemanları arasında bilişsel düzeyde anlamlı farklılıklar olması, pedagojik formasyon eğitiminin katılımcıların biliş ve eylemleri üzerinde herhangi bir etki yaratmaması, üniversitelerde öğretim elemanı ihtiyacını karşılayan bu iki kaynağın bir noktada birleşerek ortak programlar yürütülmesi gereksinimini vurgulamaktadır. Eğer ki alternatif programlardan mezun olanların büyük çoğunluğu eğitim sektöründe görev alıyor ise, bu bölümlerin programlarına içerik olarak pedagoji bileşeninin eklenmesi oldukça önemli görülmektedir. Pedagoji bileşeninin sadece hızlandırılmış sertifika programları yoluyla değil, daha uzun zaman diliminde sindirilebilecek şekilde yayılmış bir program yoluyla sunulması gerekir; zira öğretmenlik hızlandırılmış bir programla edinilecek bir meslek değildir.

Hizmet-öncesi öğretmen eğitimine ilişkin elde edilen diğer bir bulgu da, öğretmenlik programlarının İDÖ mezunlarında bilişsel farklıklılar yarattığını, ancak bu bilişlerin mezunların eylemlerine istendik düzeyde yansımadığını ortaya

koymuştur. Biliş ve eylem arasındaki bu farkın en aza indirilebilmesi ve edinilen bilişsel farkındalığın davranışlara da aktarılabilmesi için, mevcut programda sadece %8'lik bir oranla temsil edilen öğretmenlik uygulamalarına hizmet-öncesi programlarda daha fazla ağırlık verilmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca, okul deneyimi ile öğretmenlik uygulamalarının yürütüldüğü okul ortamlarının, sadece ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim kademeleri ile sınırlı kalmayıp, yükseköğretim düzeyinde de temsil edilmesi önerilmektedir. Üniversitelerde öğretim elemanı olarak istihdam edilmek, birçok mezun için öncelikli bir tercih olabileceği için, yükseköğretim düzeyinde yürütülecek staj uygulamalarına ağırlık vermek gerektiği değerlendirilmektedir

Hizmet-içi öğretmen eğitimi için de aynı özen ile gerekli mesleki gelişim etkinlikleri planlanıp uygulanabilir. Mevcut çalışmanın ortaya koyduğu, yaş, deneyim, lisansüstü çalışma yürütmüş olma değişkenlerinin biliş ve eylemler üzerinde yarattığı etkiler dikkate alındığında, söz konusu hizmet-içi eğitim uygulamalarının üç önemli ilkesi olması gerektiği ortaya çıkmıştır: (1) araştırma-odaklı öğretim yaklaşımı, (2) deneyimli ve yeni öğretmen arasındaki denge ve (3) devamlılık. Lisansüstü çalışma yürütmüş olmanın olumlu etkisi düşünüldüğünde, araştırma-odaklı bir öğretim anlayışının öğretim elemanlarının kişisel ve mesleki gelişimine sağlayacağı değerli katkıların hem deneyimli hem de yeni öğretmenlerce benimsenmesi gerekir. Yaş ve deneyim faktörleri dikkate alındığında, yeni ve deneyimli öğretim elemanlarının birbirlerinin gelişimine karşılıklı olarak katkı sağlayacak ve potansiyellerini eşit düzeyde ortaya koyacak bir yaklaşım sergilemeleri beklenmektedir. İki grup arasındaki etkileşim, taraflardan herhangi birini 'uzman' tayin etmeden, aralarında herhangi bir hiyerarşi oluşturmadan, deneyimli öğretmenlerin ustalık bilgi ve birikimlerini, yeni öğretmenlerin ise kuram ve öğretim yöntemlerine dair güncel bilgi ve kazanımlarını ortaya koyduğu bir işbirliği etkileşimi olmalıdır. Bilginin sürekli değişerek yeniden üretilip güncellendiği böylesi bir ortamda, öğrenmenin ve kişisel gelişimin de aynı şekilde hayat-boyu sürecek bir devamlılık arz etmesi beklenebilir.

İleride Yapılacak Araştırmalara Yönelik Öneriler

Bu çalışmada benimsenen araştırma deseni ile önemli bir adım atılmış, öğretim elemanlarının biliş ve eylemleri tarama yöntemi ile ortaya konmuştur. Ancak, ileride

yapılacak çalışmalarda, söz konusu süreçlerin derinlemesine incelenebilmesi için araştırma desenine nitel bir boyut eklenebilir. Bu bağlamda, bilişlerin görüşme, eylemlerin ise gözlem yöntemi yoluyla irdelenmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca, örneklem olarak Türkiye'nin farklı kurumlarından katılımcıların dâhil edilmesi ya da eğitimin diğer kademelerinin (ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim) araştırmaya dâhil edilmesi, yabancı dil öğretimine dair farklı boyutların ortaya konmasını mümkün kılabilir.

Appendix J: Official Permission from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee

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APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
T: +90 312 210 22 91
F: +90 312 210 79 59
ueam@metu.edu.tr
www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Sayı: 28620816/

15.03.2012

Gönderilen : Prof. Dr. Ali Yıldırım
Eğitim Bilimleri

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü öğrencisi Mustafa Öztürk'ün "Teacher Cognition and Teacher Action: The Relationship between Language Learning Beliefs and Language Teaching Practices of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Instructors at Tertiary Level" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

15/03/2012

Prof.Dr. Canan Özgen
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
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Appendix K: Permission for Photocopying

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

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Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü ☐

Enformatik Enstitüsü ☐

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Öztürk
Adı : Mustafa
Bölümü: Eğitim Bilimleri

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): EFL INSTRUCTORS' COGNITIONS AND ACTIONS IN RELATION TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING PROCESSES

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

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