

**T.C.
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EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ
YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI**

**A PROFILE OF PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS'
SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS**

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Habibe DOLGUN

Antalya, 2016

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**[İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİ VE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ
ÖZYETERLİLİK ALGI PROFİLİ]**

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Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mustafa CANER

Antalya, 2016

DOĐRULUK BEYANI

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Yüksek Lisans Tezinin Adı: A Profile of Pre-Service and in-Service EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs
[İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin ve Öğretmen Adaylarının Öz yeterlilik Algı Profili]

ONAY: Bu tez, Enstitü Yönetim Kurulunca belirlenen yukarıdaki jüri üyeleri tarafından uygun görülmüş ve Enstitü Yönetim Kurulununtarihinde ve..... sayılı kararıyla kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

A PROFILE OF PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

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The present study aims to investigate pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs in terms of instructional strategies, student engagement and classroom management in a Turkish context and examine and figure out the correlations, similarities and differences between the target groups of participants taking into account teachers' demographic characteristics. To achieve this, a teacher questionnaire has been administered to the pre-service EFL teachers studying in English Language Teaching Department of Akdeniz University, Education Faculty and in-service EFL teachers working in various primary or elementary schools in Antalya.

Findings indicate that self-efficacy beliefs of in-service EFL teachers and pre-service EFL teachers are relatively high. The subscales of the questionnaire have shown in-depth findings related to self-efficacy beliefs in the instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement. In-service teachers have more positive results in their self-efficacy beliefs for instructional strategies they use. However, pre-service teachers have been shown to feel more efficacious in student engagement. On the other hand, it has been revealed that there was not a significant difference in both group's efficacy beliefs in terms of efficacy beliefs in classroom management. In conclusion, marked tendencies of EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs have been identified.

Key words: Pre-service EFL teacher, in-service EFL teacher, self-efficacy beliefs.

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİ VE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ ÖZYETERLİLİK ALGI PROFİLİ

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Bu çalışma Antalya ilindeki hizmet öncesi İngilizce öğretmenleri ile hizmetiçi İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretimsel stratejiler bakımından özyeterlilik algı düzeylerini ölçmeyi ve öğretimsel stratejiler açısından iki örneklem grubu arasındaki bağlantıları ve bu benzerliklerin veya farkların öğretmenlerin demografik özelliklerine göre değerlendirilip analiz edilmesini amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, Akdeniz Üniversitesi'nde Eğitim Fakültesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümünde öğrenim görmekte olan son sınıf hizmet öncesi öğretmenlere ve Antalya ili Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı ilköğretim okullarında görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine anket uygulanmıştır.

Sonuçlara ve anketten elde edilen bulgulara göre hizmet öncesi İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ve hizmetiçi İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik düzeylerinin yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur. Bulgular karşılaştırıldığında ise özyeterlilik düzeyleri bakımından iki örneklem grubunda da anlamlı farklılıklara sahip olmadıkları gözlemlenmiştir. Bunun yanında, uygulanan ankete ait alt kategorilerin sonuçları göstermiştir ki her iki örneklem grubunda da sınıf yönetimi özyeterlilik seviyeleri açısından anlamlı bir fark görülmemektedir. Öte yandan, öğrenci katılımına yönelik özyeterlilik seviyelerinde hizmet öncesi öğretmenler lehine göze çarpan bir farklılık görülmüştür. Hizmetiçi İngilizce öğretmenlerinde ise öğretimsel stratejilerin kullanımı yönünde olumlu bir eğilim bulunmuştur. Sonuç olarak, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik algılarındaki eğilimler tanımlanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İngilizce öğretmeni adayları, özyeterlilik inançları

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Foreign language learning has always been a significant part of people's lives throughout history. Ancient people had to do it for practical reasons such as trade and politics. Latin, for instance, used to be the dominant language for religion, science and literature six hundred years ago. It was meant for the elite for many years whereas its domination had faded gradually when some countries such as England, Spain and France emerged as political powers of Europe. However, studying classical Latin proceeded until the 19th century since it was seen as a supreme language and a basic requirement for higher education by contemporary scholars. Thus the study of Classical Latin, which was based on grammatical forms, reading, translation of written language, lists of vocabulary and lots of repetition, had influenced the way a foreign language should be taught for more than five decades. This impact on language instruction based on analysing the target language had become a cult, which later came to be known as Grammar – Translation Method taking its roots from views of Skinner's stimulus-response-reinforcement views of Behaviourism and Structuralism in the 1950s. However, scholars observed that students can not use the target language when they used Grammar – Translation Method. Then the Direct Method, which emphasized using the target language in the classroom all the time, speaking, listening, dialogues and everyday usage of language, emerged as opposed to the Grammar – Translation Method. Grammar is taught inductively rather than explicitly in the Direct Method, the idea which was

first pronounced by 17th century language teacher, writer and education methodologist Jan Comenius. Nonetheless, The Direct Method did not suit every classroom because language teachers were rarely competent speakers of the target language to maintain the whole instruction. As a reaction to this impractical side of the Direct Method, the Reading Approach had been proposed and it stressed the importance of reading skill in the target language and translation. In the 1940s and 1950s in the United States, however, Audiolingualism dominated the language instruction, which entailed listening pronunciation, speaking, dialogues similarly in Direct Method and it also comprised memorization as a habit formation, a feature borrowed from Behavioural Psychology.

Language teaching methodology took a new turn in the 1960s and 1970s when cognitive psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky developed their learning theories that are now widely recognized as Constructivism in developmental psychology fields and their theories addressed to the nature of child learning and how human's constructing their own reality thus transformed the language teaching methodology as it affected other education research fields. Upon these theories, Comprehension –Based Approaches arose stressing the importance of listening skill which is a basic skill later comes speaking, reading and writing being the last skill to acquire as in the first language acquisition. In 1970s linguist Noam Chomsky, who rejected behaviouristic views of language instruction, proposed revolutionary theories for how humans learn and use language that underscore mental properties of human mind to generate language. He coined the linguistic terms 'performance' referring to spoken language or linguistic production and 'competence' referring to the inner linguistic potential. Similarly, linguists Dell Hymes and Michael Halliday,

whose names are associated with Communicative Language Teaching, had put forward influential language learning theories that embody the view ‘language is primarily for communication’. In the 1980s, Humanistic Approaches had emerged in reaction to Cognitive Approaches that were criticised for lacking the consideration of learner’s affective states. Language Teaching equivalents of Humanistic Approaches are Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov’s Suggestopedia, Caleb Gattegno’s Silent Way, James Asher’s Total Physical Response and Charles A. Curran’s Community Language Learning.

Today language teaching has gone beyond methods and approaches (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Savignon, 2007). Because it has been commonly accepted that each learner, teacher, and learning context and learning setting is unique and different, which makes it hard even unachievable to put into certain classifications. Today’s language teachers are expected to analyse their teaching skills, learners, learning/teaching materials, and context to reach a decision of how to teach and choose the proper method from among the multiple alternatives that suit their needs. This has been called as Principled Eclecticism (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mellow 2002) and has entailed new and broader roles and responsibilities on the part of the language teacher. This increased responsibilities and expectancy from language teachers may affect how they perceive their teaching skills or how they engage students and their beliefs of classroom management. At this point, language studies and research should focus on how teachers see themselves, what perceptions and beliefs they have about their language teaching skills. In other words, language teachers’ self-efficacy levels should be examined to determine to what extent

language teacher can use appropriate methods, techniques, teaching materials for an optimum learning environment/ language learning to take place.

Self-efficacy is the power generator of a person's achievements. It is behind every step in education and human learning, thus, it has been the subject to much scrutiny by many education researchers (Schunk, 1991; Bandura, 1993; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, 2007). The research on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and perceptions has shown that they clearly affect teachers' practices and student outcomes. It has been revealed that teachers' actions and behavior are closely linked to their beliefs, perceptions, assumptions and motivation. In this sense, the present study has been intended to underscore the judgements English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers make about their teaching practice and specifically about their self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English.

1.1 Background to the Study

For the last decades, research on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs has been crucially notable as their beliefs and perceptions shape the route of understanding and planning of instruction, their performance and the overall atmosphere of teaching and learning.

One standing belief that has a key role in teacher actions, teaching methods, lesson planning preferences and student growth is teachers' sense of efficacy. Pajares (1992; 325) states "beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate. The earlier a belief is absorbed in the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter". Teachers'

efficacy is one of these beliefs that are absorbed earlier, established into their belief structure and resist change. At this point, it is obvious that if efficacy beliefs are formed positively at the beginning of teaching profession, this will direct the whole variables and dimensions that are attached to self-efficacy in a teaching environment such as motivation, classroom management, lesson planning, and evaluation. Teachers' perceived competencies and capabilities appear to affect teaching practices directly. Teachers' efficacy beliefs have a powerful impact on both the learning environment and the judgments about their teaching competence while performing various tasks to facilitate student learning (Bandura, 1993, 1997). Teachers' efficacy judgments have been related to their attitude in the teaching environment and efficacy research has shown positive correlations with teachers' beliefs and their teaching methods. Allinder (1994), for instance, claims that teachers with higher self-efficacy are inclined to have more organized and planned lessons. High efficacy teachers have been found to be more tolerant when their students make mistakes (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Besides, these teachers are more determined with difficult students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and they are more motivated to teach (Coladarci, 1992). Further, high efficacy teachers have a decisive and strong grip to teaching profession (Burley, Hall, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1991).

Researchers from various education fields conducted efficacy studies with either inservice teachers or pre-service teachers (Schoon & Boone, 1998; Knobloch & Whittington, 2003). Moreover, some researchers focus on teacher efficacy on a national scale (Poulou, 2007; Gavora, 2011; O'Neill and Stephenson, 2012). Studies on self-efficacy beliefs of teachers from other education fields or from various education levels have also corresponding results to the previous efficacy research

(Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ashton & Web, 1986; Riggs & Enouchs, 1990). For instance, while some researchers focused on efficacy beliefs of teachers from secondary level education (Chan, 2008), others looked into teachers from diverse educational fields such as science, mathematics or agriculture (Schoon & Boone, 1998; Knobloch & Whittington, 2003; Robinson & Edwards, 2012). Likewise, some studies examined novice teachers' efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Fry, 2009).

In addition, there are some studies that provide a critical view of teacher efficacy research in the related literature (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Henson, 2002; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004; Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011). As Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998) claim, such research aimed at activating new research topics and direct efficacy research in a way that “can provide a thick, rich description of the growth of teacher efficacy” (p.242) while in the meantime, pointed to the neglected data gathering methods such as longitudinal studies and qualitative data gathering procedures or issues and measures that needed to be refined (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Henson, 2002).

Turkish researchers from various education fields have also examined teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. An influential body of research came from a validity study of the Turkish version of Teacher Efficacy Scale by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005). The review of the related literature showed that the most of the efficacy studies in Turkish context have accumulated upon their Turkish version of the Teacher Efficacy Scale of Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (2001). For instance, Ekici (2008) studied pre-service teachers' efficacy levels after they had completed 'Classroom management' course studying in Computer Science Department. Further, Bursal

(2008) investigated science anxiety and personal science teaching efficacy during the semester when the pre-service teacher took the Science Methods Course. Similarly, Gürbüzürk (2009) focused on pre-service teachers' efficacy levels from diverse education branches. Likewise, Özder (2011) have examined novice classroom teachers' self-efficacy levels and their teaching performance in the classroom teaching in Northern Cyprus. It is worth to mention that, in addition to Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya's (2005) study, there is another study (Cerit, 2010), which used the Teacher Efficacy Scale developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984) with junior and senior pre-service classroom teachers in a Turkish university.

The review of available literature also revealed that there are numerous self-efficacy research in EFL context which focused on to teacher attitudes in classroom management, planning and organization and teacher perceptions in different countries (Chacon , 2005; Ghanizadeh and Moafian, 2011; Huangfu, 2012). In terms of Turkish EFL context, it can be claimed that the self-efficacy studies reached consistent findings with studies abroad. For instance, Göker's (2006) study, which is one of the earliest studies in the field of language teaching, relates peer coaching to pre-service teacher self-efficacy and found that pre-service teachers who took teaching practice course reported that the consistent feedback from their peers had promoted their self-efficacy beliefs about instructional skills. Similarly, Atay (2007) in her study with pre-service EFL teachers maintains that micro teaching experiences of senior year pre-service teachers has influential effects on teacher self-efficacy levels since it is the first time that pre-service teachers face with classroom reality. In another study which examines the relationship between computer efficacy and self-efficacy of pre-service teachers, Topkaya (2010) indicated that computer self-

efficacy perceptions of pre-service EFL teachers have a positive relationship with their general self-efficacy beliefs.

The literature review also showed that some teacher efficacy studies in Turkish EFL context initiated longitudinal investigation to define changes in pre-service teachers' sense of teacher efficacy (Şahin & Atay, 2010; Yüksel, 2014). Additionally, some studies (Yılmaz; 2011) examined perceived self-efficacy levels of non-native English language teachers teaching in primary or high schools along with self-reported English proficiency and instructional strategies they used. Lastly, in a very recent study Kavanoz, Yüksel, and Özcan (2015) focused on pre-service EFL teachers' efficacy levels in terms of Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Though teachers' sense of self-efficacy has been considered to have significant and undeniable influence on teaching and learning environment, student motivation and achievement and teachers' self-image and motivation, the research so far have put more emphasis on teachers in general but little attention has been directed towards specific fields or branches such as English as Foreign Language teachers. Thus, there is a growing necessity to look into EFL pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions of efficacy since there has been an overwhelming interest in learning English for varying purposes. At this point, the growing need to learn a foreign language makes it critical to know and examine EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Furthermore, the self-efficacy research on education literature has a limited number of studies dealing with teacher efficacy in EFL context.

Another point to make is that the recent literature on self-efficacy research on educational studies has not been conducted to figure out and compare the self-efficacy beliefs of in-service and pre-service EFL teachers. Thus, the current study will try to draw a profile of in-service and pre-service EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs as well as contribute to the gap in the field by examining the self-efficacy beliefs of both in-service and pre-service teachers.

1.3 Scope of the Study

The main intention behind the present study is to examine self-efficacy profiles of in-service and pre-service EFL teachers. For that purpose, the context in which the present study has been conducted will be briefly described here. First, the present study has two groups of participating teachers. The in-service teachers within the present study are EFL teachers teaching in primary schools or high schools within the curricula provided by Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Antalya. These teachers had been selected and appointed to their schools with their scores from a central examination (KPSS) carried out by the government. The pre-service teachers, on the other hand, are 4th year pre-service teachers studying in English Language and Education department of Akdeniz University, Faculty of Education. The pre-service teachers who participated to the study were their 4th year in ELT department and they have already completed almost all of their theoretical and methodological courses and have been to real teaching environment through the "School Experience" and the "Teaching Practice" courses.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

This study will try to examine pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy levels in a Turkish context. Furthermore, the study will attempt to compare of self-efficacy beliefs in pre-service and in-service EFL teachers in order to add a dimension to teacher training literature. To do that, the present study aims to figure out the levels of efficacy of in-service EFL teachers and pre-service EFL teachers. One of the key points of the present study is the fact that it will be an attempt to reveal the differences between pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs if there are any. The discrepancies between pre-service and in-service EFL teachers – if they exist – might provide direction for teacher training programs to improve the quality of teachers of future and suggest ways to improve teacher training so that it will enhance EFL teachers' self-efficacy from the beginning of their teaching practice. Finally, it will attempt to examine the correlations and differences between EFL teachers' sense of efficacy, use of pedagogical strategies and demographic variables so that the study will be conducted to compare pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to embody a profile of EFL teachers' judgements and perceptions about their own teaching.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The present study is crucial and significant for some reasons. First of all, it is observed that efficacy research on education in literature has been largely on different subject matters such as mathematics or science. Thus, it can be claimed that little attention has been directed towards the efficacy of teachers in language

teaching context and particularly foreign language teaching context. Regarding this fact in mind, the present study will try to meet the requirement to determine in-service and pre-service EFL teachers' efficacy levels. Furthermore, the limited studies on language teachers' efficacy levels put more emphasis on language proficiency levels of EFL teachers or pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs whereas there is little emphasis on the comparison of the in-service and pre-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy perceptions and how they differ or if they differ. Thus, this study will attempt to cover this point to have a better understanding of EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs before they start teaching practice and after they have been practicing teaching for a while. Finally, the present study will be conducted to meet the requirement to set a profile in order to reflect professional competence of EFL teachers in different settings, which will help other educators and teacher trainers to develop a better insight of how EFL teachers can improve themselves professionally.

1.6 Research Questions

Regarding the above mentioned purpose and significance of the present study, it will attempt to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are in-service and pre-service EFL teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs?
 - a. In terms of instructional strategies?
 - b. In terms of classroom management?
 - c. In terms of student engagement?

2. Is there any significant difference between the self-efficacy beliefs of in-service and pre-service teachers?
 - a. Is there any difference between pre-service teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs with regards to types of high schools they graduated?
 - b. Is there any difference between in-service teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs with regards to types of high schools they graduated?
 - c. Is there any difference between in-service teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs with regards to their teaching experience?

1.7. Limitations

This study has some limitations in nature. First of all, the study comprises mainly self-reported data from participants' perceptions of their teaching. Thus, it is assumed that participants answered the questionnaire honestly and made accurate judgements of their teaching practices. Yet their responses may not reflect their actual practices. Besides, the findings of the study can not be generalized to other EFL contexts in Turkey since the data has been collected from particular areas of the country, which has made the number of participants limited.

1.8 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has demonstrated the background information and the purpose of the present study and the research questions while providing relevant studies that will be presented in the next chapter in detail.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The theoretical framework for Social Cognitive Theory on which self-efficacy structure is theoretically based will be introduced in this chapter. Following this, teacher efficacy beliefs and collective teacher efficacy were presented in this chapter. Firstly, an outline of Social Cognitive Theory was introduced. Then self- efficacy beliefs were explained. Finally, this chapter discussed teachers' sense of efficacy. This chapter was concluded with a summary of relevant and recent studies.

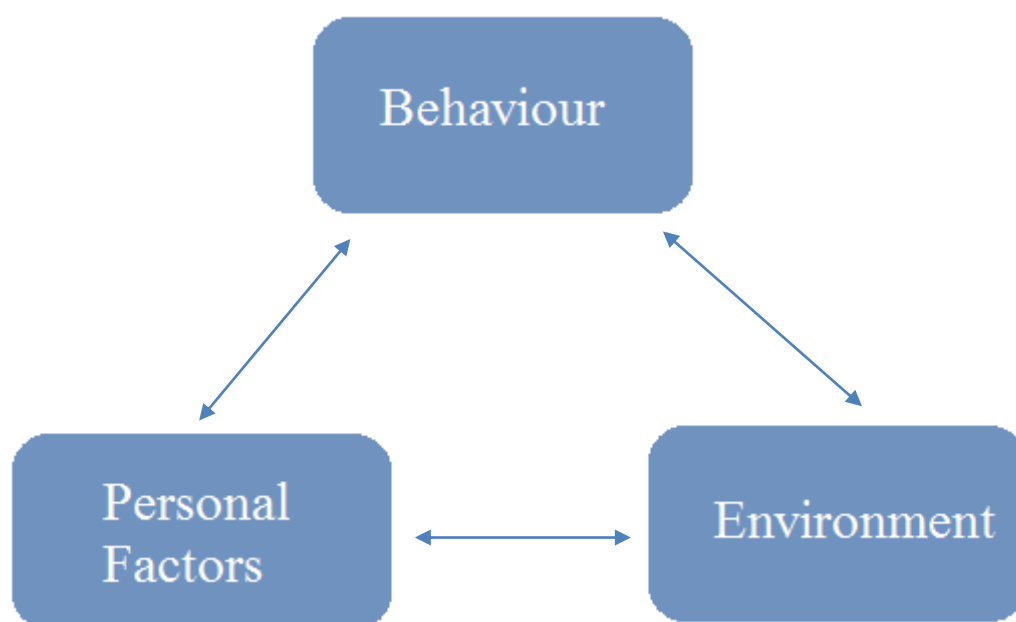
Self-efficacy beliefs of individuals have been subject to much research as they have a huge spectrum to explain human functioning. In order to have a detailed understanding of self-efficacy beliefs, the root of the view, which is Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory, is explored first.

2.1 Theoretical Background: Social Cognitive Theory

The 1970s had been the beginning of a new theory when Bandura (1977) hypothesized his social cognitive theory to explain changes in human behaviour. His influential work opened novel dimensions for behavioural explanations such as self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, social cognitive theory focuses on human development, adaptation and change from an 'agentic' perspective (Bandura, 2001, 2006). This

theory supports the idea that people “are contributors to their life circumstances, not just products of them” (Bandura, 2006; 164). At this point, social cognitive theory views human functioning as a mutual interaction between personal, behavioral and environmental factors (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002). This interaction has been defined as “reciprocal determinism” (Bandura, 1997) which presented in Figure 2.1. below.

Figure 2.1 Triadic Reciprocal Causation Model (Adapted from Bandura, 1997; 6)



For a better understanding of the theory, Pajares (2002) compares social cognitive theory with other human learning theories that focus on environmental and biological factors. Those theories that emphasize the effects of environment on human functioning support that outside stimulation produce behavior. Whereas social cognitive theory focuses on how an individual’s cognitive processes and their interpretations are affected by those external factors and indicates introspective observation. Likewise, social cognitive theory objects the theories that stress

biological factors in human change and adaptations as those theories highlight evolutionary aspects but are far from explaining how the new social and technological situations affect human adaptation while creating new pressures for change (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). The whole theoretical comparison makes it clear that social cognitive theory stands in a different position where it can give a wider perspective to the explanation of complexities of human functioning, human adaptation and learning.

The social cognitive theory asserts that human agency is developed through social interaction. As Bandura (2006) puts it:

The newborn arrives without any sense of selfhood and personal agency. The self must be socially constructed through transactional experiences with the environment. The developmental progression of a sense of personal agency moves from perceiving causal relations between environmental events, through understanding causation via action, and finally to recognizing oneself as the agent of the actions. ... As infants begin to develop some behavioral capabilities, they not only observe but also directly experience that their actions make things happen.... With the development of representational capabilities, infants can begin to learn from probabilistic and delayed outcomes brought about by personal actions (p. 169).

Regarding the explanation above, it can be claimed that the social cognitive theory defines central properties of human agency. Agency, which has four core elements, implies the acts done intentionally (Bandura, 2001). Thus, intentionality is a first agentic element of an individual's actions since "an intention is a representation of a future course of action to be performed. It is not simply an expectation or prediction of future course of action but a proactive commitment to bringing them about" (Bandura, 2001; 6). As Bandura (2001) claims the forethought is another property of agency. According to him "through exercise of forethought, people motivate

themselves and guide their actions in anticipation of future events” (Bandura, 2001; 7). Considering the lifespan of a person, “a forethoughtful perspective provides direction, coherence, and meaning to one’s life” (Bandura, 2001; 7). The third feature of agency is self-reactiveness which is described as purposefully making choices and action plans and also devises proper courses of action to motivate and carry on their execution (Bandura, 2006). The fourth core agentic feature is self-reflectiveness. Self-reflective thoughts are the actions that are activated when people examine their actions. According to Bandura (2006; 165) “through functional self-awareness, they reflect on their personal efficacy, the soundness of their thoughts and actions and the meaning of their pursuits, and they make corrective adjustments if necessary. The metacognitive capability to reflect upon oneself and the adequacy of one’s thoughts and actions is the most distinctly human core property of agency”.

2.2 Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Bandura (1997; 2-3) defines efficacy beliefs as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments”. Efficacy beliefs do significantly affect people’s choices in such a way that “people’s level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true”. Moreover, “perceived self-efficacy is concerned not with the number of skills you have, but with what you believe you can do with what you have under a variety of circumstances” (p. 37). Similarly, Pajares (2002) proposes that efficacy beliefs are the very core of social cognitive theory, which is also mentioned in Bandura (2001) as:

Efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency. Unless people believe they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Whatever other factors may operate as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce effects by one's actions. (p.10)

Self-efficacy beliefs have been widely discussed in Bandura's (2006) work.

According to him:

Belief in one's efficacy is a key personal resource in personal development and change. It operates through its impact on cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes. Efficacy beliefs affect whether individuals think optimistically or pessimistically, in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways. Such beliefs affect people's goals and aspirations, how well they motivate themselves, and their perseverance in the face of difficulties and adversity. Efficacy beliefs also shape people's outcome expectations—whether they expect their efforts to produce favorable outcomes or adverse ones. In addition, efficacy beliefs determine how opportunities and impediments are viewed. People of low efficacy are easily convinced of the futility of effort in the face of difficulties. They quickly give up trying. Those of high efficacy view impediments as surmountable by improvement of self-regulatory skills and perseverant effort. They stay the course in the face of difficulties and remain resilient to adversity. Moreover, efficacy beliefs affect the quality of emotional life and vulnerability to stress and depression. And last, but not least, efficacy beliefs determine the choices people make at important decisional points. A factor that influences choice behavior can profoundly affect the courses lives take. This is because the social influences operating in the selected environments continue to promote certain competencies, values, and lifestyles. (p. 171)

Further, Bandura (1997) believes that self-efficacy beliefs are task and situation specific. That is, efficacy beliefs of a person may alter in different tasks or the same tasks under multiple circumstances. As Bandura (1997) puts it “different people with similar skills, or the same person under different circumstances, may perform poorly,

adequately or extraordinarily, depending on the fluctuations in their beliefs of personal efficacy” (p.37).

Besides being task and situation specific, Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy beliefs have differing dimensions including level, generality and strength. As for him, the level refers to the difficulty of a particular activity or task. Efficacy beliefs also differ in generality, which implies that a person believes she or she is efficacious either in a wide variety of tasks or in particular tasks. Lastly, efficacy beliefs change in strength, because, “weak efficacy beliefs are easily negated by disconfirming experiences, whereas people who have a tenacious belief in their capabilities will persevere in their efforts despite innumerable difficulties and obstacles...the stronger the sense of personal efficacy, the greater the perseverance and the higher the likelihood that the chosen activity will be performed successfully” (p.43).

The strength of self-efficacy beliefs have been meticulously described in Bandura (1997) as;

People who have strong beliefs in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an affirmative orientation fosters interest and engrossing involvement in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain a strong commitment to them. They invest a high level of effort in what they do and heighten their effort in the face of failures or setbacks. They remain task-focused and think strategically in the face of difficulties. They attribute failure to insufficient effort, which supports a success orientation. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They approach potential stressors or threats with the confidence that they can exercise some control over them. Such an efficacious outlook enhances performance accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression (p. 39).

2.2.1 Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Bandura (1997) frames four sources for efficacy beliefs. These are ‘enactive mastery’ experience’, ‘vicarious experience’, ‘verbal persuasion’ and ‘physiological and affective states’. The efficacy information based on these four sources includes two functions when people cognitively process it. The first cognitive function is the indication of personal efficacy. Each of the four sources efficacies has its own specific set of indicators for efficacy information. The second function is heuristics or trial-error methods people use to judge the quality of the coming information and integrate it into their own personal efficacy frame (Bandura, 1997).

The initial and strongest source of efficacy is enactive mastery experience because people have the firsthand knowledge of the events and experience them; they have an immediate and reliable source of efficacy information. Bandura suggests that if people are successful in a task, this will strengthen their efficacy beliefs and endure more when there are difficulties. Failures, however, impair and injure efficacy beliefs especially when people experience the failure “before a sense of efficacy is firmly established” (p. 80). “After people become convinced that they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks. By sticking it out through tough times, they emerge from adversity stronger and more able” (p. 80).

Bandura (1997) proposes that development of human competency in mastery experiences “is facilitated by breaking down complex skills into easily mastered subskills and organizing them hierarchically” (p. 80). Nonetheless, people still need to be persuaded that they can “exercise better control by applying them (the rules)

consistently and persistently.” A good example for Bandura’s (1997) argument is the research on the benefits of strategy training by Schunk and Rice’s (1987) study. They taught children with academic problems how to recognize cognitive task demands, structure solutions and monitor their adequacy and make corrective alterations when they make errors. The strategy instruction, practice and even repeated success feedback did not improve children’s personal efficacy. However, when these children were reminded that they were exercising better control over the tasks by using the strategies and were more successful. Thus, their personal efficacy was enhanced significantly.

The second source of self-efficacy is the vicarious experience. This type of experience is activated through observing others performing the tasks and the person measures his or her capability in comparison with other people. Vicarious experiences are less effective than mastery experiences for raising self-efficacy levels of individuals. However, there are some cases when vicarious experience or modeling others is particularly powerful. The first one is that if the person has little or no initial knowledge and experience; and if the person is not sure about his or her abilities, observing other people doing the task becomes more important. Another point that makes vicarious experience more significant is that the person attributes similarities to the modelled person. Observing other people who are thought to be similarly competent succeed will affect self-efficacy levels positively whereas failure despite high effort will undermine efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997; 87) “The greater the assumed similarity, the more persuasive are the models’ successes and failures. If people see the models as very different from themselves, their beliefs of personal efficacy are not much influenced by the models’

behaviour and the results it produces”. A further point is that people feel more efficacious when their model who possess admired qualities teach them a more efficient way of performing the tasks even if the individual is already self—assured of his or her capabilities (Bandura, 1997).

People also improve their self-efficacy beliefs through verbal persuasion from other people. Bandura (1997) describes how social persuasion should be: “It is easier to sustain a sense of efficacy, especially when struggling with difficulties if significant others express faith in one’s capabilities than if they convey doubts. Verbal persuasion alone may be limited in its power to create enduring increases in perceived efficacy, but it can bolster self-change if the positive appraisal is within realistic bounds” (p.101). Social persuasion is often in the form of evaluative feedback, which raises personal efficacy when persuaders underline personal capabilities rather than highlighting the effort and hard work they put in. If the persuader refers to the effort, it contains an implied message that the person’s talents are so limited that they require such an effort to maintain the tasks (Schunk & Rice, 1986).

Finally, physiological and affective states are the last sources of self – efficacy beliefs. People sometimes decide on their capabilities using the cues from their bodies especially when the task requires physical strength and stamina. While doing such tasks; tiredness, fatigue, aches and pains are often associated with physical inefficacy. As Bandura (1997; 106) suggests “the fourth major way of altering efficacy beliefs is to enhance physical status, reduce stress levels and negative emotional proclivities, and correct misinterpretations of bodily states”.

2.2.2 Teachers' Perceived Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Education and specifically teacher self-efficacy beliefs have been researched extensively after the self-efficacy theory was put forward by Bandura in 1977. The research indicates that teachers' efficacy beliefs determine teachers' motivation, academic activities and students' evaluation of their intellectual capabilities to some extent (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997) "teachers with a high sense of instructional efficacy operate on the belief that difficult students are reachable and teachable through extra effort and appropriate techniques and that they can enlist family supports and overcome negating community influences through effective teaching. In contrast, teachers who have a low sense of instructional efficacy believe that there is little they can do if students are unmotivated and that the influence teachers can exert on students' intellectual development is severely limited by unsupportive or oppositional influences from home and neighbourhood environment" (p.240).

In terms of the role of efficacy on the classroom management skills of teachers, Gibson and Dembo (1984) observed how high efficacy teacher and low efficacy teachers manage their classroom activities. Their research indicated that high efficacy teachers dedicated more time to educational tasks, guide students with difficulties and approve their academic achievements. On the contrary, teachers with lower efficacy levels spend more time on non-academic activities, easily give up on students and criticize them for their failures. For this reason, Bandura (1997) concludes that "...teachers who believe strongly in their ability to promote learning create mastery experiences for their students, but those beset by self-doubts about their instructional efficacy construct classroom environments that are likely to

undermine students' judgements of their abilities and their cognitive development" (p.241). A further deduction Bandura (1997) makes is that high efficacy teachers are likely to use persuasory strategies rather than authoritarian control and try to find ways to enhance students' intrinsic interest and learner autonomy.

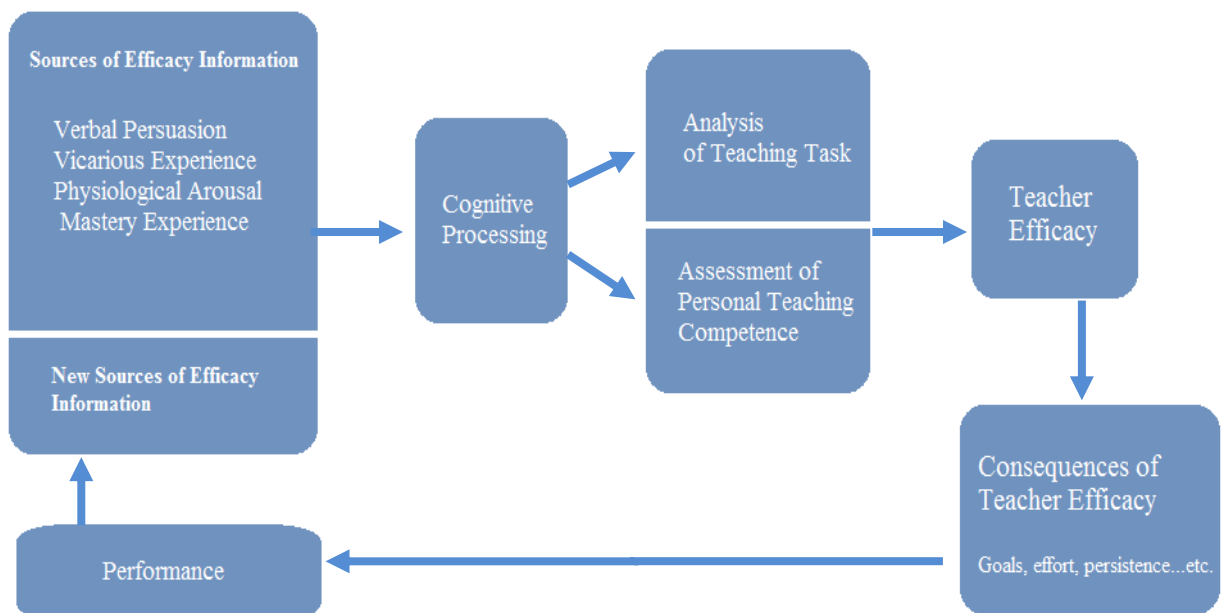
One of the few studies which are designed to look into multiple dimensions of teacher efficacy exclusively is that of Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy's. Their influential research paper in 1998 provides a comprehensive description of the teachers' efficacy measures to that date. Besides, the study provides a critical interpretation of teacher efficacy research so far:

This appealing idea, that teachers' beliefs about their own capabilities as teachers somehow matter, enjoyed a celebrated childhood, producing compelling findings in almost every study, but it has also struggled through the difficult, if inevitable, the identity crisis of adolescence...teacher efficacy now stands on the verge of maturity (p.202).

Apart from this, Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998) proposes an integrated model of teacher efficacy to point out the cyclical nature of teacher efficacy, as it is illustrated in Figure 2.2. This model explaining teacher efficacy combines earlier theoretical concepts related to the four sources of efficacy advanced by Bandura (1997). Within this model, teachers' efficacy beliefs are results of an interaction between personal perceptions about the difficulty of teaching and the judgement of these perceptions about the personal teaching abilities. To make these judgements, teachers generate efficacy information from four sources: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological arousal. The consequence of teacher efficacy has been outlined in an effort, persistence and goals triangle, which entails efficacy beliefs that will lead to new goals the teachers set for themselves, the effort they invest to achieve their goals and the persistence they need

when there are difficult situations. As it can be inferred from the cyclical theme of teacher efficacy, lower teacher efficacy will bring about diminished effort and persistence. Thus, this will create the negative performance that will, in turn, lead to lower efficacy.

Figure 2.2 An Integrated Model for Teacher Efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998)



Within their theoretical model, Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998) also argue that teacher efficacy is a combined function of analysing the teaching task and his or her assessment of personal teaching competence or skills as it is described below:

In analysing the teaching task and its context; the relative importance of factors that make teaching difficult or act as constraints is weighed against an assessment of the resources available that facilitate learning. In assessing self-perceptions of teaching competence, the teacher judges personal capabilities such as skills, knowledge, strategies, or personality traits balanced against personal weaknesses or liabilities in this particular teaching context (p.228).

Their research indicates significant findings in relation to (a) pre-service teachers, (b) novice teachers and (c) in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. The findings of the

studies concerning pre-service teachers, novice teachers and in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs have been presented in detail in the following parts.

2.2.2.1 Pre-service Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs

Pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs have been associated with children and control (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Undergraduates with a low sense of teacher efficacy tended to have an orientation toward control; they took a pessimistic view of students' motivation and relied on strict classroom regulations, extrinsic rewards, and punishments to make students study (p.235).

In addition to this, graduate courses they took during their undergraduate program and Teaching Practice course have partial impacts on pre-service teachers' efficacy. 'Student teaching provides an opportunity to gather information about one's personal capabilities for teaching. However, when it is experienced as a sudden total immersion – as a sink-or-swim experience – it is likely detrimental to building a sense of teaching competence' (p.235). For that reasons, Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998) propose that teacher preparation programs need to enhance student teachers' efficacy by creating actual experiences from various teaching contexts and tasks with a gradually increasing complexity and challenge accompanied by lots of specific feedback and extensive verbal input.

In some efficacy studies concerning pre-service teachers, (Saklofske, Michayluk & Randhawa, 1988 as cited in Bandura, 1997) reserachers claimed that those with higher self- efficacy levels perform better at presenting lesson plans, making their

students speak longer in class discussions and managing their classrooms during their teacher training program.

2.2.2.2 Novice Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs

Efficacy levels of novice teachers that completed their first year in teaching have been shown to be related to commitment to teaching profession, satisfaction with support and preparation and stress levels, though the research pointing to novice teachers are few (Burley et al., 1991; Hall et al., 1992 as cited in Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

Novice teachers' efficacy levels in the longitudinal investigation of Hoy and Spero (2005) have been found to be rising during teacher preparation program and Teaching Practice course but their efficacy fell after they started actual teaching. Though one-year internship program provides opportunities for gathering information about their teaching capabilities, novices often underestimate the complexities of the teaching tasks and find themselves unable to manage many things to do in lesson plans simultaneously (Weinstein, 1998). Besides this, novice teachers may interact too much with their students as peers and their classes go out of their control or novice teachers become harsh and mean and disappointed with their 'teacher self'. Their ideal teaching standards they adopted during teacher preparation program and their teaching performance and quality do not match, which frequently results in lowering their ideal standards for self-protection (Rushton, 2000).

Further studies (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007) show that novice teachers have been found to make a more explicit analysis of teaching task compared to

experienced teachers when they are asked to judge their teaching efficacy. In addition, novices' efficacy judgements are found to be more affected by contextual factors such as school setting and teaching resources. Especially availability of teaching resources has been found to have a noticeably meaningful contribution to novices' self-efficacy beliefs and judgements. Verbal persuasion from colleagues, parents or members of community and support from school administration are also appeared to be a more important aspect of novices' efficacy beliefs than that of experienced teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

2.2.2.3 In-service Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs

For experienced teachers' efficacy levels, in-service training programs and collaboration in school and colleagues have been shown to have an impact (Rosenholtz, 1989; Ross, 1994). However, as Bandura (1997) warns that if efficacy beliefs are already established they require 'compelling feedback that forcefully disputes the pre-existing disbelief in one's capabilities' (p.82).

In addition, Milner (2002) conducted a case study with a teacher that has 19-years teaching experience at high school level. The researcher observed and interviewed the teacher over a 6-month period. The findings indicate significant points for experienced teacher's efficacy, sources of efficacy and persistence through difficult times. This teacher reported having persisted in teaching profession so long with the positive feedback she received from students and their parents. Though some circumstances had made her question herself, her self-assurance and confidence helped her stay in the job. She also benefitted most from verbal feedback from her

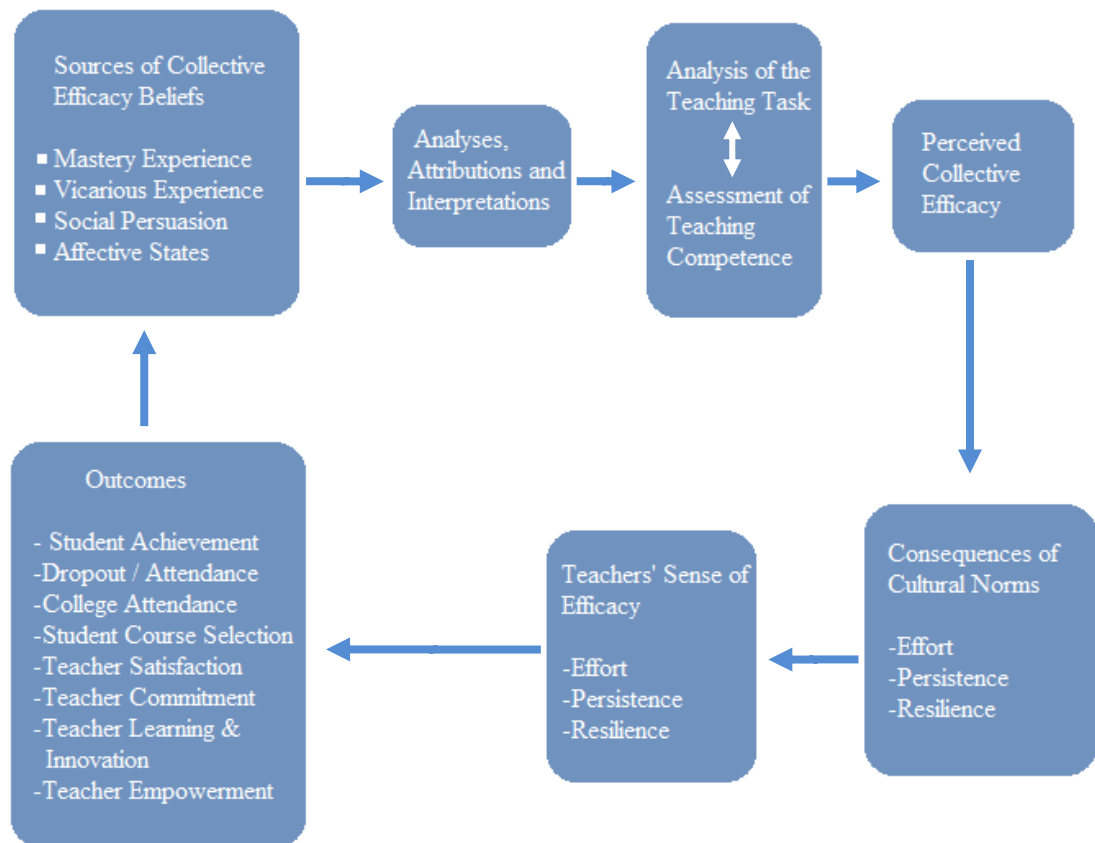
colleagues. The researcher claims that this teacher exclusively found it useful that positive feedback from students, parents and colleagues is an integral part of teacher efficacy. Thus, Milner (2002) argue that before mastery experience occurs, verbal persuasion has been the major source of teacher efficacy even if the teacher is an experienced teacher and propose a reconsideration of theoretical context of sources of efficacy beliefs.

2.2.3 Collective Teacher Efficacy

Bandura (1997) defines collective efficacy as “a group’s shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments” (p.477). Similar to self-efficacy beliefs’ function in an individual’s achievements, collective efficacy beliefs affect a group’s performance on a given task in various fields like business, sports or education. For schools, perceived collective efficacy means assumptions of teachers in a school that they believe they can organize and execute the tasks needed to enhance a positive effect upon students. Research have shown that teachers’ collective efficacy is closely associated with student achievement and overall school climate, immediately after prior student achievement and key demographic elements such as socioeconomic status (Bandura, 1993; Goddard, 2002).

A similar theoretical model for collective teacher efficacy based on the one defined by Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy’s (1998) has been described by Goddard et al. (2004).

Figure 2.3 Proposed model of the formation, influence, and change of perceived collective efficacy in schools (Goddard et al. 2004).



Although collective teacher efficacy has recently begun to be recognized by researchers, studies suggest that there is a strong link between teachers' efficacy beliefs and perceived collective efficacy. Moreover, Goddard et al. (2004) report that if teachers are given opportunities to influence instructionally relevant school decisions, they are more likely to feel more confident in their capabilities to teach students, thus this will enhance their efficacy beliefs. However, they suggest that collective efficacy is a new research area and much is needed to be known about its meaning, effects and sources and outcomes (Goddard et al., 2004).

2.3 Recent Studies

Efficacy studies from various researchers have differing focuses. For instance, some researchers (Poulou, 2007; Gavora, 2011; O'Neill and Stephenson, 2012) examined teachers' efficacy beliefs nationwide. Poulou (2007), for instance, has looked into sources of personal teaching efficacy in pre-service teachers in Greece. The results indicated that pre-service teachers had personal motivation to help their students learn and perform better. Highly rated sources of efficacy for pre-service teachers had been found to be their personal characteristics, direct communication with children, sense of humour, personal competence, teaching skills, ability to perceive students' needs and university training or academic performance as well as teaching experience. Moreover, Gavora (2011) looked into teacher efficacy on Slovakian context to adapt and validate a Slovakian version of Teacher Efficacy Scale. Findings implied that Slovak teachers strongly believe in their teaching ability to facilitate learning rather than overcoming external factors such as poor home environment or indifferent parents, a result which is consistent with similar studies.

Further, O'Neill and Stephenson (2012) have studied Australian pre-service primary school teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The main purposes of their work are finding out what sources furnish four-year trained primary school teachers' efficacy beliefs on classroom management and what courses contribute to the self-efficacy beliefs. The participants in this study felt most efficacious about making their expectations clear, followed by getting students to follow class rules, and on establishing routines. The lowest scores refer to responding to defiant students, and on keeping a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson. Most pre-service teachers preferred

classroom management items with teacher-centred tasks, which are more easily controllable by the teacher.

Other efficacy studies (Schoon and Boone, 1998; Whittington, 2003; Knobloch and Tschannen- Moran and Hoy, 2007; Chan, 2008; Fry, 2009; Robinson and Edwards, 2012) have considered school levels that teachers have been teaching such as elementary or secondary levels and teachers' teaching experience. An earlier study by Schoon and Boone (1998) centres its attention on pre-service elementary science teacher efficacy and alternative conceptions they held for the earth and space sciences. For this purpose, a survey had been conducted to 619 pre-service elementary science teachers. The first part of the scale was adapted from Enogh and Riggs (1990) Elementary Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument. The second part of the survey consisted of multiple choice items for common alternative conceptions about science. By 'alternative conception' term what the researcher implies is that common beliefs about scientific facts are unconditionally accepted to be true such as 'Summer occurs when the earth is nearer the sun'. The findings had shown that elementary pre-service science teachers had these same common alternative conceptions about science as in the case of earlier studies. Although they did not obtain a clear pattern for the relationship between these conceptions and self-efficacy beliefs; among all the participating teachers, two teachers who had the highest self-efficacy score had only one alternative conception. The findings implied that science knowledge and attitudes towards science may be contributing factors to science teaching efficacy.

Similarly, Knobloch and Whittington (2003) have explored career commitment of novice agriculture teachers. The population of their study has been 91 agriculture

teachers in their first 3 years of teaching in the public high schools in accessible locations of Ohio. The results of this study indicate that novice teachers have positive thoughts about their career commitment and teachers with higher career commitment have been more efficacious for the ten-week study and felt more likely to persist. It appears from the study that one of the sources of efficacy is commitment and those teachers who feel that teaching is their long term goal and match their personal needs are more professionally committed to teaching. These teachers are also more intrinsically motivated. Teachers with lower commitment, however, show a decline in their motivation towards the end of the study.

In addition, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) have investigated the different variables that have an effect on the sources for novice teachers and experienced teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Given the inadequacy of mastery experience of teaching, novices were found to be feeling less efficacious than practising teachers. Novice teachers, on the other hand, made a more explicit analysis of the teaching task and considered that availability of teaching resources contributed substantially to their judgements of self-efficacy. Besides teaching resources, inexperienced teachers were shown to regard support from colleagues and school community another important contributing element for their self-efficacy beliefs. By contrast, experienced teachers were found to adopt a more isolated professional life.

The study of Chan (2008) who has investigated secondary school Chinese teachers that enrolled in the researcher's courses in the teacher education program at the University of Hong Kong focused on secondary level teachers' efficacy levels. Further, the researcher attempted to explore the teachers' burnout components depending on different reasons such as depersonalization, emotional exhaustion and

personal accomplishment. For instance, lower sense of efficacy in engaging students can be a contribution to emotional exhaustion and a low level of efficacy in classroom management leads to depersonalization. Moreover, a low sense of efficacy in guiding and counseling students may contribute to reduced sense of personal accomplishment. A final conclusion the researcher makes is that teachers with a higher sense of general efficacy experience notably less emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and a greater sense of personal accomplishment than those with a low general sense of efficacy.

In the same manner, Fry (2009) conducted a case study to investigate about induction period (the first three years of teaching profession) of 4 novice teachers in terms of their success and self-efficacy. The main point for this study is to figure out what exactly makes teachers feel successful and want to remain in their profession. The major themes arose from the data collection process were these: successful classroom communities, a student-centered approach, overcoming obstacles and lifelong learners valued effective teacher education. Building a strong classroom community and student-centered approach had immensely helped 2 novice teachers to improve their classroom management efficacy and the successful classroom environment led to an increased efficacy in instructional strategies. The two highly efficacious teachers had some obstacles but they overcame the obstacles when they implemented the strategies they learned during teacher preparation program or Teaching Practice course, whereas one of the other lower efficacy teachers used a lot of trial – error when she faced with obstacles, which later on lead to her departure from teaching profession. The fourth teacher left the teaching profession after teaching for a while. Last finding reveals that the two highly efficacious teachers sought constructive

feedback from their colleagues or school principal to improve their teaching, and they valued lifelong learning.

By the same token, Robinson and Edwards (2012) have conducted a pre-test /post-test study to describe and explain the level of teacher self-efficacy of first-year secondary agricultural education teachers in Oklahoma. The subjects of this study were Alternatively Certified (AC) teachers that were trained to meet the shortage of teachers in Oklahoma State and Traditionally Certified (TC) teachers that received a formal pedagogical education. Their findings demonstrate that, in terms of self-efficacy, TC teachers have a higher score on two out of three aspects of scale: student engagement and instructional practices when compared to AC counterparts. On the other hand, AC teachers demonstrate a larger growth in student engagement and instructional practices during the year. Another finding reveals that AC teachers perceive that they have experienced a big progress in instructional practices while TC teachers are reported to improve their classroom management skills more than AC fellows. Finally, AC teachers' scores of perceived self-efficacy are higher whereas their performance assessment scores from their mentors and supervisors are not as high, at which point TC teachers outperform AC teachers. A sharp difference strikes when it comes to teacher products such as lesson plans, assessment tools... etc. where TC do better compared to AC teachers.

The efficacy studies by Turkish researchers present parallelism and consistency with related studies abroad. Some studies focused on pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs as in the case of Ekici (2008) who designed a pre-test/post-test study with 91 pre-service teachers from Electronic and Computer Teaching department. These are 3rd-year per-service teachers who took the course 'Classroom Management'. The

researchers used the Turkish Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale validated by Çapa, Sarıkaya and Çakıroğlu (2005). Findings indicated a significant increase of efficacy levels after pre-service teachers took the course and positive reflections to their overall teaching skills.

Further, Bursal (2008) investigated science anxiety and personal science teaching efficacy during the semester when the pre-service teachers took the Science Methods Course. The participants are 154 pre-service teachers from Turkish elementary teacher training program. The researcher had administered The Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument developed by Enochs and Riggs (1990) and Science Anxiety Survey within a pre-test/post-test frame. The data obtained from the study showed a decline in the science anxieties of pre-service teachers that somehow formed previously. However, science teaching efficacy levels were reported to have no positive impact even after pre-service teachers completed a Science Methods Course.

In addition, Gürbüztürk (2009) has studied efficacy levels of 450 pre-service teachers studying at the Faculty of Education in İnönü University. Pre-service teachers have slightly above average self-efficacy level with close scores of student engagement, class management and instructional strategies. As for the teacher beliefs, constructivist beliefs of the pre-service teachers have been in close connection with higher self-efficacy. On the other hand, in terms of efficacy for classroom management and instructional strategies, pre-service teachers have moderately high efficacy levels.

Additionally, Cerit (2010) has focused on validity and reliability of Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984) among 1st-year and 4th-year pre-service classroom teachers from Western Black Sea Region of Turkey. The researcher concludes with various facts related to the teacher training program. First, teacher training program has helped pre-service teachers' acquiring sufficient ability and professional knowledge. Besides this, ending level teachers feel that family support is as effective as teachers' practice in student learning. Thus, the researcher makes a point to include cultural and social elements or items to teacher efficacy scale. The last point made by the researcher is the TES may not be a valid scale for pre-service classroom teachers in this study.

Moreover, Özder (2011) have examined novice teachers' self-efficacy levels and their teaching performance in the classroom. The researcher adopted a mixed research method to study 27 teacher trainees' self-efficacy levels with an emphasis on their 'in-class performance' using the Turkish version of Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TTSES) by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005). The participating teachers are novice elementary school teachers within their internship period of two years during which the qualitative data have been collected including close-ended questions. Findings have shown that elementary school novice teachers have adequately high self-efficacy levels particularly in 'using instructional strategies in class' which is followed by 'classroom management skills'. Lowest efficacy scores were mostly on 'ensuring student engagement in classes'. In classroom management, novice teachers have been reported to use the method of 'giving verbal warning' to control students' disruptive behaviour.

Efficacy studies regarding English as a Foreign Language context indicate parallel findings concerning teacher perceptions about instructional skills, student engagement or English language proficiency. Chacon (2005), for instance, points out that EFL teachers feel that they are competent and proficient speakers of English language, they feel more efficacious while teaching and emphasizes language proficiency is a significant factor determining EFL teachers' sense of efficacy.

Furthermore, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) have investigated the correlation between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and years of teaching, their age and their pedagogical success in language schools. The results of the correlation analysis reveal that there is a notable parallelism between teachers' self-efficacy scores and their pedagogical success. Similarly, the longer the years of teaching, the higher their self-efficacy beliefs are. Another relevant finding indicates that the older the teachers are, the more efficacious they felt, which is in contrast to Bandura's (1995) claim that age does not correlate with efficacy as people vary in how they manage their lives. In conclusion, the researchers make a point that when teacher strongly believe in his or her self-efficacy, she or he is more likely to be assessed as successful from students' perspective.

In a similar fashion, Huangfu (2012) has investigated 112 EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs from China. The analysis reveals that most frequently used motivational strategies are creating initial motivation and interest for language and maintaining the present motivation. The results imply that teachers who feel highly efficacious for instructional strategies apply more motivational strategies to students use.

Turkish EFL context in self – efficacy research puts forward consistent findings with studies abroad. For instance, Göker (2006) relates peer coaching to student teacher self – efficacy. The study conducted comprises two groups of pre-service teachers, experimental and control groups, totally 32 pre-service teachers from their final year of teacher education program. The data had been obtained during teaching practice course and researcher had a specific focus on instructional skills repertoire. The control group received only a traditional post-conferencing with their supervisors whereas experimental group received feedback not only from their supervisors but also from their peers who took notes during their micro teaching periods. This was immediate informal feedback on the point where the micro teaching took place. The Clarity Observation Instrument (Metcalf, 1989) was used to evaluate instructional skills to measure the frequency of occurrence, quality, and overall demonstration. Bandura’s (1995) General Efficacy Scale was also used. The researcher found that pre-service teachers who took Teaching Practice course reported that the consistent feedback from other student teachers had promoted their self-efficacy beliefs about instructional skills.

Further, Atay (2007) in her study with pre-service EFL teachers maintains that micro teaching period of senior year student teachers has influential effects on teacher self-efficacy levels since it is the first time pre-serviceteachers faced with classroom reality. The study included Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) administered to 78 pre-service EFL teachers in their fourth years. The researcher had also held focus-group discussions to receive reflections of pre-service teachers’ practice teaching course. At the end of the practice teaching course, pre-service teachers’ efficacy levels were slightly increased. However, there has

been a significant difference between before teaching practice course and after teaching practice course efficacy levels related to instructional skills. There was a decline in their efficacy for providing an alternative explanation when students are confused, crafting good questions and use of different assessment strategies. In contrast, there had been an increase in pre-service efficacy for classroom management and student engagement.

Additionally, Topkaya (2010) has scrutinized 288 pre-service teachers studying in English Language department with a specific emphasis on computer self-efficacy perceptions of pre-service EFL teachers. The researcher utilized Computer Efficacy Scale by Aşkar and Umay (2001). The findings indicated that computer self-efficacy perceptions of pre-service EFL teachers have a positive relationship with their general self –efficacy beliefs. Computer efficacy levels of pre-service teachers were at moderate levels. Though student teachers took courses for information technologies during their first and second years of teacher education programs, there was not a statistically difference in their perceptions of computer efficacy. Moreover, the researcher suggests that the courses taken during teacher education program fall short for equipping teachers with skills and knowledge to integrate computers as teaching tools when they start teaching.

In order to measure in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs, Yılmaz (2011) has investigated 54 in-service teachers teaching English in primary or high schools. For this aim, he used three instruments. (1) Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001); (2) English teachers' self-reported language proficiency developed by Chacon (2005); (3) English teachers' self-reported pedagogical strategies to teach English – either grammar-oriented strategies or

communicative-oriented strategies – adapted from Eslami and Fatahi (2008). Findings indicated that EFL teachers see themselves more efficacious in instructional skills than in student engagement and classroom management skills. Also, Turkish EFL in-service teachers perceive themselves as more proficient in reading and speaking rather than in listening and writing. In addition, communicative-oriented strategies receive a higher score than grammar-oriented strategies. The study results clarify that the more English teachers feel proficient in all four basic language skills the more they feel efficacious.

Moreover, two longitudinal study designs in order to detect pre-service EFL teacher efficacy levels using both qualitative and quantitative methods are those of Şahin and Atay's (2010) and Yüksel's (2014) studies. For instance, Şahin and Atay (2010) had looked into 27 pre-service teachers' change in their self-efficacy levels before Teaching Practice course, after Teaching Practice course and at the end of their first year in teaching profession. Thus, the study took place over a period of 13 months. The researchers used Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and they also used open-ended questions directed to pre-service teachers once after they took Teaching Practice course and once at the end of their first year in teaching profession. They analysed the qualitative data from the open-ended question by using Miles and Huberman's (1994) pattern coding technique. The findings indicated a significant increase in pre-service teachers' efficacy perceptions after Teaching Practice course when compared to before Teaching Practice course. However, the qualitative analysis revealed that all participating pre-service teachers were anxious that they believed they needed more teaching practice to internalize

their theoretical knowledge though they felt satisfied with their theoretical knowledge.

Similarly, Yüksel (2014) investigated 40 pre-service EFL teachers' change in efficacy levels before and after student observation and at the end of Teaching Practice course over an academic year. Data were collected through both qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative data were collected through the Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005) and the qualitative data were collected through reflection papers to gain an understanding of the possible sources of efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. These reflection papers were also analysed by pattern coding method by Miles and Huberman (1994). Findings revealed significant changes in pre-service teachers' efficacy perceptions over time. Pre-service teachers appeared to have high efficacy levels before student observation and a decrease had been detected after student observation although it was followed by an increase at the end of Teaching Practice course. The pre-service teachers' first impressions of real classroom environment were sour though they restored their efficacy towards the end of student teaching. As for the sources of efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers, enactive mastery experience and social persuasion were found to stand out among others.

Lastly, Kavanoz, Yüksel and Özcan (2015) have investigated Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs about Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge (W-PCK). For this aim, they administered an online survey to 113 EFL pre-service teachers that was a W-PCK scale adapted to Turkish by Horzum (2011). Findings had shown that there was not a significant gender difference in perceived usefulness of computer and the Internet although the previous research had a trend for females

displaying more negative thoughts towards computers and the Internet. Besides this, Turkish EFL pre-service teachers appeared to have positive beliefs towards the benefits of Web-based instruction and considerably high level of W-PCK self-efficacy and the frequency of Web use had been positively correlated to pre-service teachers' general self-efficacy.

As the last word, it can be seen from the studies mentioned in the review of literature part; the focus is on either in-service EFL teachers (Yılmaz, 2011) or on pre-service EFL teachers (Göker, 2006; Atay, 2007; Topkaya, 2010; Şahin & Atay, 2010; Yüksel, 2014; Kavanoz et al., 2015). There is relatively little emphasis on comparative studies regarding efficacy levels of both in-service and pre-service EFL teachers in the teacher efficacy research literature. Thus, the present study has been intended to contribute to this gap in the teacher efficacy research literature.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This part of the present study looked into the research process in detail. The research type along with its rationale was demonstrated. The data gathering instrument employed was introduced separately. Besides, the reasons why they are specifically chosen were presented. The subjects participating in the study and the context of the study were described thoroughly. Lastly, the analysis procedures were mentioned and validity of the analysis was discussed.

3.1 Study Design

The present study is a quantitative study. Quantitative research is a formal, objective, systematic and exploratory process for obtaining quantifiable information about the subject and concerned with numbers, statistics, and the relationships between events/numbers. According to Cresswell (2013), qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem through which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based on participatory perspectives.

The data collection instrument of the present study is the Turkish version of a questionnaire developed by Çapa, Çakıroglu and Sarıkaya (2005) that administered

by the researcher to central locations of Antalya. Data, which has been subject to descriptive and correlational analyses, has been collected through a questionnaire administered to 105 teachers teaching in primary schools and high schools of three widely populated central districts of Antalya, namely Muratpaşa, Kepez and Konyaaltı, and 75 4th year EFL student teachers studying in Akdeniz University Education Faculty. The questionnaire has two parts. The first part has been intended to obtain demographic information about the participating teachers including age, gender, teaching experience, the field of graduation, Bachelor's Degree, school type. The second part of the questionnaire has 24 items of the Turkish version of the Teachers' sense of efficacy scale TTSES (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005).

3.2 Participants

The participants of the study are 180 EFL teachers. 105 of the teachers are in-service English as Foreign Language teachers with 1 to 28 years of teaching experience in state primary schools or high schools in Antalya. 75 of the participants are pre-service EFL teachers studying their 4th year at Akdeniz University, Education Faculty, and English Language Teaching Department. Pre-service teachers of the current study have completed most of the theoretical courses in English Language Teaching department and have taken the IOP 406 Teaching Practice course. Thus, they have been exposed to the real life teaching experience. Some of the questionnaires returned from pre-service teachers had been eliminated due to some reasons that may affect other variables of the research such as students repeating the

IOP 406 Teaching Practice course or students who did not take Teaching Practice course yet.

3.3 Data Gathering Instrument

The scale for this study is Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). However, the researcher preferred to use Turkish adapted version of the scale by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya (2005). The research instrument used in this study comprises two sections. The first section is demographic information of the participants and the second section is the questionnaire which is the Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TTSES) (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005). These are the sections of this study:

- 1) Demographic Information
- 2) Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TTSES)
(Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005)

3.3.1 Demographic Information

The first part of this study is demographic information. The questions in this section consist of age, gender, years of teaching experience, type of high school they graduated, ranking in university preference, bachelor's degree, type of school they want to teach and undergraduate courses they think helped most after these teachers started teaching.

Further, some of the items included in the demographics section have a direct or indirect relevance to our research questions. First of all, age and gender information

have been obtained whereas these variables are not relevant for research questions though the researcher included them to have a definite account of the participating teachers in the present study.

Apart from these, other items in demographics section of the questionnaire have been aimed at capturing participants' motivation levels about being a teacher or when these participants decided to be a teacher. Bearing this in mind, type of high school they preferred hints that those who enrolled at Teacher Training High Schools may have preceding decisions to become a teacher from the beginning and teaching is not a random choice for them. These teachers may be expected to be intrinsically motivated and thus, they are assumed to be highly efficacious in their teaching practices.

A similar item is their ranking in university choice. If teachers whose first choice is studying in Faculty of Education started teaching, they may have stronger efficacy beliefs and persist on the teaching profession when there are adversities than those who choose Faculty of Education for other reasons such as employment rate of teaching profession or wrong choices.

In addition, there is an item asking what school level these teachers would like to teach, which is aimed at gathering domain information. In other words, teachers' preference of school level either primary, secondary or high school level may point to their perceptions that their present teaching skills and strategies fit that school level. That is to say, these teachers believe that they will feel more confident and efficacious when they are given a chance to teach at the level they chose.

Teaching experience is another item that has a direct relevance to our research questions. It is aimed at gathering the data on the accuracy of the hypothesis that the more experience in teaching brings about the stronger efficacy beliefs for in-service teachers or vice versa.

Moreover, the last item of the first section of the questionnaire is in relation to the sources of efficacy beliefs. Research evidence that when pre-service teachers have been exposed to vicarious learning experiences or social persuasion such as courses they take, their teaching efficacy beliefs are more likely to change (Watters & Ginns, 1995 cited in Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For that reasons, I would like to know what courses these teachers think have a positive effect on their current teaching practices.

3.3.2 Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

The second section of the questionnaire is the Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TTSES) validated by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya in 2005. The original version of the scale is Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran, M., and Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) have developed a measure of teacher efficacy beliefs using 255 in-service and 103 pre-service teachers from Ohio State University. For this aim, the researchers had to repeat their study three times to reach intended validity and reliability levels. The third and final study had a sample of 410 teachers, including 103 pre-service, 255 in-service and 38 respondents who had no indication of their teaching experience. The in-service teachers ranged in age from 21 to 57 years and

pre-service teachers from 18 to 52 years. They included 332 European Americans, 38 African Americans, 3 Latinos/Latinas, 7 Asian Americans and 10 identified themselves as other. Of those who indicated their grade levels, 29% taught in high school, 29% taught in middle school, 37% taught in elementary grades and 5% taught preschool.

Reliabilities for teacher efficacy subscales are 0.91 for instruction, 0.90 for management and 0.87 for engagement, which provides a high reliability score for both pre-service and in-service teachers. As for construct validity, the researchers assessed the correlations of TSES scores and other existing measures and total scores of the TSES had been positively related to Rand items ($r=0.18$ and 0.53 , $p<0.01$) and Gibson and Dembo measure ($r=0.16$ and 0.64 , $p<0.01$) (Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001). The total scores obtained in the third and final study has been summarized in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1 Total scores for the third study by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001).

	Mean	SD	α
TSES	7.1	0.94	0.94
Instruction	7.3	1.1	0.91
Management	6.7	1.1	0.90
Engagement	7.3	1.1	0.87

The study instrument comprises 24 items and it consists of three subscales for Efficacy for Student Engagement - SE, Efficacy for Instructional Strategies - IS, and Efficacy for Classroom Management – CM. There are eight items for each of the subscales. It is a 9-point scale and the items require Likert-type responses coded numerically. (e.g. 1= nothing, 3=little, 5= some, 7=quite a bit, 9= a great deal). Here are sample items for each of the subscales given:

- a. Sample Item for Efficacy for Student Engagement - SE,

“How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in schoolwork?”

b. Sample Item for Efficacy for Instructional Strategies - IS,

“To what extent can you use a variety of assessment strategies?”

c. Sample Item for Efficacy for Classroom Management – CM

“How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?”

3.3.3 The Turkish version of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TTSES)

The present study has made use of the Turkish version of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale for some obvious reasons. First of all, since the English proficiency levels of the participating teachers both for in-service teachers or pre-service teachers are beyond the scope of this study. Besides, we did have a diverse group of subjects as for age, graduation, bachelor’s degree... etc., we did not want to risk some misconception intervening with our actual purpose to gather their perceived efficacy beliefs of their teaching practices and experiences.

In addition, the core of the current study is gathering Turkish EFL teachers’ perceptions. In other words, what teaching potential they believe they have and to what extent they believe they use that potential and how much of it they believe they take to their classroom while teaching is our main concern, which would be best reflected through the subjects’ mother tongue, the idea which is evident in Piaget’s words, "some forty years ago, during my first studies...I believed in the close relation between language and thought" (Piaget, 1972/1973, cited in Becker & Varelas, 2001; 23). Hence, it is seen that language for Piaget comes after thought or cognition. For him, "language primarily reflects thought and does not shape it..." (Elliot, 1994; 40).

Lastly, the Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005) has been a valid and reliable instrument for the present study. The translation procedure of the scale has been meticulous. The initial translation has been done by qualified individuals who are proficient both in Turkish and English and doing the efficacy research for a long time. After that, researchers have edited and reviewed again before it is field tested for linguistic clarity concerns and later it is pilot tested with 97 pre-service teachers in Turkey. As for the construct validity, the subscales of the instrument have been measured through the use of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Rasch measurement.

For this validation study, participants included 628 preservice teachers who were senior students majored in mathematics education (14%), elementary science education (21%), early childhood education (15%), and classroom teaching program (51%). Data had been gathered from six different universities located in four major cities in Turkey. The results indicated that, on average, Turkish pre-service teachers had an efficacy score of 6.92, 7.10, and 6.95 on a 9-point scale for Student Engagement (SE), Instructional Strategies (IS), and Classroom Management (CM) subscales respectively as it can be seen in Tablo 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Total scores for the TTSES validation study by Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005)

	Mean	α
TSES	6.99	0.93
Instruction	7.10	0.86
Management	6.95	0.84
Engagement	6.92	0.82

A further classification has been defined by Özder (2011) in terms of the three existing subscales within TTSES. The three subtitles have provided a refined understanding of the set of three subscales namely Instruction, Management and

Engagement. Therefore, this classification will be crucial for a better understanding of the data obtained from the results of TTSES. For that reason, the present study has made use of the further classification. Özder (2011) described three subcategories for each of the three subscales given below:

- A. Classroom management
 - a. Management of Negative Student Behaviours
 - b. Student Expectations and Classroom Rules
 - c. Coordination of In-class Activities
- B. Ensuring Student Engagement in Class
 - a. Student Motivation and Things Done for Motivation
 - b. Motivation of Students with Low Achievement
 - c. Ensuring Creative and Critical Thinking
- C. Using Instructional Strategies in Class
 - a. Alternative Strategies for Students' Misconceptions
 - b. Evaluation of What is Taught
 - c. Rendering Classes Suitable for Highly Talented Students

3.4 Data Gathering and Analysis Procedures

3.4.1 Data Gathering Procedure

The study was conducted in the second term of the 2013-2014 academic year. First, the questionnaire has been administered to in-service teachers from three main districts of Antalya, namely Konyaaltı, Kepez and Muratpaşa. The researcher administered the scale herself by visiting English teachers teaching in primary

schools and high schools. The English teachers had been informed about the purpose of the study and the questionnaire had been given to those who had volunteered to contribute to the study. The researcher tried to cover most of the schools in each of the mentioned districts. After that, the instrument had been given to the 4th-year student teachers studying at Akdeniz University; English Language Teaching Department. The researcher had informed the student teachers about the purpose of the study and only volunteer students had participated in the study. The researcher was also present during data collection from student teachers during their 40- minute lesson to be able to help those who wanted to ask something about the items in the questionnaire or those who may have misinterpreted the numerically coded responses.

3.4.2 Data Analysis Procedure

The Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS) 16.0 was used for statistical analysis. The scale was tested using reliability and exploratory factor analysis to evaluate items' strengths. In addition, t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used for comparison and correlation purposes in order to measure the relationship between the variables. The results were considered to have a statistical significance when p values were smaller than 0.05 (Rice, 1989). Descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, percentage and standard deviations were also administered.

3.5 Reliability of the Study

The reliability of a test has been defined as “the extent to which the results can be considered consistent and stable” (Brown, 1988;98). The scale TSES was tested using reliability and exploratory factor analysis to evaluate its strengths by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) who used a popular method of Cronbach’s Alpha for the reliability analysis method and found the Cronbach’s Alpha value for the whole items of scale as 0.94. Similarly, Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005) had also conducted a validity study for the Turkish version of the TSES finding the Cronbach’s Alpha value as 0.93. For both TSES and TTSES, the Cronbach’s Alpha value had been considered high when the values are closer to value 1, which indicates a completely reliable scale (Cronbach, 1951). The Cronbach’s Alpha value for the current sample has been found to be 0,938 for in-service teachers and 0,929 for pre-service teachers. Both alpha values are similar and closer to original alpha values of the scales by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005). Thus, the present sample can also be accepted as reliable for further statistical analysis.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This section of the present study reported the research findings regarding demographics and TTSES results obtained. First the demographic particulars were reported in detail. This was followed by TTSES results, which were elaborated in line with the three subscales mentioned in the previous chapter. Pre-service teachers' TTSES results and in-service teachers' TTSES results were separately discussed first. Later the results were compared in order to obtain a holistic view. To better understand the marked tendencies, some of the items of the TTSES were both independently presented and several points of comparison between the two groups of participants were addressed.

4.1 Findings In Relation To Demographic Information

The present study comprises two main groups of participants that are compared to obtain in-depth information as to how they perceive their teaching practices. For this aim, the following has introduced a more detailed account of participating teachers' demographic specifics.

4.1.1 Pre-service Teachers

Of a hundred and eighty teachers participating in the study, seventy-five are pre-service EFL teachers studying their senior year at Akdeniz University, Education Faculty, and English Language Teaching Department. Though gender has not been defined as a component for consideration for the current study, 26 of 75 pre-service teachers are male and 49 are female as it can be seen in the table below.

Table 4.1 Pre-service teachers' gender distribution

Gender	f	%
Female	49	65.3
Male	26	34.7

The participating pre-service teachers are 21 to 30 years old with an average of 23.8 years. As for their educational background, 38% of them are graduates of Anatolian High School, followed by Foreign Language Intensive High School graduates being 25% and 17% of the pre-service teachers are High School graduates. Lastly, 15% were graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High School. Table 2 below summarizes pre-service teachers' high school education backgrounds.

Table 4.2 Pre-service teachers' high school background

High school of Pre-service Teachers	f	%
Anatolian High School	29	38.2
Anatolian Teacher Training High School	12	15.8
Foreign Language Intensive High School	19	25
High School	13	17
Other High School Type	2	2.6

For their university entrance exam preferences, 52 of 75 (69.4% of all) pre-service teachers have chosen Education Faculty for their first or second choice to study as it is clear from the table 3 below. This finding is a clear indication of high motivation to become an English teacher.

Table 4.3 Pre-service teachers' preference of Education Faculty in University Entrance Exam

Choices	f	%
1 st choice	36	48
2 nd choice	16	21.4
3 rd choice	8	10.6
Other choices	15	20

In order to find out what school level pre-service teachers feel comfortable to teach, the research instrument included a question 'What kind of school would you like to teach?' The responses to this question are thought to gather self-efficacy judgements in relation to contextual factors such as school level. The findings appeared to be pooled around 'primary school' as 45(59%) pre-service teachers wish to teach English in primary schools, 13 (17%) want to teach in high schools and 12 (15%) want to teach at the university level. Others (6%) prefer to teach in private schools as it is clear from the table 4. More than half of the pre-service teachers feel more efficacious about teaching English at primary school level.

Table 4.4 Pre-service teachers' preference for school level they wish to teach

School level	f	%
Primary School	45	59.2
High School	13	17.1
Private school	2	2.6
University	12	15.8
Primary School and High School	2	2.6
Other	1	1.3

Though real teaching experience in Teaching Practice course have been found to have greater impact on pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998), vicarious learning experiences and social persuasion during their teacher preparation programs have a considerable

impact because the observed teaching practices may form a basis for pre-service teachers' efficacy judgements. For this aim the researcher inquired about pre-service teachers' graduate courses they believe they find more useful, the responses have been accumulated around the same courses that are Approaches to Language Teaching, Teaching Basic Language Skills and Teaching Young Children, which are mentioned by nearly all of the participants. These graduate courses have been followed by Material Development, Testing and Educational Psychology. Thus, pre-service teachers appeared to believe that these courses were more resourceful than other courses they took within their teacher preparation program.

4.1.2 In-service Teachers

In-service teachers comprised 105 of all participants of the present study. These teachers have been teaching within a range from 1 to 28 years of experience (mean=10.2, SD=6.7).

Table 4.5 In-service teachers' teaching experience distribution (n=105)

Years	f	%
1 – 5 years	33	31,4
6 – 10 years	27	25,7
11 + years	45	42,9

The in-service teachers ranged in age from 23 to 51 years (mean=33.2, SD=7.4). In-service teachers (n=105) have been found to be overrepresented by female teachers as it is clear from Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 In-service teachers' gender distribution (n=105)

Gender	f	%
Female	84	79.2
Male	21	19.8

The educational background that in-service teachers came from is varying. However, a majority of them (84 out of 105 - 80%) are graduates of Education Faculty ELT department. 17 teachers graduated from English Literature Department and 4 teachers hold different Bachelor's degrees. As for their high school education background, 28% (n=30) of them are graduates of Anatolian High School, followed by Foreign Language Intensive High School graduates being 15% (n=16) and 29% (n= 31) of the in-service teachers are High School graduates. Lastly, 21% (n=22) were graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High School. 6% chose their high school information as 'Other' as it is shown in table 4,7.

Table 4.7 In-service teachers' high school background

High school	f	%
Anatolian High School	30	28.6
Anatolian Teacher Training High School	22	21.0
Foreign Language Intensive High School	16	15.2
High School	31	29.5
Other High School Type	6	5.7

For the university preference ranking, 44% in-service teachers (n=47) chose the Faculty of Education within their first, second and third choices. 50,5% of in-service teachers want to teach in primary schools, 25,7 % prefer teaching English at high school level, 18% at the university level. 2% of in-service teachers wish to teach in private schools and 5% preferred as 'Other'. In-service teachers have been shown to find Educational Psychology (21%) and Teaching Basic Language Skills (24%)

courses at their undergraduate programs beneficial whereas nearly half of the in-service teachers (44%) reported that they did not benefit from any coursework at all while studying.

4.2. Findings of the First Research Question:

The first research question of the present study had been intended to reveal pre-service EFL teachers' and in-service EFL teachers' levels of self-efficacy beliefs about their teaching practices. For this purpose, TTSES had been administered to 180 teachers and their results had been presented separately for in-service teachers and pre-service teachers in the following sections. Besides this, to determine the internal consistency of the scale, the Cronbach' alpha values had been calculated based on the 24 items of the scale and the average inter-item correlation in order to test the reliability of the responses of the given sample. In general, a positive sign for reliability is assumed when each item is deleted from the scale the Cronbach's alpha value decreases as it is the case for both groups of participants for the present study. The alpha values for in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have been provided subsequently in the following tables.

Table 4.8 Descriptive and Reliability Analysis for In-service Teachers' TTSES Beliefs

TTSES ITEMS	Mean	SD	Scale mean if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	5,49	1,61	160,26	,550	,936
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	6,46	1,46	159,29	,535	,936
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	6,83	1,49	158,92	,610	,935
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	6,53	1,39	159,22	,607	,935

5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	7,48	1,12	158,27	,509	,937
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	6,97	1,11	158,78	,579	,936
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	7,79	1,12	157,96	,527	,936
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	7,35	1,12	158,40	,539	,936
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	6,87	1,11	158,88	,521	,936
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	7,37	1,08	158,38	,562	,936
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7,41	1,04	158,34	,475	,937
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	6,98	1,14	158,77	,506	,937
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7,08	1,42	158,67	,617	,935
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	6,48	1,26	159,27	,620	,935
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	7,04	1,43	158,71	,613	,935
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	6,50	1,53	159,25	,798	,932
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	6,42	1,51	159,33	,708	,934
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	6,90	1,33	158,85	,640	,935
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	6,74	1,46	159,01	,648	,935
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	7,41	1,21	158,34	,570	,936
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	6,99	1,73	158,76	,713	,934
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	6,68	1,64	159,07	,659	,935
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	6,92	1,34	158,83	,721	,934
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	6,98	1,58	158,77	,609	,935

Table 4.9 Descriptive and Reliability Analysis for Pre-service Teachers' TTSES Beliefs

TTSES ITEMS	Mean	SD	Scale mean if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	6,33	1,37	160,61	,485	,928
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	6,50	1,24	160,45	,355	,929
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	6,84	1,55	160,11	,620	,925
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	7,08	1,32	159,87	,477	,928
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	7,36	1,24	159,59	,404	,929
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	6,87	1,38	160,08	,510	,927
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	7,05	1,09	159,90	,423	,928
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	7,04	1,26	159,91	,609	,926
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	6,95	1,32	160,00	,563	,926
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	7,38	1,00	159,57	,442	,928
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7,16	1,21	159,78	,488	,928
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	6,81	1,37	160,14	,483	,928
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7,16	1,68	159,78	,719	,924
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	7,04	1,26	159,91	,662	,925
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	7,00	1,57	159,95	,711	,924
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	6,60	1,37	160,35	,746	,923
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	6,76	1,20	160,19	,648	,925
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	6,83	1,43	160,12	,673	,925
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	7,00	1,48	159,95	,724	,924
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	7,26	1,15	159,69	,582	,926
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	6,69	1,78	160,26	,684	,924
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	7,00	1,32	159,95	,533	,927
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	7,01	1,14	159,94	,629	,926
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	7,14	1,36	159,81	,529	,927

The following tables (Table 4.10 and Table 4.11) demonstrate the results of exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis generally refers to a set of statistical calculations to figure out correlations between variables in order to reveal the underlying set of variables that indicate *factors* on a scale. It can be stated that factor analysis summarizes a large dataset into meaningful chunks such as dimensions or subscales that help to explain and analyse the bigger picture presented by the scale in detailed arguments. In order to analyse factors, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy should be considered. The sampling adequacy for the present study was found as ,907. This value is higher than ,070 has a positive indication that the sample can be used for factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2012). As in reliability analysis, factor analysis depends on the correlations between the items that constitute the scale. In other words, if a set of items show a high correlation within each other but they indicate lower correlation with other items in a scale, this means that these set of items constitute an underlying subscale which is called as *factor*.

The present study has employed two types of factor analysis: Principal Component Analysis and Generalized Least Squares and both analyses revealed same Eigenvalues for this scale as indicated in the table 4.10. The three factors as in the original scale have explained 54 % of the variance.

Table 4.10 Eigenvalues of the Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Factors	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1 Efficacy for Instructional Strategies	9,581	39,919	39,919	9,581	39,919	39,919
Factor 2 Efficacy for Classroom Management	2,033	8,472	48,391	2,033	8,472	48,391
Factor 3 Efficacy for Student Engagement	1,487	6,198	54,589	1,487	6,198	54,589

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.11 presents the factor loadings of the scale used in the current sample of the study. Factor loadings indicate the degree of interrelationship between the item and the factor. If an item demonstrates a higher loading onto one factor, that is interpreted as those specific items represent the factor they belong to. Whereas if an item shows a weak loading that is between -0,30 and +0,30, it is interpreted as irrelevant to the factor and it is generally expected that factor loadings are considered high when the loading is 0,60 or higher and if factor loadings are between values 0,30 and 0,59, it is accepted as moderately high and the values are considered acceptable for emerging as factors (Büyüköztürk, 2002).

The factor loadings for the current study revealed one strong factor for the TTSES. This finding is similar to the factor analysis in the original scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) TSES validation study:

Using data from the entire sample in Study 3, principal-axis factoring of the three teacher efficacy subscales (instruction, management and engagement) from the 24-item instrument revealed one strong factor accounting for 75% of the variance; and with the 12-item instrument again one factor emerged, accounting for 68% of the variance. The emergence of this second-order factor and the moderate positive correlations of the three subscales suggested that both the 24 and 12-item scales could be considered to measure the underlying construct of efficacy and that a total score as well as three subscale scores could be calculated. To further examine the appropriateness of calculating a total score for the 24 and 12 items, we conducted a principal-axis factor analysis specifying one factor. All items loaded on this factor, with loadings ranging from 0.49 to 0.76 for the long scale and from 0.49 to 0.75 for the short form. The reliability for the 24-item scale was 0.94 and for the 12-item scale was 0.90. Thus both the subscale scores and the total score for both forms can be used to assess efficacy. However, for preservice teachers, the total score seems to be the most appropriate gauge of efficacy. Subscale scores may have little meaning for prospective teachers who have yet to assume real teaching responsibilities (p.801).

For this reason, pre-service teachers' overall scores have been used for t-test comparisons between in-service teachers and pre-service teachers for the present study.

Table 4.11 Factor Loadings of the Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

TTSES	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1: Instructional Strategies			
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	,489	,259	,435
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	,569	,292	-,103
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	,523	,457	,074
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	,723	,072	-,340
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	,698	,160	-,233
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	,614	,207	,399
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	,725	,217	-,204
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	,625	,068	-,445
Factor 2: Classroom Management			
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	,653	-,409	,130
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	,503	,144	,294
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	,598	,194	,508
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	,697	-,252	,349
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	,689	-,485	,163
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	,812	-,171	-,067
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	,712	-,404	-,164
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	,731	-,400	,150
Factor 3: Student Engagement			
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	,549	-,407	-,243
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	,506	,160	-,020
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	,589	-,069	,006
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	,583	,118	-,130
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	,584	,387	-,032
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	,533	,480	-,065
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	,663	-,253	,010
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	,655	,131	-,262

4.2.1. TTSES Results of In-service Teachers:

The results of TTSES responded by in-service teachers (n=105) in the present study are found to be 6.90 of 9 in the 9-point Likert scale (mean score=6,90 SD= 1,3). This finding is inconsistent with the study of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) whose findings related to experienced teachers' overall self-efficacy score is 7.29 of 9 (mean score=7.29 SD= 0,78). Here it should also be noted that scores range from 1 to 9 and the higher the score, the greater the sense of efficacy.

Table 4.13 Overall scores for the TTSES study with in-service teachers

	Mean	SD	α
TTSES	6.90	1.3	.938

The levels of in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs have been shown to be accumulated around the scores 7, 8 and 9 in the 9-point Likert-type scale. The total score of in-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is 165.6 out of 216 (top score), which shows that in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs have been found to be 76.6%. In other words, in-service teachers participated in the present study have high efficacy beliefs about their teaching practices.

4.2.2. TTSES Results of Pre-service Teachers:

The results of TTSES responded by pre-service teachers (n=75) in the present study are appeared to be 6.98 of 9 in the 9-point Likert scale. This finding means that pre-service teachers in the current sample have high efficacy beliefs about their teaching practices. The results of pre-service teachers' efficacy scores are incompatible with the previous research that focused on pre-service teachers' efficacy by Knoblauch

and Hoy (2008) whose findings of overall efficacy score of pre-service teachers were 6.79 of 9 (mean score= 6.79 SD = 0.99).

Table 4.14 Overall scores for the TTSES study with pre-service teachers

	Mean	SD	α
TTSES	6.98	1.3	.929

The table above indicates the total score of the pre-service teachers participating in the present study. The responses of pre-service teachers' TTSES questionnaire have been compiled on points 7, 8 and 9 in the 9-point scale. Their overall score for the TTSES is 167.60 out of 216 (top score). Thus, pre-service teachers' level of efficacy beliefs is 77.5%, which is relatively high score and conveys that pre-service teachers in the present study have high self-efficacy beliefs about their teaching practices.

The overall TTSES scores of in-service and pre-service teachers have been shown in the table below.

Table 4.15 Overall scores for the TTSES study with pre-service and in-service teachers

	Pre-service teachers (n=75)	In-service teachers (n=105)
TTSES mean	6.98	6.90
TTSES Score	167.6	165.6
TTSES %	77.5	76.6

As it is obvious from the TTSES scores above, pre-service teachers have slightly higher self-efficacy beliefs than those of in-service teachers. However, these findings do not indicate a statistical significance. These findings indicate inconsistent results with other studies with pre-service teachers (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Knoblauch &

Hoy, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). The high score pre-service teachers hold implies the idealistic teaching contexts and environments that the coursebooks suggest during their studies and their limited experience with the classroom realities, which is also suggested by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (1998): ‘the optimism of young teachers may be somewhat tarnished when they are confronted with the realities and complexities of the teaching task’(p.235).

4.2.3 Pre-service and In-service Teachers Comparative TTSES Results

Pre-service and in-service EFL teachers TTSES scores have been compared using T-test statistical analysis. T-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. The following table present descriptive statistics that provide mean values for the two groups of teachers. As it is seen in the table, the mean values are close to each other and they do not fall apart to bring about significant t-test results.

Table 4.16 t-test Descriptive Statistics for Pre-service and In-service Teachers by their TTSES Scores

ITEMS	TEACHERS	N	Mean	sd	Std.error mean
item 1	In-service	105	5,50	1,61	,157
	Pre-service	75	6,33	1,35	,156
item 2	In-service	105	6,46	1,46	,142
	Pre-service	75	6,54	1,24	,143
item 3	In-service	105	6,84	1,49	,145
	Pre-service	75	6,85	1,53	,177
item 4	In-service	105	6,54	1,39	,136
	Pre-service	74	7,09	1,32	,154
item 5	In-service	105	7,48	1,11	,109
	Pre-service	75	7,40	1,20	,142
item 6	In-service	105	6,97	1,11	,108
	Pre-service	75	6,96	1,39	,161
item 7	In-service	105	7,80	1,12	,109
	Pre-service	75	7,06	1,06	,123
item 8	In-service	105	7,36	1,11	,109
	Pre-service	75	7,13	1,29	,149
item 9	In-service	105	6,87	1,10	,108
	Pre-service	75	7,00	1,33	,154
item 10	In-service	105	7,38	1,07	,105
	Pre-service	75	7,41	1,00	,117

item 11	In-service	105	7,41	1,04	,101
	Pre-service	75	7,18	1,19	,137
item 12	In-service	105	6,99	1,13	,111
	Pre-service	75	6,82	1,35	,157
item 13	In-service	105	7,09	1,42	,139
	Pre-service	75	7,14	1,69	,195
item 14	In-service	105	6,48	1,26	,123
	Pre-service	75	7,05	1,26	,145
item 15	In-service	105	7,05	1,42	,139
	Pre-service	75	7,05	1,55	,179
item 16	In-service	105	6,51	1,53	,149
	Pre-service	75	6,64	1,39	,160
item 17	In-service	105	6,42	1,51	,147
	Pre-service	75	6,77	1,22	,141
item 18	In-service	105	6,90	1,32	,129
	Pre-service	75	6,89	1,42	,165
item 19	In-service	105	6,74	1,46	,142
	Pre-service	75	7,02	1,48	,171
item 20	In-service	105	7,41	1,21	,118
	Pre-service	75	7,25	1,20	,139
item 21	In-service	105	7,00	1,73	,169
	Pre-service	75	6,74	1,76	,203
item 22	In-service	105	6,69	1,64	,160
	Pre-service	74	7,01	1,30	,152
item 23	In-service	105	6,92	1,34	,132
	Pre-service	75	7,06	1,15	,133
item 24	In-service	105	6,99	1,58	,154
	Pre-service	75	7,21	1,37	,159

Table 4.17 t -test Results for Pre-service and In-service Teachers by their TTSES Scores

ITEMS	F	sig.	t	df	sig. (2 tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error difference
item 1	4,546	,034	-3,625	178	,000*	-,82	,22
item 2	4,263	,040	-,385	178	,701	-,08	,20
item 3	,021	,884	-,025	178	,980	-,00	,22
item 4	,138	,711	-2,661	177	,009*	-,55	,20
item 5	,578	,448	,486	178	,628	,08	,17
item 6	1,796	,182	,061	178	,951	,01	,18
item 7	3,323	,070	4,409	178	,000*	,73	,16
item 8	,097	,756	1,263	178	,208	,22	,18
item 9	2,609	,108	-,678	178	,498	-,12	,18
item 10	,527	,469	-,238	177	,812	-,03	,15
item 11	,291	,591	1,386	178	,168	,23	,16
item 12	1,601	,207	,887	177	,376	,16	,18
item 13	1,278	,260	-,221	178	,825	-,05	,23
item 14	,254	,615	-2,972	178	,003*	-,56	,19
item 15	,625	,430	,017	178	,986	,00	,22
item 16	1,104	,295	-,564	178	,574	-,12	,22
item 17	1,686	,196	-1,629	178	,105	-,34	,21
item 18	,540	,463	,055	178	,956	,01	,20
item 19	,003	,957	-1,275	178	,204	-,28	,22
item 20	,001	,969	,904	178	,367	,16	,18
item 21	,075	,785	,960	178	,338	,25	,26
item 22	3,601	,059	-1,386	177	,168	-,31	,22
item 23	1,303	,255	-,746	177	,457	-,14	,19
item 24	1,007	,317	-,981	178	,328	-,22	,22
Total	,297	,586	-,480	178	,632	-1,48	3,08

As it is observed in 't' and 'sig. 2-tailed' columns, items 1, 4, 7 and 14 show statistical significance although the total F and t value do not show a statistical difference. This finding can be interpreted as pre-service and in-service teachers in the present study do not differ from each other in terms of their efficacy beliefs. However, in item level, the sample show a statistical difference in the four of the items namely item 1 (How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?), item 4 (How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?), item 7 (How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?), and item 14 (How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?).

4.3 Findings Related To the Subproblems

The findings of the first research question had been addressed above and findings of the subproblems that were comparatively analysed had been discussed elaborately for an in-depth understanding of self-efficacy levels of teachers in instruction, management and engagement.

4.3.1 Self-Efficacy in Instruction

The results of self-efficacy for instruction have been found to be slightly different between the two groups of teachers. As it is seen in the table below, in-service teachers have a score of 7.14 of 9.00. In other words, in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs about instructional strategies are 79.3%. Although the overall findings are provided for the subscales, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) who developed the

TSES state that overall score is more appropriate for pre-service teachers' efficacy measure since subscales may bear little meaning for inexperienced teachers. Thus, the comparisons for in-service and pre-service teachers are based on item level scores for a better understanding of efficacy beliefs of both groups of teachers.

Table 4.18 TTSES subcategory Instruction with in-service teachers

TTSES subcategory	In-service teachers
Instruction	7.14
TTSES Score	57.1 of 72
TTSES %	79.3

The Table 4.19 provides an item-level comparison based on the classification Özder (2011). In examining the self-efficacy levels of pre-service and in-service teachers, it is found that the assessment of in-service teachers' instructional strategies has been higher than that of pre-service teachers. This is a consistent result with the previous study by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007). This finding can be related to the limited amount of teaching experience of pre-service teachers compared to in-service teachers. Thus, pre-service teachers still have a blurred feeling of adequacy in their teaching skills when it comes to teaching in a real classroom environment although they have completed the course Teaching Practice. Therefore, it is fairly understandable for in-service teachers to have higher judgements of their efficacy in instructional skills given the teaching experience they have so far provided them with more opportunities to challenge their teaching skills within various teaching contexts and diverse learner groups.

Table 4.19 TTSES subcategory Instruction with in-service and pre-service teachers

Self-Efficacy for Instruction Item Analysis			
	Student Misconceptions (Items 7, 20)	Evaluation of What is Taught (Items 10,11,18)	Talented Students (Items 17, 23,24)
Pre-service Teachers	7.15	7.16	7.01
In-service Teachers	7.60	7.22	6.77

As it appears from a more refined examination of the item analysis of the two groups of teachers in terms of their instructional strategies, interesting details have been revealed. Within subclassification of TTSES items defined by Özder (2011), item 7 “How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?” and item 20 “To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?” correspond to Alternative Strategies for Student Misconceptions. As indicated in the table, there is a difference between pre-service and in-service teachers’ efficacy perceptions. These findings point out that in-service teachers feel more efficacious for their instructional skills when their students ask difficult questions or need more explicit examples related to the subject matter. For pre-service teachers, this finding indicates that the limited time in the classroom setting and teaching experience may not give them adequate mastery experiences to establish strong self-efficacy beliefs for clarification skills within their instructional strategies repertoire. Another possible explanation for the lower efficacy level of pre-service teachers is that their undergraduate programs may have failed to give them enough opportunities where they can practise, master or refine those skills.

In addition to student misconceptions, in-service teachers also have noticeably higher efficacy beliefs than pre-service teachers in items 10, 11, 18. These items are related

to the evaluation of what is taught. The teaching experience that in-service teachers have may help them to apply a variety of testing techniques and methods of assessment in such an intensive way that in-service teachers feel more efficacious in testing and crafting questions than pre-service teachers who have fewer mastery experiences for both teaching and testing of what has been taught.

Pre-service teachers outscored in-service teachers in their responses to items 17, 18, and 24 that entail rendering classes suitable for highly talented students. Pre-service teachers believe in their efficacy that they can adjust their lessons to the proper level for individual students and provide appropriate challenges for very capable students. This may stem from the fact that pre-service teachers are exposed to the idealistic teaching environment the coursebooks represent. Lower scores of in-service teachers may be related to the time constraints of lessons as they have to keep up with the plans and crowded classroom population.

4.3.2 Self-Efficacy in Management

Pre-service and in-service teachers are compared in item-level to assess their self-efficacy judgements related to classroom management in order to find out whether there appear to be any differences between the two groups. The table below represents in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs in relation to classroom management.

Table 4.20 TTSES subcategory Management with in-service teachers

TTSES subcategory	In-service teachers
Management	7.00
TTSES Score	56 of 72
TTSES %	77.7

As it is seen in the table, in-service teachers have scored 7.00 out of 9.00 for their efficacy beliefs in terms of classroom management. A detailed look at the items that comprise classroom management efficacy subscale will provide a better understanding.

Table 4.21 TTSES subcategory Management with in-service and pre-service teachers

Self-Efficacy for Management Item Analysis			
	Negative Behaviour (Items 3,15,19,21)	Classroom Rules (Items 5, 13)	In-class Activities (Items 8, 16)
Pre-service Teachers	6.91	7.27	6.88
In-service Teachers	6.90	7.28	6.92

For the items related to management of negative student behaviour (3, 15, 19, 21) and classroom rules and expectations (5, 13), the difference is not striking. The efficacy scores are nearly alike with a 0.01 change.

However, there is a difference in the mean scores when items 8 and 16 are considered that correspond to the coordination of in-class activities. In-service teachers have higher self-efficacy beliefs than pre-service teachers in establishing a classroom management system with their students and in establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly in their classroom.

4.3.3 Self-Efficacy in Engagement

Student engagement efficacy perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers have compared to achieve a detailed understanding.

Table 4.22 TTSES subcategory Engagement with in-service teachers

TTSES subcategory	In-service teachers
Engagement	6.56
TTSES Score	52.4 of 72
TTSES %	72.7

As it is obvious from the table above, self-efficacy levels of in-service teachers are 6.56 out of 9.00 for their student engagement self-efficacy perceptions. When compared to other efficacy studies dealing with in-service teachers, student engagement efficacy appears to have a marked negative tendency as it is found in the previous studies (Chacon, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Ozder, 2011). An explanation might be that the field of teaching has only recently begun to emphasize the importance of student engagement and to develop strategies to achieve student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). A second explanation may be that engaging students while coordinating in-class activities, organizing instruction and managing student group requires a more developmentally advanced stage of teaching. Thus, the concern of instruction and management frequently dominate in-service teachers' time and thoughts (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). A third explanation for lower efficacy level of in-service teachers might be that due to the inadequacy of student engagement skills or strategies, teachers are almost always left to their own creativity and personality traits to enhance students' engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

Further analysis of the items for student engagement subscale has provided a more clarified picture to pre-service and in-service teachers' efficacy judgements.

Table 4.23 TTSES subcategory Engagement with in-service and pre-service teachers

Self-Efficacy for Engagement Item Analysis			
	Student Motivation (Items 6,9,22)	Low Achievement (Items 1,4,14)	Creative and Critical Thinking(Items 2,12)
Pre-service Teachers	6.99	6.82	6.68
In-service Teachers	6.83	6.18	6.73

There is a difference in mean scores in items 1, 4, 14 that entail motivating low achieving students. Pre-service teachers have fairly high self-efficacy beliefs than in-service teachers in motivating failing students than in-service teachers. Similarly, items 6, 9, and 22 involve motivating student group in general and pre-service teachers believe that they foster motivation in their teaching more than in-service teachers. Since pre-service teachers in the present study have inadequate mastery experiences for teaching, it might be said that their self-efficacy construct has been affected by the idealistic learning contexts represented in the coursebooks provided by their undergraduate programs.

Contrarily, in-service teachers have a higher score of efficacy in items 2 and 22 that reflect nurturing creative and critical thinking. This might result from their experience with diverse groups of students they have encountered or in-service teachers have received a professional development training that equipped them with the relevant strategies for helping students think critically. For pre-service teachers, teacher training programs may not emphasize critical thinking strategies or strategies that nurture student creativity that they should apply when they start teaching.

In conclusion, a summary of whole findings has been presented in the tables below in order to see the whole picture obtained through TTSES findings. For this aim,

findings of in-service teachers along with their subscale scores have been given below.

Table 4.24 Overall scores for the TTSES study with in-service teachers n=105

	Mean	SD	α
TTSES	6.90	1.3	.938
Instruction	7.14	1.2	.887
Management	7.00	1.4	.862
Engagement	6.56	1.3	.831

As seen in the table, in-service teachers (n: 105) have a 6.90 of 9.00 overall TTSES score, which is fairly high. The total score is 165.60 of 216, which corresponds to 76.6 %. For the subscales, in-service teachers' self-efficacy for instruction stands out among others with a score of 7.14 of 9.00. Additionally in-service teachers have relatively higher efficacy beliefs for classroom management with a score of 7.00 of 9.00. As for efficacy beliefs for student engagement, on the other hand, in-service teachers have the lowest score, which is 6.56 of 9.00.

Although in-service teachers have a lower overall score of TTSES than pre-service teachers, it appears from subscales that in-service teachers have slightly higher efficacy judgements for instruction and classroom management than those of pre-service teachers', the finding which is consistent with Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007). For a positive change in in-service teachers' efficacy perceptions, Bandura (1997) warns that "compelling feedback that forcefully disputes the pre-existing disbeliefs in one's capabilities" is required since experienced teachers are accepted to have an established efficacy belief system (p.82). Even if experienced teachers are exposed to seminars and workshops in the form of in-service training, their efficacy

beliefs appear to increase following the training but the increase disappears after some time and their efficacy judgements return to their previous status (Ross, 1994).

Pre-service teachers' overall scores of TTSES have been presented in the table below.

Table 4.25 Overall scores for the TTSES study with pre-service teachers (n=75)

	Mean	SD	α
TTSES	6.98	1.3	.929

Pre-service teachers' overall score is 6.98 that is equal to 167.60 of 216 (top score) and this score corresponds to 77.5%. Though pre-service teachers have higher overall TTSES score (6.98) than in-service teachers, their efficacy perceptions in instruction and management appear to be lower than those of in-service teachers'. This might be due to the fact that pre-service teachers have relatively fewer mastery experiences for teaching English in a real classroom atmosphere. At this point, teacher preparation programs need to give pre-service teachers more opportunities to improve their mastery experiences in teaching skills. One suggestion for this is from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (1998), which implies that teacher candidates should be exposed to the complex tasks of teaching broken down into manageable elements or subskills and candidate teachers should be allowed to develop each set of subskills at a time to enhance and encourage efficacy perceptions. Pre-service teachers should also be exposed to students in a variety of school settings and contexts and teaching tasks given to teacher candidates should be planned in a gradual complexity and challenge. This whole exposure should also be accompanied by specific feedback from teacher trainers, which is called an 'apprenticeship approach' by Tschannen-

Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998). Another practical suggestion to teacher preparation programs may be assigning pre-service teachers to smaller classes with more capable students may also encourage efficacy (Tschannen –Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

In conclusion, pre-service teachers have higher overall teaching efficacy beliefs than in-service teachers. However, in-service teachers appear to have higher efficacy perceptions for instructional strategies and classroom management than pre-service teachers'. In addition, student engagement efficacy has been found to be higher for pre-service teachers although there appears to be a negative trend for both groups of teachers.

4.4 Findings Related To the Second Research Question

The second research question has been addressed to the differences between pre-service EFL teachers' and in-service EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs. For this purpose, TTSES items for student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies efficacy judgements of pre-service and in-service teachers have been compared item by item.

Besides this, ANOVA statistics are performed in order to examine pre-service and in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs in relation to their high school background in detail. For in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs, their teaching experience is also examined in order to see whether their efficacy beliefs differ in years of teaching. To achieve this, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical procedure have been used to determine whether the differences in sample means are greater than they are acceptable by chance (Anderson, et al., 2007).

4.4.1. Pre-service Teachers' High School Background and Self-efficacy Beliefs

Analysis of Variance results for pre-service teachers' high school types and their self-efficacy scores have revealed two items which are items 18 and 24 to have a statistical difference between pre-service teachers from different high school types. Item 18 entails "How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?" and it received the lowest efficacy score (5,75) from pre-service teachers who graduated from Anatolian Teacher Training High School. Item 24 that corresponds to "How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?" has also received the lowest score (6,33) from Anatolian Teacher Training High School graduates.

4.4.2. In-service Teachers' Teaching Experience and Self-efficacy Beliefs

In-service teachers' self-efficacy levels do not change in relation to their teaching experience. Although teachers with 6 to 10 years of teaching experience have slightly higher self-efficacy score than those with 1 to 5 years of experience and those who have been teaching for 11 or more years , by looking at the F value and sig. value from ANOVA results, it can be assumed that there is not an observable difference between experienced teachers and less experienced teachers in terms of years they spent in teaching profession This finding confirms Bandura's (1995) claim that age does not correlate with efficacy since people vary in how they manage their lives. It can be inferred from his statement that years teachers invest for teaching depend more on how teachers shape the route of their teaching profession.

4.4.3. In-service Teachers' High School Background and Self-efficacy Beliefs

Items 9, 15, 16, 17 and 24 have statistical significance and difference between in-service teachers from different high school types. Item 9 that correspond to “How much can you do to help your students value learning?” received the lowest score from the ‘other type of high school’ graduates who have 6,16 efficacy score. Item 15 “How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?”, item 16 “How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?” and item 17 “How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?” received the lowest efficacy scores from Anatolian high school graduates respectively 6,50; 5,76 and 5,80. Item 24 “How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?” has received the lowest efficacy score from Anatolian Teacher Training High School graduates, which is 6,27.

Table 4.26 Descriptive Statistics for Pre-service Teachers' High School Background and Efficacy

TTSES ITEMS	Anatolian High School		Anatolian Teacher Training High School		High School		Foreign Language Intensive High School		Other High School Type		Total	
	n=29		n=12		n=13		n=19		n=2		N=75	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	6,44	1,21	5,66	2,01	6,61	1,12	6,31	1,20	7,00	1,41	6,33	1,35
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	6,31	1,39	6,83	1,26	6,15	1,40	6,94	0,77	7,00	0,00	6,54	1,24
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	7,03	1,63	6,00	1,80	7,00	0,91	7,05	1,54	6,50	0,70	6,85	1,53
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	7,19	1,29	7,16	1,46	7,23	1,01	6,88	1,60	7,50	0,70	7,09	1,32
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	7,65	1,28	7,33	1,37	7,30	1,25	7,15	1,06	7,00	1,41	7,40	1,23
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	6,96	0,90	6,58	2,35	7,23	1,16	7,00	1,52	7,00	0,00	6,96	1,39
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	6,93	1,09	6,91	1,16	7,61	0,86	7,10	0,99	6,00	1,41	7,06	1,06
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	6,96	1,34	7,41	1,31	7,69	1,10	7,00	1,24	5,50	0,70	7,13	1,29
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	7,00	1,22	6,66	2,05	7,46	1,12	6,84	1,11	7,50	0,70	7,00	1,33
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	7,41	0,94	7,16	1,26	7,53	0,96	7,33	0,90	9,00	0,00	7,41	1,00
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7,24	1,27	6,66	1,30	7,07	1,44	7,36	0,68	8,50	0,70	7,18	1,19
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	6,58	1,37	6,36	1,68	7,15	1,40	7,21	1,08	7,00	0,00	6,82	1,35
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7,03	2,06	6,50	1,50	7,84	1,14	7,47	1,07	5,00	2,82	7,14	1,69

14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	7,06	1,41	6,58	1,37	7,15	0,98	7,47	0,84	5,00	1,41	7,05	1,26
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	7,10	1,56	6,41	2,19	7,23	1,16	7,26	1,36	7,00	1,41	7,05	1,55
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	6,55	1,29	6,25	2,00	6,92	1,03	6,68	1,29	8,00	1,41	6,64	1,39
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	6,79	1,20	6,16	1,40	6,76	1,16	6,94	1,07	8,50	0,70	6,77	1,22
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	6,93	1,27	5,75	2,22	7,15	1,06	7,31	0,94	7,50	0,70	6,89	1,42
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	7,17	1,31	5,91	2,10	7,53	1,05	7,15	1,21	7,00	2,82	7,02	1,48
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	7,24	1,15	7,33	1,07	7,61	1,12	7,10	1,44	6,00	0,00	7,25	1,20
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	6,86	2,01	6,25	2,22	7,23	1,23	6,78	1,13	4,50	2,12	6,74	1,76
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	6,89	1,34	6,36	1,56	7,38	1,38	7,31	0,94	7,00	1,41	7,01	1,30
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	7,03	1,20	6,75	1,28	7,46	1,05	7,00	1,10	7,50	0,70	7,06	1,15
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	7,17	1,28	6,33	2,10	7,84	0,98	7,26	0,93	8,50	0,70	7,21	1,37

Table 4.27 ANOVA Results for Pre-service Teachers' High School Background and Efficacy

ITEMS		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 1	Between Groups	7,645	4	1,911	1,037	,394
	Within Groups	129,021	70	1,843		
	Total	136,667	74			
Item 2	Between Groups	8,073	4	2,018	1,326	,269
	Within Groups	106,513	70	1,522		
	Total	114,587	74			
Item 3	Between Groups	10,974	4	2,743	1,168	,332
	Within Groups	164,413	70	2,349		
	Total	175,387	74			
Item 4	Between Groups	1,396	4	,349	,190	,943
	Within Groups	126,942	69	1,840		
	Total	128,338	73			
Item 5	Between Groups	3,486	4	,872	,562	,691
	Within Groups	108,514	70	1,550		
	Total	112,000	74			
Item 6	Between Groups	2,690	4	,673	,331	,856
	Within Groups	142,190	70	2,031		
	Total	144,880	74			
Item 7	Between Groups	7,022	4	1,755	1,583	,189
	Within Groups	77,645	70	1,109		
	Total	84,667	74			
Item 8	Between Groups	11,515	4	2,879	1,781	,142
	Within Groups	113,151	70	1,616		
	Total	124,667	74			
Item 9	Between Groups	5,076	4	1,269	,700	,595
	Within Groups	126,924	70	1,813		
	Total	132,000	74			
Item 10	Between Groups	6,082	4	1,520	1,544	,199
	Within Groups	67,932	69	,985		
	Total	74,014	73			
Item 11	Between Groups	7,566	4	1,891	1,353	,259
	Within Groups	97,821	70	1,397		
	Total	105,387	74			
Item 12	Between Groups	8,286	4	2,072	1,131	,349
	Within Groups	126,430	69	1,832		
	Total	134,716	73			
Item 13	Between Groups	22,992	4	5,748	2,136	,085
	Within Groups	188,395	70	2,691		
	Total	211,387	74			
Item 14	Between Groups	14,579	4	3,645	2,472	,052
	Within Groups	103,208	70	1,474		
	Total	117,787	74			
Item 15	Between Groups	6,188	4	1,547	,624	,647
	Within Groups	173,598	70	2,480		
	Total	179,787	74			
Item 16	Between Groups	6,829	4	1,707	,876	,483
	Within Groups	136,451	70	1,949		
	Total	143,280	74			
Item 17	Between Groups	10,966	4	2,742	1,916	,117
	Within Groups	100,180	70	1,431		
	Total	111,147	74			
Item 18	Between Groups	20,737	4	5,184	2,783	,033*
	Within Groups	130,410	70	1,863		
	Total	151,147	74			
Item 19	Between Groups	19,135	4	4,784	2,312	,066

	Within Groups	144,812	70	2,069		
	Total	163,947	74			
Item 20	Between Groups	5,343	4	1,336	,909	,463
	Within Groups	102,843	70	1,469		
	Total	108,187	74			
Item 21	Between Groups	16,523	4	4,131	1,353	,259
	Within Groups	213,664	70	3,052		
	Total	230,187	74			
Item 22	Between Groups	8,569	4	2,142	1,270	,290
	Within Groups	116,417	69	1,687		
	Total	124,986	73			
Item 23	Between Groups	3,720	4	,930	,686	,604
	Within Groups	94,946	70	1,356		
	Total	98,667	74			
Item 24	Between Groups	17,906	4	4,476	2,554	,046*
	Within Groups	122,681	70	1,753		
	Total	140,587	74			

Table 4.28 Descriptive Statistics for In-service Teachers' Teaching Experience and Efficacy

Years	95% Confidence Interval for Mean							
	n	mean	sd	std. error	Lower bound	Upper bound	Min.	Max.
1 – 5 years	33	161,55	18,61	3,24	154,94	168,14	129,00	195,00
6 – 10 years	27	170,67	21,69	4,17	162,02	179,25	119,00	203,00
11 + years	45	166,09	21,81	3,25	159,53	172,64	100,00	210,00
Total	105	165,84	20,92	2,04	161,78	169,88	100,00	210,00

Table 4.29 ANOVA Results for In-service Teachers' Teaching Experience and Efficacy

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1240,421	2	620,211	1,429	,244
Within Groups	44275,826	102	434,077		
Total	45516,248	104			

Table 4.30 Descriptive Statistics for In-service Teachers' High School Background and Efficacy

TTSES ITEMS	Anatolian High School		Anatolian Teacher Training High School		High School		Foreign Language Intensive High School		Other High School Type		Total	
	n=30		n=22		n=31		n=16		n=6		N=105	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	5,16	1,66	5,31	1,88	5,93	1,36	5,43	1,71	5,83	0,98	5,50	1,61
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	6,40	1,49	6,09	1,87	6,80	1,19	6,43	1,20	6,50	1,51	6,46	1,46
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	6,56	1,27	6,68	1,91	6,93	1,43	7,43	1,03	6,83	2,04	6,84	1,49
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	6,40	1,22	6,27	1,54	6,67	1,44	6,81	1,47	6,83	1,32	6,54	1,39
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	7,40	0,93	7,40	1,00	7,54	1,36	7,75	0,93	7,16	1,60	7,48	1,11
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	6,93	1,17	6,59	1,40	7,12	0,80	7,31	0,87	6,83	1,47	6,97	1,11
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	7,53	1,00	7,68	1,28	8,03	1,16	8,00	0,89	7,83	1,32	7,80	1,12
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	6,90	1,34	7,54	0,96	7,61	0,91	7,56	0,89	7,16	1,47	7,36	1,11
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	6,80	0,96	6,45	1,29	7,29	0,78	7,06	1,18	6,16	1,60	6,87	1,10
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	7,03	1,21	7,31	1,12	7,74	0,81	7,62	0,80	6,83	1,47	7,38	1,07
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7,13	1,07	7,40	1,22	7,51	0,81	7,81	0,83	7,33	1,63	7,41	1,04
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	6,86	1,13	6,77	1,50	7,29	0,93	7,12	0,88	6,50	1,04	6,99	1,13

13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	6,66	1,32	6,81	1,94	7,51	1,20	7,50	0,96	7,00	1,26	7,09	1,42
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	6,13	1,40	6,45	1,33	6,70	1,21	6,81	1,04	6,33	0,81	6,48	1,26
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	6,50	1,57	6,86	1,69	7,41	1,11	7,75	0,85	6,83	1,32	7,04	1,42
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	5,76	1,38	6,31	1,78	7,22	1,30	7,06	1,23	5,83	1,16	6,51	1,53
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	5,80	1,37	6,18	1,86	7,00	1,34	6,93	1,12	6,16	1,32	6,42	1,51
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	6,53	1,50	6,63	1,39	7,41	0,92	7,12	1,08	6,50	1,87	6,90	1,32
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	6,66	1,42	6,27	1,80	7,22	1,28	6,87	1,02	6,00	1,67	6,74	1,46
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	7,03	1,40	7,31	1,04	7,83	1,03	7,62	0,88	7,00	1,89	7,41	1,21
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	6,76	1,38	6,63	2,23	7,54	1,36	7,18	1,64	6,16	2,71	7,00	1,73
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	6,46	1,38	6,00	2,02	7,29	1,46	6,93	1,34	6,66	2,16	6,69	1,64
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	6,66	1,47	6,61	1,20	7,41	1,08	7,12	1,31	6,16	1,94	6,92	1,34
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	6,66	1,94	6,27	1,72	7,67	1,19	7,56	1,31	6,16	1,60	6,99	1,58

Table 4.31 ANOVA Results for In-service Teachers' High School Background and Efficacy

ITEMS	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 1 Between Groups	10,666	4	2,667	1,027	,397
Within Groups	259,581	100	2,596		
Total	270,248	104			
Item 2 Between Groups	6,839	4	1,710	,794	,532
Within Groups	215,294	100	2,153		
Total	222,133	104			
Item 3 Between Groups	8,781	4	2,195	,985	,419
Within Groups	222,781	100	2,228		
Total	231,562	104			
Item 4 Between Groups	4,448	4	1,112	,563	,690
Within Groups	197,609	100	1,976		
Total	202,057	104			
Item 5 Between Groups	2,200	4	,550	,430	,787
Within Groups	128,029	100	1,280		
Total	130,229	104			
Item 6 Between Groups	5,975	4	1,494	1,215	,309
Within Groups	122,940	100	1,229		
Total	128,914	104			
Item 7 Between Groups	4,760	4	1,190	,944	,442
Within Groups	126,040	100	1,260		
Total	130,800	104			
Item 8 Between Groups	9,967	4	2,492	2,072	,090
Within Groups	120,280	100	1,203		
Total	130,248	104			
Item 9 Between Groups	12,978	4	3,245	2,836	,028*
Within Groups	114,412	100	1,144		
Total	127,390	104			
Item 10 Between Groups	10,504	4	2,626	2,382	,057
Within Groups	110,258	100	1,103		
Total	120,762	104			
Item 11 Between Groups	5,264	4	1,316	1,215	,309
Within Groups	108,298	100	1,083		
Total	113,562	104			
Item 12 Between Groups	6,023	4	1,506	1,168	,330
Within Groups	128,967	100	1,290		
Total	134,990	104			
Item 13 Between Groups	15,336	4	3,842	1,963	,106
Within Groups	195,681	100	1,957		
Total	211,048	104			
Item 14 Between Groups	7,149	4	1,787	1,124	,350
Within Groups	159,079	100	1,591		
Total	166,229	104			
Item 15 Between Groups	22,185	4	5,546	2,927	,025*
Within Groups	189,473	100	1,895		
Total	211,657	104			
Item 16 Between Groups	40,899	4	10,225	5,029	,001*
Within Groups	203,330	100	2,033		
Total	244,229	104			
Item 17 Between Groups	27,871	4	6,968	3,320	,013*
Within Groups	209,844	100	2,098		
Total	237,714	104			
Item 18 Between Groups	15,692	4	3,923	2,344	,060
Within Groups	167,356	100	1,674		
Total	183,048	104			
Item 19 Between Groups	15,857	4	3,964	1,923	,112
Within Groups	206,200	100	2,062		

	Total	222,057	104			
Item 20	Between Groups	11,879	4	2,970	2,096	,087
	Within Groups	141,683	100	1,417		
	Total	153,562	104			
Item 21	Between Groups	18,594	4	4,649	1,584	,184
	Within Groups	293,406	100	2,934		
	Total	312,000	104			
Item 22	Between Groups	24,123	4	6,031	2,355	,059
	Within Groups	256,125	100	2,561		
	Total	280,248	104			
Item 23	Between Groups	15,634	4	3,908	2,253	,069
	Within Groups	171,751	99	1,735		
	Total	187,385	103			
Item 24	Between Groups	38,415	4	9,604	4,315	,003*
	Within Groups	222,575	100	2,226		
	Total	260,990	104			

4.4.4 Findings for Student Engagement Items

Student engagement items of TTSES have been further grouped by Özder (2011) in terms of broad subtitles. These are ‘student motivation and things done for motivation (items 6, 9, 22)’, ‘motivation of students with low achievement (items 1, 4, 14)’ and ‘ensuring creative and critical thinking (items 2, 12)’. The findings of the items are provided in the table below.

Table 4.32 Pre-service and in-service teachers’ responses for student engagement items

		Student Engagement Items	In-service Teachers Mean	Pre-service Teachers Mean	T-test results	
					F	sig. (2 tailed)
Failure		1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	5.50	6.33	4,546	,000*
		4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	6.54	7.09	,138	,009*
		14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	6.48	7.05	,254	,003*
Motivation		6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	6.97	6.96	1,796	,951
		9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	6.87	7.00	2,609	,498
		22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	6.69	7.01	3,601	,168
Creativity		2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	6.46	6.54	4,263	,701
		12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	6.99	6.82	1,601	,376

As it is shown in the table above, both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have lower self-efficacy beliefs towards the same items e.g. item 1, 4 and 14. T-test statistics confirms that there is a statistically meaningful difference between in-service and pre-service teachers in these items. Item 1 is related to the student motivation especially when students display challenging behaviour. Thus, both groups of teachers indicated lower self-efficacy when they needed to deal with difficult students. In addition, both in-service and pre-service teachers had shown marked negative self-efficacy beliefs towards motivating students who are indifferent to learning and improving the understanding of a student who is failing. These findings point to an emerging pattern. Both groups of teachers feel less efficacious when there are problems about students' motivation towards learning. The shared responses seemed to be corresponding to both ends of teaching; one is correcting negative behaviour and keeping classroom peaceful and smooth and, the other is nurturing positive thinking skills.

For the higher scored items, in-service teachers believe in their efficacy to foster student creativity. Pre-service teachers, on the other hand, have higher efficacy for motivating students who show low interest in school work.

4.4.5 Findings for Classroom Management

Classroom management items of TTSES have been divided into broader subtitles by Özder (2011). The items 3, 15, 19, 21 correspond to 'management of negative student behaviours'. Items 5 and 13 are related to 'student expectations and classroom rules'. Lastly items 8 and 16 are about 'coordination of in-class activities'.

Table 7 demonstrates responses of pre-service and in-service teachers for each of the items in relation to subtitles described above.

Table 4.33 Pre-service and in-service teachers' responses for classroom management items

Classroom Management Items		In-service Teachers Mean	Pre-service Teachers Mean	F	T-test Results sig. (2 tailed)
Negative Behaviour	3. How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?	6.84	6.85	,021	,980
	15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	7.05	7.05	,625	,986
	19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	6.74	7.02	,003	,204
Classroom Rules	21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	7.00	6.74	,075	,338
	5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	7.48	7.40	,578	,628
Activities	13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7.09	7.14	1,278	,825
	8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	7.36	7.13	,097	,208
	16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	6.51	6.64	1,104	,574

T-test results for classroom management items have shown that there is not any statistically meaningful difference between pre-service and in-service teachers. However, mean scores of pre-service and in-service teachers may be used to explain the variance between them. For instance, both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers appeared to have strongest efficacy beliefs in item 5, which stands for 'to what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviour? '. In other words, both groups of teachers feel highly efficacious that they can express themselves clearly about what they expect from their students. On the other hand, establishing a classroom management system (item 16) has received the lowest

scores from both pre-service and in-service teachers among all 8 items of classroom management efficacy. What may be inferred from this finding is that although in-service teachers have 0.13 point higher score than pre-service teachers; both groups of teachers still seem to find it difficult to establish a classroom management system and they appear to have a vague idea of how they might establish and prolong a classroom management system. In short, item 5 has a positive trend whereas item 16 has a negative trend for both teacher groups in terms of their efficacy perceptions.

Besides this, in-service teachers appear to have negative efficacy beliefs for preventing problematic students from ruining the entire lesson in item 19. Similarly, pre-service teachers seem to feel less efficacious in their responses to defiant students who are disrespectful and misbehaving in item 21. These findings point to the fact that both teachers groups find it hard to get through to difficult students with problematic behaviour. As it appears, they may feel that they do not have adequate skills and strategies to use when they are confronted by those types of students or they may not be well equipped with the relevant knowledge within their teacher preparation program. When this is the case, these teachers are often left to their own personality traits to cope with difficult students.

4.4.6 Findings for Instructional Strategies

Items for instructional strategies of TTSES have been further classified by Özder (2011) in terms of broad subtitles. ‘Evaluation of what is taught’ refers to items 10, 11, and 18. Besides this, items 17, 23 and 24 correspond to ‘rendering classes suitable for highly talented students’. For the last subcategory ‘alternative strategies

for students' misconceptions', the items are 7 and 20. The answers of in-service and pre-service teachers have been shown in detail in the following table.

Table 4.34 Pre-service and in-service teachers' responses for instructional strategies items

Instructional Strategies Items		In-service Teachers mean	Pre-service Teachers mean	T-test Results	
				F	sig. (2 tailed)
Evaluation	10.How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	7.38	7.41	,527	,812
	11.To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7.41	7.18	,291	,168
	18.How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	6.90	6.89	,540	,956
Talented Students	17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	6.42	6.77	1,686	,105
	23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	6.92	7.06	1,303	,457
	24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	6.99	7.21	1,007	,328
Misconceptions	7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	7.80	7.06	3,323	,000*
	20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	7.41	7.25	,001	,367

For instructional strategies, pre-service teachers have the highest efficacy score (7.41) for item 10 that is related to the evaluation of what is taught. Pre-service teachers have enhanced efficacy for measuring comprehension of what they have taught. For the same item, in-service teachers have a similar score (7.38). Besides this, for using a variety of assessment strategies, both teacher groups have similar scores (6.89 - 6,90). Both in-service and pre-service teachers have strong efficacy judgements for testing of what is taught. However, in-service teachers have the highest score (7.80) for item 7 that entails responding to difficult questions from students. In other words, in-service teachers have the highest efficacy beliefs for

answering difficult questions from their students. Pre-service teachers, on the other hand, have a shakier sense of self-efficacy judgements for answering the difficult questions from students. The scores of teachers for item 7 has a statistically meaningful difference and it can be interpreted as pre-service teachers feel less efficacious about answering difficult questions from their students. This may stem from the fact that pre-service teachers have fewer mastery experiences in a real classroom setting. In addition to this, in-service teachers seem to feel dubious that they can adjust their lessons to the proper level for individual students. In the same manner, pre-service teachers have a lower sense of efficacy for the same item though their score is slightly higher than in-service teachers.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

5.0 Introduction

This part of the study addressed general conclusions based on the findings presented thoroughly in the previous section while indicating to the purpose of the study. The significance of the study for the context it was carried out and the implications drawn out of the study were outlined. In addition, the challenges confronted throughout the study were explained briefly and on the basis of these challenges, recommendations for future research were explained lastly.

5.1 Conclusion

The main purpose of the present study was to identify EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. For this aim, a questionnaire had been administered to 105 in-service EFL teachers and 75 pre-service EFL teachers. The analysis of gathered data had been obtained through statistical analysis calculations. Secondly, demographics of participants and self-efficacy beliefs reflected through TTSES were analysed. In addition, TTSES responses of in-service teachers and pre-service teachers had been compared within item level in terms of subcategories of the scale; namely instruction, engagement and management.

Analysis of data indicated that although pre-service teachers (mean=6.98) have higher overall self-efficacy scores than in-service teachers (mean=6.90), this is not a statistically meaningful difference. In other words, the present study revealed that for the current sample, self-efficacy beliefs do not differ significantly. This finding is inconsistent with the previous studies with in-service teachers such as Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) who found that experienced teachers have higher self-efficacy scores than novices. However, a detailed item-level examination of the subcategories which are instruction, management and engagement showed contradictory results when compared to the overall scores of efficacy. For instance, in self-efficacy beliefs for instructional strategies, in-service teachers whose mastery experience of teaching is ample outscored pre-service teachers. On the other hand, for student engagement self-efficacy beliefs, pre-service teachers had significantly higher results than in-service teachers especially in items 1,4 and 14. Classroom management self-efficacy scores had been found to be nearly equal between the two groups.

The further analysis of findings in item level pointed out strong and weak tendencies for efficacy beliefs of in-service and pre-service teachers. In-service teachers had been shown to possess stronger tendency of efficacy in responding to difficult questions of students within student misconceptions subcategory in efficacy beliefs related to instructional strategies. In classroom management efficacy beliefs, it was revealed that in-service teachers have the highest score in making their expectations clear to their students about their behaviour. Besides, in-service teachers' responses to fostering student creativity had been positively marked in student engagement subcategory.

As for in-service teachers' weak tendencies that refer to relatively lower efficacy beliefs, adjusting lessons to the proper level for individual students poses a challenge for experienced teachers. This is followed by using a variety of assessment techniques in instructional strategies. For classroom management, in-service teachers frequently associate dealing with the negative behaviour of students with lower self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, in-service teachers seemed to find it difficult to establish classroom management system with each group of learners. Thirdly, most challenging student engagement items have been found to be getting through to problem students and helping learners build critical thinking skills.

Both pre-service and in-service teachers' responses have been further analysed and it revealed similar findings especially the negatively marked items seemed to carry nearly the same level of challenge to both pre-service and in-service teachers. For instance, in the instruction subcategory, pre-service teachers found it hard to adjust lessons to the proper level for individual students and using a variety of assessment techniques which were the items marked negatively as did in-service teachers (items 17 and 18). Secondly for student engagement, pre-service teachers were found to have difficulty in exactly the same items with in-service teachers (items 1 and 2). These are the items related to getting through to problem students and helping learners build critical thinking skills. Lastly, classroom management items that are often marked negatively by pre-service teachers are responding to defiant students and establishing a classroom management system with each group of learners, which is exactly the same item with in-service teachers' (item 5 and 16).

For stronger efficacy items of pre-service teachers, motivating students who show low interest in schoolwork had the highest efficacy score in student engagement subcategory. For instruction, pre-service teachers have shown to have the strongest self-efficacy beliefs in assessing student comprehension of what is taught. Lastly, pre-service teachers' most positive response to classroom management items is making their expectations clear to their students about their behaviour, which is again a shared strong point with in-service teachers.

Furthermore, comparative analysis of items had revealed some emerging patterns in the responses of both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. This finding carries an implication towards teacher training programs for a reevaluation of the program or reconstruction of teacher training practices so as to provide more room for pre-service teachers to experiment with a variety of teaching methods and diverse learner groups. A second implication might be the teacher trainers' self-efficacy level plays an important role but it is often a neglected construct by research. However, it is worth noting that teachers' strong self-efficacy beliefs almost always associated with positive outcomes for student achievement as it is evidenced in the previous studies (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Lastly, the similarity might stem from the cultural aspects teachers' roles in the traditional classroom practices or traditional roles attributed to teachers.

Further, in-service teachers' teaching experience and their self-efficacy beliefs have also been examined in order to find out if there are any fluctuations during teachers' career about their efficacy beliefs. Although it did not appear to have statistical significance between 3 groups of teachers, teachers with 6 to 10 years of teaching

experience have higher overall efficacy scores than both teachers with 1 to 5 years of teaching experience and teachers who have been teaching for 11 years or more.

Finally, teachers' high school types they graduated and their efficacy scores have been comparatively analysed. For in-service teachers, Anatolian High school graduates have scored statistically lowest scores for items 15, 16 and 17. For item 24, Anatolian Teacher Training high school graduates have the lowest score. For pre-service teachers, Anatolian Teacher Training high school graduates have the lowest score for items 18 and 24.

5.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications

Findings of the present study constitute some theoretical and practical implications. First of all, for enhancing pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs, teacher preparation programs need to give more opportunities for pre-service teachers to experiment in actual teaching settings so as to teach and manage children in a variety of contexts within a framework of gradual complexity and challenge. In literature, some apprenticeship models have been proposed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998). Some teacher preparation programs have known to be sending their EFL students only to primary schools for Teaching Practice course. This procedure may be altered to cover high schools and / or private high schools to make pre-service teachers' teaching experiences more varied and diverse. More opportunities for pre-service teachers should be created to enrich their teaching experience (Yüksel, 2014).

Specific feedback on pre-service teachers' teaching performances should be given to strengthen their efficacy beliefs in the form of verbal persuasion from teacher

trainers. The beginning of teaching career as in the first teaching experience in a real classroom setting is among crucial points for forming efficacy judgements for pre-service teachers. Therefore, teacher trainers should be able to assign student teachers to schools with smaller classes and classes with more capable students, which might reinforce efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. Besides that, mentor teachers as being a crucial part of teaching practice course for pre-service teachers may be in a formal collaboration with supervising teacher trainers in a structured seminars in order to support mentors to better assist pre-service teachers and create optimum classroom climate for young teachers to build strong and well-established self-efficacy beliefs from the beginning (Yüksel, 2014).

Additionally, peer coaching has appeared to be a valuable aid for improving pre-service teachers' efficacy for teaching practices suggested in the study of Göker (2006). Teacher training programs may initiate peer coaching structure within Teaching Practice course. Weekly discussions of their teaching practices as social persuasions from student colleagues with or without trainer's intervention may be beneficial for building stronger efficacy beliefs.

In order to enhance in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs, professional development workshops, seminars and in-service training sessions may be beneficial although their efficacy beliefs appear to increase following the training but the increase disappears after some time and their efficacy judgements return to their previous status (Ross, 1994). For that reason, Bandura (1997) suggest the requirement for convincing and decisive feedback from teacher trainers or from colleagues until the experienced teacher is persuaded himself or herself that new teaching skills or strategies do work for him/her and for his/her students.

School collaboration and school climate have been found to be important for in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Positive levels collaboration has been associated with higher teacher efficacy (Rosenholtz, 1989). However, social persuasion from colleagues may have both positive and negative effects such as negative implications may prevent in-service teachers from trying new teaching methods (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 1998). Therefore, coaching network between colleagues might be reevaluated to meet the needs of in-service teachers to rebuild their efficacy beliefs to higher levels.

The extensive studies for pre-service, in-service teachers and novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Hoy & Spero, 2005; Knoblauch & Hoy, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Sahin & Atay, 2010) indicate several comprehensive theoretical and practical implications besides the ones mentioned above.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The present study examined teachers' efficacy beliefs based on solely self-reported data. Thus, it might require more empirical studies to identify teachers' efficacy levels and their actual teaching practices. More studies with mixed research methodologies are needed to define the zone that embodies where teachers' efficacy beliefs and their actual teaching practices overlap.

In addition, the present study focused on in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs and the TTSES had been administered to these teachers once in an unspecified time. For a better understanding of experienced teachers' efficacy levels or if they fluctuate at

different times during their teaching career or if the efficacy beliefs are stable enough to resist adversity and stress of teaching over the time, longitudinal studies might be beneficial and more defining as well as monitoring these teachers to acquire a better understanding that is crucial for the factors that enhance or block the development of positive efficacy beliefs across stages of teachers' teaching career. Besides, observations and interviews will be beneficial for gathering key information and may provide more defining data.

Moreover, the present study has attempted to find out pre-service teachers' efficacy by asking their undergraduate courses that affected their teaching practice in order to see what courses may influence their self-efficacy beliefs. However, more experimental studies are required to improve our understanding of how efficacy beliefs are shaped and longitudinal studies may be particularly beneficial for the teacher preparation programs to assess the impact of coursework and teaching practices on pre-service teachers' development of efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998). More qualitative and interpretive case studies are also essential for refining our understanding of the development of teachers' efficacy or the sources of efficacy beliefs.

Further, teacher trainers' self-efficacy beliefs are often a neglected construct within efficacy studies so far. Therefore, being models for pre-service teachers during the teacher preparation program, examining teacher trainers' self-efficacy beliefs may unveil certain important implications towards how to better equip pre-service teachers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Öğretmen Özyeterlilik Ölçeği

APPENDIX II: Correlation Matrix for 24 items in TTSES

APPENDIX I

ÖĞRETMEN ÖZYETERLİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu çalışma ile Antalya ilindeki hizmet öncesi İngilizce öğretmenleri ile hizmet içi İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretimsel stratejiler bakımından öz yeterlilik algı düzeylerini ölçmeyi ve öğretimsel stratejiler açısından iki örneklem grubu arasındaki bağlantıları ve bu benzerliklerin veya farkların değerlendirilip analiz edilmesini amaçlamaktadır.

İki bölümden oluşan bu anketin birinci bölümünde katılımcıların genel özelliklerini ve eğilimlerini belirlemeye yönelik 8 demografik bilgi sorusu, ikinci bölümünde ise öğretmenlerinin öz yeterlik inançlarını ölçmeye yönelik 24 tane ifade ve bunları derecelendiren 9 aralık bulunmaktadır. Sizden, bu ifadeleri okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinden edindiğiniz deneyimleriniz ışığında kendinizi en iyi yansıttığınızı düşündüğünüz aralığı işaretlemeniz istenmektedir.

Bu ölçek aynı zamanda öğretmenlerin sınıfta karşılaştıkları zorlukları belirlemeye yöneliktir ve katılımlarınız isimsiz ve gönüllülük esasına bağlı olduğundan vereceğiniz yanıtlar hiç bir şekilde sizlerin değerlendirilmesi amacıyla kullanılmayacaktır. Lütfen, her ifadeyi okuyup yanında yer alan 9 aralıktan size göre en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

Hizmet öncesi ve görev yapamakta olan öğretmenler olarak bilimsel bir çalışmaya alt yapı sağlayacak bu ankete katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

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1. BÖLÜM

Açıklamalar: Lütfen, aşağıdaki boşlukları doldurunuz.

1) Yaşınız:

2) Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek (....) Kadın (....)

3) Mezun olduğunuz lise türü:

Anadolu Lisesi () Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi () Genel Lise () Diğer (): ...

4) Üniversite tercih sıranız:

5) Mezun olduğunuz/ olacağınız fakülte

6) Görev yaptığınız/yapmak istediğiniz okul türü / kurum:

İlköğretim Okulu () Lise () Özel Okul () Üniversite () Diğer ()

7) Öğretmenlik tecrübeniz (yıl olarak)

8) Lisans eğitiminiz süresince öğretmenlik becerilerinize katkısı olduğunu

düşündüğünüz derslerden 3 tanesini yazınız.

1.

2.

3.

2. BÖLÜM

ÖĞRETMEN ÖZYETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

	yetersiz		çok az yeterli		biraz yeterli		oldukça yeterli		çok yeterli
1. Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Öğrencilerin eleştirel düşüncelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Sınıfta etkinliği olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Etkinliklere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili beklentilerinizi ne kadar açık ortaya koyabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Öğrencileri okulda başarılı olabileceklerine inandırmayı ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Sınıfta yapılan etkinliklerin düzenli yürütmesini ne kadar iyi sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye değer vermelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Öğrettiklerinizin öğrenciler tarafından kavranıp kavranmadığını ne kadar iyi değerlendirebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Öğrencilerinizi iyi bir şekilde değerlendirmesine olanak sağlayacak soruları ne ölçüde hazırlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Başarısız bir öğrencinin etkinliği daha iyi anlamasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Etkinliği olumsuz yönde etkileyen ya da etkinlik esnasında gürültü yapan öğrencileri ne kadar yatıştırabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. Farklı öğrenci gruplarına uygun sınıf yönetim sistemi ne kadar iyi oluşturabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Etkinliklerin her bir öğrencinin seviyesine uygun olmasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Birkaç problemlili öğrencinin etkinliğe zarar vermesini ne kadar iyi engelleyebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. Öğrencilerin kafası karıştığında ne kadar alternatif açıklama ya da örnek sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. Sizi hiçe sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. Çocuklarının okulda başarılı olmalarına yardımcı olmaları için ailelere ne kadar destek olabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. Çok yetenekli öğrencilere uygun öğrenme ortamını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPENDIX II Correlation Matrix for 24 items in TTSES

		i1	i2	i3	i4	i5	i6	i7	i8	i9	i10	i11	i12	i13	i14	i15	i16	i17	i18	i19	i20	i21	i22	i23	i24
Correlation	item1	1,000	,350	,416	,352	,211	,303	,089	,223	,190	,150	,072	,137	,397	,484	,444	,474	,425	,305	,492	,142	,435	,363	,375	,349
	item2	,350	1,000	,299	,378	,201	,227	,294	,350	,277	,129	,162	,502	,270	,205	,212	,354	,360	,279	,238	,354	,314	,298	,430	,362
	item3	,416	,299	1,000	,433	,285	,330	,207	,364	,223	,273	,229	,152	,533	,409	,663	,578	,410	,400	,560	,349	,594	,258	,377	,314
	item4	,352	,378	,433	1,000	,356	,275	,218	,373	,272	,275	,221	,301	,320	,458	,358	,378	,483	,297	,437	,345	,365	,357	,373	,316
	item5	,211	,201	,285	,356	1,000	,352	,337	,423	,319	,264	,332	,164	,339	,269	,267	,251	,312	,324	,282	,354	,329	,281	,341	,224
	item6	,303	,227	,330	,275	,352	1,000	,356	,289	,385	,421	,328	,271	,328	,265	,334	,376	,438	,448	,419	,220	,368	,425	,338	,388
	item7	,089	,294	,207	,218	,337	,356	1,000	,426	,229	,217	,344	,331	,336	,275	,217	,361	,201	,305	,221	,466	,384	,327	,297	,190
	item8	,223	,350	,364	,373	,423	,289	,426	1,000	,449	,345	,328	,360	,552	,289	,395	,429	,277	,338	,203	,513	,374	,220	,425	,235
	item9	,190	,277	,223	,272	,319	,385	,229	,449	1,000	,457	,392	,489	,359	,349	,262	,367	,477	,363	,336	,388	,199	,436	,410	,331
	item10	,150	,129	,273	,275	,264	,421	,217	,345	,457	1,000	,567	,246	,347	,297	,303	,472	,477	,473	,328	,292	,230	,354	,384	,333
	item11	,072	,162	,229	,221	,332	,328	,344	,328	,392	,567	1,000	,374	,312	,272	,239	,347	,449	,462	,196	,388	,178	,293	,360	,261
	item12	,137	,502	,152	,301	,164	,271	,331	,360	,489	,246	,374	1,000	,293	,285	,163	,344	,374	,365	,209	,389	,198	,444	,507	,367
	item13	,397	,270	,533	,320	,339	,328	,336	,552	,359	,347	,312	,293	1,000	,553	,657	,592	,385	,330	,509	,388	,616	,371	,373	,213
	item14	,484	,205	,409	,458	,269	,265	,275	,289	,349	,297	,272	,285	,553	1,000	,538	,494	,457	,371	,556	,368	,508	,458	,396	,308
	item15	,444	,212	,663	,358	,267	,334	,217	,395	,262	,303	,239	,163	,657	,538	1,000	,659	,435	,354	,633	,360	,672	,311	,303	,339
	item16	,474	,354	,578	,378	,251	,376	,361	,429	,367	,472	,347	,344	,592	,494	,659	1,000	,584	,629	,603	,431	,656	,476	,607	,511
	item17	,425	,360	,410	,483	,312	,438	,201	,277	,477	,477	,449	,374	,385	,457	,435	,584	1,000	,559	,511	,299	,381	,527	,507	,473
	item18	,305	,279	,400	,297	,324	,448	,305	,338	,363	,473	,462	,365	,330	,371	,354	,629	,559	1,000	,448	,368	,453	,417	,606	,520
	item19	,492	,238	,560	,437	,282	,419	,221	,203	,336	,328	,196	,209	,509	,556	,633	,603	,511	,448	1,000	,315	,668	,457	,375	,478
	item20	,142	,354	,349	,345	,354	,220	,466	,513	,388	,292	,388	,389	,388	,368	,360	,431	,299	,368	,315	1,000	,499	,378	,473	,270
	item21	,435	,314	,594	,365	,329	,368	,384	,374	,199	,230	,178	,198	,616	,508	,672	,656	,381	,453	,668	,499	1,000	,428	,462	,458
	item22	,363	,298	,258	,357	,281	,425	,327	,220	,436	,354	,293	,444	,371	,458	,311	,476	,527	,417	,457	,378	,428	1,000	,514	,458
	item23	,375	,430	,377	,373	,341	,338	,297	,425	,410	,384	,360	,507	,373	,396	,303	,607	,507	,606	,375	,473	,462	,514	1,000	,640
	item24	,349	,362	,314	,316	,224	,388	,190	,235	,331	,333	,261	,367	,213	,308	,339	,511	,473	,520	,478	,270	,458	,458	,640	1,000

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A PROFILE OF PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

Habibe DOLGUN

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Foreign language learning has always been a significant part of people's lives throughout the history. Ancient people had to do it for practical reasons such as trade and politics. Latin, for instance, used to be the dominant language for religion, science and literature six hundred years ago. It was meant for elite for many years whereas its domination had faded gradually when some countries such as England, Spain and France emerged as political powers of Europe. However, still studying classical Latin preceded until 19th century since it was seen as a supreme language

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