THE EFFECTS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING ON THE BELIEFS GREEK EXPERIENCED ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS HOLD ABOUT LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

by

STERGIOPOULOU EVDOokia

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

Supervisor
Dr. Angeliki Psaltou-Joycey
Professor, Department of English Language and Literature
Aristotle University, Thessaloniki

Thessaloniki, June 2016
THE EFFECTS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING ON THE BELIEFS GREEK EXPERIENCED ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS HOLD ABOUT LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

by

EVDOKIA STERGIOPOLLOU

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

Advisory Committee
Dr. Angeliki Psaltou-Joycey
Professor, Department of English Language and Literature
Aristotle University, Thessaloniki

Dr. Mattheoudakis Marina
Associate Professor, Department of English Language and Literature
Aristotle University, Thessaloniki

Dr. Sougari Areti-Maria
Assistant Professor, Department of English Language and Literature
Aristotle University, Thessaloniki
To my family

&

To all full-time working mothers continuing their education
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I must offer my profoundest gratitude to my thesis supervisor, Dr. Angeliki Psaltou-Joycey. All the way through the process from planning the research to carrying it out and writing the thesis Dr. Angeliki Psaltou-Joycey offered her unreserved help and guidance while keeping me on track everytime I got lost. Her advise inspired me and brought me to a higher level of thinking by opening new perspectives.

Besides my supervisor, I would like to thank the other two members of the advisory committee, Dr. Mattheoudakis Marina and Dr. Sougari Areti-Maria for their insightful comments and encouragement, but most of all for being extremely understanding.

My sincere thanks go to Mr. Tzanas Kostantinos who patiently helped me with the statistical analyses and gave meaning to all these numbers and percentages.

I would also like to thank all the teachers and school advisors who kindly participated in the study.

Furthermore, I offer my special thanks to my husband Christos Kiourtsidis and to my two lovely children, Phyllia and Ioannis who were both supportive and patient all these years. I promise I will not miss another holiday!

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family: my parents Angelos and Sofia and my parents-in-law Yannis and Triantafyllia for supporting me all these years and for being there for me everytime I needed help with my children in order to study.
Writing a doctoral thesis is like running a long and lonely marathon but the support and encouragement of my academic advisors and of my family are the reason I crossed the finishing line. Thank you!
ABSTRACT

Despite the widely acknowledged powerful influence of teachers' beliefs on their pedagogical practices in the classroom, only a relatively small number of research studies on English foreign language teachers' beliefs and their correspondence to change, experience, and in-service training, have been internationally published. Moreover, experienced English foreign language Greek state school teachers constitute a group that research in Greece has not widely targeted.

The present exploratory and interpretive study adopted a mixed-methods design and sought to occupy the above stated research space. It explored the beliefs of experienced Greek English foreign language teachers working in Lower and Upper Secondary Schools mainly in Central Macedonia, with the aim to identify whether teachers' beliefs change over time and to what extent these changes are due to their teaching experiences or due to their participation in in-service training. Furthermore, the needs experienced teachers have from in-service training were also investigated aiming to highlight areas they would like to be trained in.

The data was collected by distributing a questionnaire that included both open and closed questions, and by carrying out semi-structured interviews. The quantitative findings of the study indicated that experienced teachers have a firm set of beliefs that do not present great changes as teachers gain more and more experience. The analysis of the qualitative and the quantitative data revealed that experienced teachers regard their teaching experience as the most influential factor in shaping their beliefs and in inducing change. Both in the interviews and in their answers to the open questions they expressed their interest in attending in-service training and stated that they have
made changes in their teaching as a result of in-service training. Nevertheless, the analysis of the quantitative findings did not identify major differences in beliefs as a result of either teaching experience or in-service training. Finally, the qualitative results revealed the needs experienced teachers have from in-service training along with their suggestions for the content such seminars should have.

The study revealed that both teaching experience and in-service training affect teachers' beliefs, but experience is regarded by the teachers as the most influential factor. Last but not least, the teachers were critical towards in-service training and suggested areas for improvement.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## Chapter 1 - Introduction

1.1 Overview ............................................. 1

1.2 Aims of the study and the Research Questions .......... 4

1.3 Research setting .................................... 7

1.3.1 English as a foreign language in Greek state schools ........ 8

1.3.2 Teacher Training for Secondary Education Teachers in Greece:  
    A Historical Overview ................................ 9

1.3.3 Regional Teacher Training Centres (Π.Ε.Κ.) ............. 14

1.3.4 In-Service Training for Experienced Secondary State School Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Greece ........ 16

1.4 Organisation of the thesis ........................... 20

## Chapter 2 - Literature Review: Theoretical Concepts

2.1 Overview ............................................. 22

2.2 Towards a definition of beliefs ........................ 22

    2.2.1 Defining Teacher Beliefs in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) ........ 25

2.3 Beliefs vs. Knowledge ................................ 28

   2.3.1 Teacher Beliefs vs. Teacher Knowledge ............ 30

2.4 Influential factors in the development of beliefs ........ 33

   2.4.1 Apprenticeship of observation ..................... 33

   2.4.2 Knowledge and educational development .......... 34

   2.4.3 Experience ...................................... 35

   2.4.4 Contextual factors ............................... 40
2.5 Teacher Education, Teacher Training, Teacher Development 42
2.6 Learning and Teacher Change – Belief Change: The Requirements of Teacher Development Programmes 44
2.7 Teacher Development Courses – Implications for In-Service Training 50
2.8 Links with the Management of Change 59
2.9 Summary 62

Chapter 3 - Literature Review: Belief Studies
3.1 Overview 63
3.2 Belief studies 63
   3.2.1 Investigating experienced teachers’ beliefs 66
   3.2.2 The effects of training on the beliefs of student teachers 75
   3.2.3 Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs 84
   3.2.4 Studies carried out in Greece 89
3.3 Towards a conceptual framework 97
3.4 Summary 104

Chapter 4 – Methodology: Theoretical Background and the Study
4.1 Overview 105
4.2 Theories affecting the study: methodological approach and design 105
   4.2.1 Cognitive science 106
   4.2.2 Mixed Model in the Research Design and achieving Validity 108
4.3. The Focus of the Study 112
4.4. Participants 113
4.5. Types of Data Collected and Data Collection Procedures 116
4.5.1 Questionnaire

4.5.2 Interviews

4.6. Piloting

4.7. Data Analysis

4.8. Ethical Issues

4.9 Summary

Chapter 5 – Results

5.1 Overview

5.2 Quantitative Results

5.2.1 Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Language, Language Learning and Language Teaching

5.2.2 Experienced Teachers’ Beliefs about the Role of Teaching Experience

5.2.3 Experienced Teachers’ Beliefs about the Role of In-Service Training

5.2.4 Correlations

5.3 Qualitative Results

5.3.1 Expectations Experienced Foreign Language Teachers have from In-Service Training

5.3.2 The Role of Teaching Experience in Shaping the Beliefs Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Language Teaching

5.3.3 The Role of In-Service Training in Shaping the Beliefs Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Language Teaching
5.3.4 The Teachers' Opinions on the Importance of the Four Influential Factors in the Shaping of Beliefs

5.4 Interviews with Teachers

5.4.1 The Role of Teaching Experience on Teachers' Beliefs

5.4.2 The Reality of In-Service Training as described by the Teachers interviewed

5.4.3 The Role of In-Service Training on Experienced Teachers' Beliefs

5.4.4 Expectations Experienced Foreign Language Teachers have from In-Service Training

5.5 Interviews with School Advisors

5.5.1 The Advisors' Views on the Role of Teaching Experience

5.5.2 The Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Training Needs as Described by the Advisors

5.5.3 The Reality of In-Service Training as Described by the Advisors

5.6 Summary

Chapter 6 - Discussion

6.1 Overview

6.2 Research Question 1: “What Beliefs do Experienced Language Teachers have about Language, Language Learning and Language Teaching?”

6.3 Research Question 2: “What is the Role of Teaching Experience in Shaping the Beliefs Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Language Teaching?”

6.4 Research Question 3a: “What is the Role of In-Service Training in Shaping the Beliefs Experienced Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Language Learning and Language Teaching?”
6.5 Research Question 3b: “What Expectations do Experienced Language Teachers have from In-Service Training?” 215

6.6 Summary 219

Chapter 7 – Conclusion

7.1 Overview 221
7.2 Summary of the Study and Implications for Practice 221
7.3 Limitations of the Study 225
7.4 Suggestions for future Research 227
7.5 Summary 228

References 229

Appendices 245

Appendix A  Formal Request to the Ministry of Education 246
Appendix B  Permission to use the BALLI 248
Appendix C  Questionnaire 249
Appendix D  Samples of the transcriptions of the interviews 257
## List of Tables

1. **Teacher Training in Greece (1910-2011)**

2. **Different Terms and Definitions for Beliefs about SLA (taken from Barcelos, 2003, p.9)**

3. **Belief Systems vs. Knowledge Systems**

4. **Training vs. Development (from Ur, 1997)**

5. **Belief Studies: Investigating Experienced Teachers' Beliefs**

6. **Belief Studies: The Effects of Training on the Beliefs of Student Teachers**

7. **Studies Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs**

8. **Findings: Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs**

9. **Theoretical approaches of cognitive science**

10. **Cognitive science in the present study**

11. **EFL Teacher Population (high schools, Central Macedonia)**

12. **Profiles of the experienced teachers**

13. **The focus of questionnaire subsections B2-B6**

14. **Length of interviews with teachers**

15. **Length of interviews with school advisors**

16. **Data sets**

17. **Questionnaire data analysed for the first research question**

18. **Summary of the study**

19. **Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude**

20. **Beliefs about the Difficulty of Language Learning**

21. **Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning**

22. **Beliefs about Language Learning Strategies**

23. **Beliefs about the Teachers' Role**

24. **Beliefs about Teaching**
5.7 Beliefs about Classroom Management
5.8 Beliefs about the role of experience
5.9 Beliefs about training
5.10 Grouping teachers according to teaching experience
5.11 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor teaching experience
5.12 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on the years of teaching experience
5.13 Experienced teachers with and without a postgraduate degree
5.14 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor Postgraduate studies
5.15 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on having a postgraduate degree
5.16 Frequency of Attending In-service Seminars
5.17 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor Attendance of In-service Training Seminars
5.18 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on Attendance of In-service Training Seminars
5.19 The reality of in-service training (teachers' beliefs from the interviews)
5.20 Experienced Teachers' expectations from in-service training and their suggestions
5.21 Why do experienced teachers contact advisors? (The advisors' view)
5.22 The problems of in-service training as described by the advisors
List of Figures

2.1 Forms of Knowledge according to Shulman (1986, p.10-13) 29

2.2 Dynamic Relationships among the Factors that influence the shaping of Beliefs 42

3.1 Guskey's (1986, p.7) Change Model 48

3.2 Schematic Representation of Moscovici's Appropriation Process (Gabillon, 2012, p.197) 98

3.3 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006c, p. 283) 99

3.4 Hashweh’s (2003) model of accommodative change 100

3.5 Towards a Belief Framework 103

4.1 Data analysis and interpretation (Freeman, 1996a, p. 372) 130

5.1 Expectations from In-Service Training 153

5.2 Changes in Teaching as a result of Experience 156

5.3 Changes as a Result of In-Service Training 158

5.4 Rating of the Four Influential Factors 160
# List of Abbreviations

## English Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BALLI</td>
<td>Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAK</td>
<td>Beliefs, Assumptions and Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLAS</td>
<td>Foreign Language Attitude Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IW</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEd</td>
<td>Master's in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>Teaching English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Greek Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ΑΣΕΠ</td>
<td>Ανώτατο Συμβούλιο Επιλογής Προσωπικού</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΕΠΑΛ</td>
<td>Επαγγελματικό Λύκειο</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΕΣΥΠ</td>
<td>Εθνικό Συμβούλιο Παιδείας</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΙΕΠ</td>
<td>Ινστιτούτο Εκπαιδευτικής Πολιτικής</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΙΚΥ</td>
<td>Ίδρυμα Κρατικών Υποτροφιών</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΚΕΜΕ</td>
<td>Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικών Μελετών και Επιμόρφωσης</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΜΠΕ</td>
<td>Μείζων Πρόγραμμα Επιμόρφωσης</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΟΕΠΕΚ</td>
<td>Οργανισμός Επιμόρφωσης Εκπαιδευτικών</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ΠΕΑΠ Πρόγραμμα Εκμάθησης της Αγγλικής σε Πρώιμη Παιδική Ηλικία
ΠΕΚ Περιφερειακά Επιμορφωτικά Κέντρα
ΠΙ Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο
ΣΕΔΕ Σχολή Επιμόρφωσης Λειτουργών Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης
ΣΕΛΜΕ Σχολή Επιμόρφωσης Λειτουργών Μέσης Εκπαίδευσης
ΦΕΚ Φύλλο Εφημερίδας της Κυβέρνησης
Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview
The concept of teacher beliefs and their role has become fundamental in educational research in the last 30 years. What has become evident is that “no matter how much you try to program teachers to behave in certain ways they won't; they always have their own individual ideas, their individual ways of doing things, their preferences” (Birello, 2012, p.88) and thus it has become clear that teaching is much more than behaviour, as beneath behaviour lie beliefs and knowledge which influence teachers' actions. Teachers bring their beliefs about foreign language learning into the classroom and these beliefs shape their teaching practices (Erkmen, 2012). It is recognised that an understanding of how beliefs operate will give us insights into how teachers work and how they learn (Richards, 1998). It has been argued that beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions people make (Pajares, 1992) and teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching, whether explicit or implicit, affect what teachers do in their classrooms (Gabillon, 2012). Teachers are “active, thinking decision makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 2003a, p.81), which is why their beliefs about language, language teaching and learning are an important concept to research; they affect teachers' decisions when planning their lessons but they also influence their actions in the classroom (Johnson, 1994). Shavelson and Stern (1981) interestingly argue that teachers rely on their beliefs to guide them when knowledge is not available, thus highlighting the complex relationship between beliefs and knowledge, which is discussed in more detail in the literature review chapter (see 2.3, 2.3.1).
In the late 1970s educational research was criticised to be focusing more on the product of teaching rather than on the process (Freeman, 1996a). The result was the development of a research area known as teacher cognition, teacher knowledge, or teacher learning (ibid.). This means that researchers recognised the need to try to understand the teacher as a person, but there was also a focus on examining teacher education, as it plays an important role in the development of teachers (ibid.).

One of the conclusions reached by research in that area so far is that teaching is a complex undertaking, “it is more than behaviour; it is indeed ‘thoughtful work’” (Freeman, 1996b, p. 221). In a number of studies (e.g. Weinstein, 1990; Burns, 1992; Mok, 1994; Woods, 1996) (see 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4) the focus has been on examining what beliefs, attitudes or principles underpin teachers’ decisions in the classroom, as it is these beliefs that influence the way in which teachers act (Burns, 1992; Pajares, 1992). But researchers have also focused on the beliefs held by student teachers when they enter a teacher training course (e.g. Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Peacock, 2001). It has been highlighted that understanding the entering beliefs of pre-service teachers is of importance, as these beliefs influence the process of knowledge acquisition, the interpretation of the course input, and the teaching practices of student teachers upon completion of the training course (Pajares, 1992). An area, however, in which research is limited, is the investigation of experienced teachers' beliefs (Peacock, 2001; Diab, 2009), and it is this research gap the present study aims to fill. It is with experience that teachers can realise what works in the classroom and what does not yield good results. Ideally, attending in-service training seminars can also help them reflect on their practices and take the right decisions to act. This is when they might decide to change or adapt their beliefs. Gabillon (2012, p.190), in her state of the art article about foreign language teacher beliefs, supports the above mentioned facts as she explains that
“teaching is a dynamic process that requires on-the-spot decision making and acting to meet the needs of learners. These decisions are often viewed as reflections of teachers’ beliefs and … there is now substantial evidence to claim that teachers’ beliefs can influence their decisions about their teaching practices and affect what happens in the classroom.”

Borg (2006c) values the studying of teacher cognition due to its many benefits:

1. It provides a conceptually more complete account of teaching than a solely behavioural model offers
2. It aids understanding teaching by gaining insight into the psychological context of instruction
3. It engages teachers in a form of reflective learning, by making them aware of the psychological bases of their classroom practice; it helps teachers understand their mental lives, not to dictate practice to them
4. It develops a new conceptualisation of teaching which supports and improves the quality of teachers’ professional practice
5. It provides the basis of effective pre- and in-service teacher education and professional development
6. It provides descriptive information about subject-specific teacher cognition and pedagogy.

These values are reflected in the present study, as it has been carried out aiming to provide a clear account of in-service training for teachers teaching English as a foreign language in Greek state schools. The qualitative interviews taken from the participant teachers enhance our understanding of the teachers’ psychology regarding in-service training, as the teachers reflect on the effects in-service training has had on them so far. Moreover, the teachers’ stated expectations from in-service training may help to improve the quality of future in-service training.
In this chapter the focus of the study is introduced by discussing the aims and the setting of the research. The reality of in-service teacher training in Greece is briefly introduced in order to provide a background in which the study is set. Finally, the organisation of the dissertation is outlined.

1.2 Aims of the study and Research Questions

The focus of the present study is to examine the type of influence a) participation in in-service teacher development programmes and b) teaching experience have on what experienced secondary school teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) believe about language, language learning and language teaching (see 4.3). The expectations experienced EFL teachers have from in-service training are also researched. The study addresses the following research questions:

The first research question focuses on experienced teachers' general beliefs:

1. What beliefs do experienced foreign language teachers have about language, language learning and language teaching?

The second research question focuses on the effects of teaching experience on experienced teachers' beliefs:

2. What is the role of teaching experience in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and language teaching?

The third research question has two parts. The first part focuses on the effects of in-service training on experienced teachers' beliefs and the second part on the expectations experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training:

3a. What is the role of in-service training in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and language teaching?
3b. What expectations do experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training?

Understanding experienced teacher beliefs is an interesting area to research, for the following reasons:

a) *Beliefs are an important concept to research:* As mentioned above in 1.1, the importance of examining teacher beliefs is widely recognised in the literature (e.g. Burns, 1992, Johnson, 1994, Richards and Lockhart, 1994). This is because beliefs play an important role in shaping the principles teachers use to interpret their responsibilities and implement their plans (Richards, 1998). Research in this area has implications for both policy and practice in teacher education, curriculum development, and educational management (Calderhead, 1996; Fullan, 2001) and in the present study the interest lies on the effects of belief research on teacher training and development. If research can provide insights into how belief constructs operate, then this means that both pre- and in-service training courses can be more effective in teaching teachers how to do things (pre-service) and how to reflect on their practice and to develop (in-service) (Woods, 1996, Weinstein, 1990). This last point is highlighted by Fullan (2001) who argues that implementing educational change successfully depends on what teachers do and think and it involves changes in conceptions and role behaviour, which are difficult to achieve. He also explains that belief change is even more difficult to achieve, as it challenges the values teachers hold, which are rarely made explicit or discussed. Through this study it is hoped to give (i) the participant teachers a chance to think about their beliefs and to make them explicit, which can be a necessary step towards change. In addition, the interpretation of the findings and the conclusions reached may be of benefit to the rest of the experienced EFL teachers in Greece, as the study aims to provide suggestions for improved in-service training that caters for experienced teachers' needs.
b) The importance of understanding teaching: Brumfit and Mitchell (1990) support that the processes of teaching can be more easily controlled than the processes of learning, so gaining an understanding of how teaching works might lead to more effective education. Freeman (1996a, p.373) claims that research in this area needs to ask “What do teachers know about teaching and how do they learn it?”, but we should also ask “What do teachers believe that influences or dictates what they do?”.

c) Personal experience and interests: As a teacher of English and German for the last 23 years the author of the present study has attended a lot of teacher training and development seminars. She has also worked in different school contexts ranging from the private sector to the state school sector. Reflecting on her personal experience, she would argue that attending such seminars equipped her with numerous ideas which she then had the opportunity to test out in the classroom. Going back 18 years ago she would blindly follow the advice given in the teacher’s books, as this gave a feeling of security; doing what the book advised teachers to do, instilled the feeling of doing the ‘right thing’. But the actual teaching experience has played a major role, as it has provided the author with a feeling of confidence to adapt the coursebooks to the students’ needs and to use effectively all the ideas presented in the various seminars. In other words, experience is regarded by the author as one of the most crucial factors in teacher development. It is this developmental stage the study seeks to explore, by investigating the role of teacher education and experience as teachers move from novice to experts. Allwright (2003, p. 120) interestingly explains that “education … must first and foremost be good for teachers’ lives, if it is ever to be good for learners’ learning”. Haritos (2004) highlights that teacher learning should be examined in its entirety, i.e. from the moment teachers enter an education course to the time they enter the classroom. She explains that this is the only way to help us understand the impact teacher training has on teachers. She further
concludes that teachers must be given the opportunity to share their teaching experiences with colleagues and instructors, as it is this constant feedback and interactive communication that will provide teachers with “the necessary physical, cognitive, social, and emotional support to maximise their development and foster a long and healthy teaching career” (p.652).

To conclude, very few studies have targeted the beliefs of experienced teachers. Experienced teachers are a challenging group to research, as they are actively involved in teaching and have little time to devote to filling in questionnaires or to giving interviews. Also, they may have limited, if any, contact with researchers which makes their participation in studies more difficult. In addition, they seem to keep a distance from research and researchers for a number of reasons which are outlined by Borg (2003b, p. 41-46) as being the following:

• Inaccessibility: Researchers often write for fellow researchers, so teachers either do not get hold of research articles or struggle to understand them

• Lack of local relevance: Teachers feel that research knowledge contrasts with the knowledge they get in the classroom

• Lack of narrative: Teachers find it sometimes hard to relate their experience to research accounts (usually statistical accounts) of teaching and learning

• Lack of ownership: Teachers are generally not involved in the design, implementation, and dissemination of research studies

• Lack of credibility: Teachers feel that researchers are out of touch with classrooms and thus they cannot tell a teacher what to do

• Pressure: Teachers are under constant pressure to cope with the daily demands of their jobs and therefore have no time for research
• Implied inadequacy: Some teachers feel they are competent enough and do not feel the need to get engaged into research

• Self-image: Some teachers feel there is nothing worth studying in their classrooms

• Lack of recognition: There is a feeling that teachers’ efforts to contribute to an understanding of English language teaching are undervalued by academics

• Lack of technical knowledge: Some teachers feel they do not have the technical knowledge of research to carry out worthwhile studies.

Therefore, one of the challenges to be faced in the course of conducting the present study is to engage experienced teachers in active participation in a research study.

1.3 Research setting

In the present section some information about the teacher training context in Greece is given, in order to provide a clearer picture of the research setting.

The population of the study are high school EFL teachers appointed in lower and higher secondary schools in Greece, who have a teaching experience of more than 5 years (see 4.4). In this section information is provided on the teaching of English as a foreign language in Greek state schools as well as on teacher training organised by the Greek state for state school teachers, in an attempt to illustrate the reality the participants face regarding in-service training.
1.3.1 English as a foreign language in Greek state schools

Foreign languages are taught in state schools from the third year of Elementary school to the last year of Higher Secondary School, i.e. for 10 years. In Primary school students are taught the English language for three hours a week. However, there are some Primary schools all over Greece where a new curriculum has been introduced, as an exploratory project, and the English language is taught for two hours a week in the first two years and for four hours a week for the next four years. In Lower Secondary School (Γυμνάσιο) the new students take a placement test and are divided in groups according to their level. This placement test is not an official test common for all schools. It is a test designed by the teacher who is going to teach English. There are two levels, one for beginners, false beginners to be accurate (A1-A2 level according to the Common European Framework for Languages), and one for more advanced learners (A2-B1 level according to the Common European Framework for Languages). They are taught English for two hours a week throughout the three years of Lower Secondary School. In Higher Secondary School (Λύκειο) the English language is not an obligatory subject. In the first year students select the foreign language they want to be taught in Higher Secondary School among English, German and French. The foreign language is taught for two hours weekly. However, at the time the study was carried out and when the data was collected English was taught for 3 hours a week to the first year students in Lower Secondary School.

In Primary School and in Lower Secondary School teachers do not select the teaching material. They use the books published by the Greek state for Greek state school students. In Higher Secondary School, they can choose from a list of titles the Greek government has approved and are available in the Greek market from both Greek and English publishing companies. The listening material of Lower Secondary School books is not available on CDs, but it is available online on the Digital School site.
Finally, it should be highlighted that by the time this study was completed a new curriculum was introduced in Greek Lower and Higher Secondary Schools. Regarding EFL the main changes included the following:
- The students are no more divided in two groups based on their level. They are one group, either false beginners or more advanced learners.
- The teacher has to teach according to the students' level, in line with the Common European Framework for Foreign Languages.
- The format of the tests has changed, in that three skills are tested in mainly multiple choice style: writing, listening, reading, grammar and vocabulary.

It is beyond the scope of the present study to go into the changes in detail, since they were introduced in 2016, when the study was already completed.

1.3.2 Teacher Training for Secondary Education Teachers in Greece: A Historical Overview

State school teachers have the opportunity to attend teacher development seminars several times during the school year organised by the Ministry of Education and by the local state school advisors. These seminars are not compulsory, but are highly attended. The information on teacher training provided here is not only about EFL teachers, but it is the general teacher training system in Greece for all state school teachers regardless of the subject they teach and the education level (i.e. primary, secondary).

Χατζηγιάννη (2008) carried out a study in order to identify and record the training needs of teachers in secondary education in Greece (see 3.2.4). In her study there is also a
chronological record of the evolution of teacher training in Greece from 1910 to 2002 and based on the information provided in her study but also on the changes introduced by the Greek State after 2002 table 1.1 was created. In this table the institutions and bodies responsible for training secondary school teachers are listed.

Table 1.1: Teacher Training in Greece (1910-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Institution/ Body</th>
<th>Law (N.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>Διδασκαλείον Μέσης Εκπαίδευσης (Didaskaleion of Secondary Education)</td>
<td>N. ΓΨΙΗ'/ 22-4-1910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>Ίδρυμα Κρατικών Υποτροφιών (State Scholarships Foundation (IKY))</td>
<td>N. 1825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (Pedagogical Institute (ΠΙ))</td>
<td>N. 4379/1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικών Μελετών και Επιμορφώσεως (Centre of Educational Studies and Training (KEME))</td>
<td>N. 186/1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Σχολή Επιμόρφωσης Λειτουργών Μέσης Εκπαίδευσης (Schools of Training (ΣΕΛΜΕ and ΣΕΛΔΕ))</td>
<td>Presidential Decree 459/1978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (Pedagogical Institute (ΠΙ))</td>
<td>N. 1566/1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Περιφερειακά Επιμορφωτικά Κέντρα (Regional Teacher Training Centres (ΠΕΚ))</td>
<td>N. 1566/ 30-09-1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Οργανισμός Επιμόρφωσης Εκπαιδευτικών (Teacher Training Organisation (ΟΕΠΕΚ))</td>
<td>N. 2986/ 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Ινστιτούτο Εκπαιδευτικής Πολιτικής (Institute of Educational Policy (ΙΕΠ))</td>
<td>N. 3966/24-05-2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first formal training body for secondary school teachers in Greece was the Didaskaleion of Secondary Education (Διδασκαλείον Μέσης Εκπαίδευσης) which was established in 1910 with Law N. ΓΨΙΗ'/ 22-4-1910. In 1951 the State Scholarships Foundation (Ι.Κ.Υ.) was founded and although this is not directly responsible for teacher training, it is included in the table, as it is responsible for awarding scholarships to teachers so that they can pursue studies at postgraduate level either in Greece or abroad. In
1964 the Pedagogical Institute (Π.Ε.) was established with Law N. 4379/1964. It was responsible for the planning and support of educational reform and subsequent legislative regulations added the following to its responsibilities:

- Conducting educational research and evaluating the results of the teaching practices in Primary and Secondary Education
- Proposing guidelines for the design and planning of educational policies
- Monitoring the evolution of educational technology and promoting its implementation in the educational practice
- Designing and attending the implementation of teacher training programmes but also evaluating these
- Contributing to the writing of books for students and teachers, as well as taking measures towards the improvement of teaching methods and of the general educational process\(^1\).

So the Pedagogical Institute was one of the most important research and advisory bodies on educational issues that contributed substantially to the educational policy of the Ministry of Education. In short, its main purpose was the overall study of the Greek educational system with the aim to submit proposals and recommendations to the Ministry of Education on all educational issues. However, it was abolished during the period of dictatorship in Greece, in 1967, with Law N.59/1967. Later, after the change of regime, in 1975 the Centre of Educational Studies and Training (Κ.E.M.E) was introduced with Law N.186/1975. The Κ.E.M.E had the same responsibilities as the Pedagogical Institute. However, in 1985 with Law N.1566 this was abolished and the Pedagogical Institute was re-established. In 1978 the term teacher education is introduced along with the

\(^{1}\) All points translated by the author from the Greek original.
establishment of ΣΕΛΜΕ and ΣΕΛΔΕ. These were teacher training schools which the
teachers attended for a whole academic year and were therefore exempted from their
teaching duties. These schools operated until 1992 and the main criticism against them
was the fact that they could cater for the training needs of only a small number of teachers
and could not assume decentralised and large scale training programmes (Καψάλης και
Ραμπίδης, 2006). So ΣΕΛΜΕ and ΣΕΛΔΕ were replaced by Π.Ε.Κ, the regional training
centres, in 1992. The Regional Teacher Training Centres (Π.Ε.Κ) were founded in 1985 by
Law 1566/1985, however these first operated seven years later, in 1992, when the relevant
common presidential decree of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance was
issued. These operate until today and are responsible for conducting induction teacher
training programmes for newly appointed state school teachers in primary and secondary
education (for more information see 1.3.3). In 2002 a new organisation responsible for
teacher training was introduced with Law N. 2986/2006, the Teacher Training
Organisation (Ο.ΕΠ.ΕΚ.). This was a private, legal entity supervised by the Ministry of
Education and it was responsible for:

- Designing teacher training educational policies for teachers in primary and secondary
  education and for submitting relevant proposals to the Minister of Education

- Coordinating all forms and types of teacher training and of implementing training
courses

- Developing training programmes to be implemented by educational institutions after
  receiving the approval of the Minister of Education

- Assigning training programmes to designated bodies and establishing independent
  training centers and units

- Allocating and managing the financial resources available for the training of teachers
Certifying bodies and certificates related to teacher training\(^2\).

However, O.EΠ.EΚ. was abolished in 2011 and the Pedagogical Institute was also abolished in 2012 being replaced by the Institute of Educational Policy (I.E.Π.) with Law N.3966/2011. The Institute of Educational Policy is a scientific body supported by the Ministry of Education on issues related to primary and secondary education and also to the transition from secondary to tertiary education. Its main aims involve the scientific research and study of educational issues and the continuous scientific and technical support of the design and implementation of educational policies. To achieve its aims it cooperates with the Ministry of Education, the National Council of Education (Εθνικό Συμβούλιο Παιδείας, Ε.ΣΥ.Π.), the education departments of higher education institutes, the educational advisory councils, domestic and foreign research institutes and organisations, and various other bodies with relevant aims and scopes. More specifically, the following are among its responsibilities:

- Dealing with issues related to configuration, continuous modernization and optimal implementation of educational policy in all types of schools
- Dealing with issues related to the curricula of primary and secondary education, textbooks and other teaching aids
- Harmonizing training and teacher education, the selection of teachers through the Supreme Council for Personnel Selection (Ανώτατο Συμβούλιο Επιλογής Προσωπικού, ΑΣΕΠ), and the program of scholarships of the State Scholarships Foundation (IKY) with the sciences of education and with the objectives of the educational policy
- Dealing with issues related to the assessment of the administrative and educational structures of primary and secondary education and of teachers

\(^2\) All points translated by the author from the Greek original.
• Dealing with aspects of the operation of Greek schools abroad

• Dealing with education issues of expatriates and of intercultural education

• Exploring and identifying overlaps in research or experimental activities of different institutions in education and expresses its opinion, or makes suggestions about the optimal utilization of resources in issues within the competence of I.E.Π.

The Institute of Educational Policy also systematically explores:

• Issues associated with school life and expresses its opinions or makes suggestions on ways of improving school life

• Issues in special education and training, and the educational goals and needs of specific groups of the student population and expresses its opinions or makes suggestions on how to accommodate and deal with them

• Factors that directly or indirectly affect the nature, function and efficiency of schools, such as the structure of education, the organizational and administrative system and the physical infrastructure, and expresses its opinions or makes recommendations on the best necessary interventions.

Finally, it is also responsible for implementing supporting actions on issues relevant to its above mentioned responsibilities when introducing new educational policies. More information on the organisation and the responsibilities of the I.E.Π. can be found on its website: http://www.iep.edu.gr/site/index.php/el/.
1.3.3 Regional Teacher Training Centres (Π.Ε.Κ.)

As mentioned in the previous section, Π.Ε.Κ. are responsible for carrying out the introductory training programme for newly appointed state school teachers in both primary and secondary education. The introductory/induction training programme is the only training programme for primary and secondary education teachers that operates systematically in Greece (Χατζηγιάννη, 2008). Although the regional training centres are not responsible for carrying out any further in-service training -which concerns the present study-, some information about how they operate will be given here as it is the only consistent and systematic training offered by the state to state school teachers in Greece. The information provided here has been taken from the Government Gazette of the Hellenic Republic (Φ.Ε.Κ) and more specifically from Φ.Ε.Κ 46/11-03-1999, Φ.Ε.Κ 127/20-06-1997 and Φ.Ε.Κ 105/10-5-2002.

The introductory/induction training programme is compulsory for all state school teachers. The teachers are divided in groups according to the subject they teach. The programme is organised in three stages and consists of a total of one hundred (100) hours:

- Phase 1: It takes place at the beginning of the school year, two weeks before the beginning of lessons. It lasts sixty (60) hours, it is common for teachers of all school subjects, and it consists of four subject areas. It focuses on teaching methodologies, educational management and organisation, practising the teaching profession, and evaluation of education.

- Phase 2: It lasts thirty (30) hours and the participant teachers have the opportunity to go into a classroom and to observe an experienced teacher of their speciality in action. The main aim is to combine theory and practice and to give the trainees an idea of the problems and difficulties they may face in the classroom. They also have the opportunity
to discuss the lessons observed with the teachers involved and with their advisor.

- Phase 3: It takes place in April for a week. It lasts ten (10) hours and is about discussing any problems that the teachers faced during their first year in the state school. It is about self-evaluation through reflection on the teaching practice and through sharing experiences with colleagues.

The trainers are either school advisors, university faculty members, or highly qualified experienced teachers, i.e. experienced teachers who hold either a master's degree or a doctorate. A number of studies have been carried out, mainly by O.EΠ.E.K., to evaluate the effectiveness of Π.Ε.Κ. (e.g. Βεργίδης et al, 2011, Γεωργιάδου et al, 2011, Χαραμής, 2011, Καψάλης & Ραμπίδης, 2006). In these studies both positive and negative aspects of the training programmes have been identified and suggestions have been put forward for the improvement of the training programmes.

The official framework for in-service training is described in the next section based on the information provided by the state in the Government Gazette of the Hellenic Republic (Φ.Ε.Κ.).

**1.3.4 In-service training for experienced secondary state school teachers of English as a foreign language in Greece**

The official framework for in-service training for teachers of all subjects, not only for EFL teachers, is laid out with Law 1566/1985 chapter Θ, article 28 entitled "Training and Further Education for Teachers: Objectives and Forms of Training". Regarding in-service training, it is explained that training should aim to inform teachers about developments in the teaching profession and in educational policies, about new methods in teaching and
evaluation, and through training teachers should be supported to develop their abilities in order to effectively meet the changing world of education and to teach as effectively as possible. In addition, through in-service training teachers must be kept up to date about important educational issues regarding their subject.

Until 1988 in-service training was characterised as periodical and it was repeated every 4 to 6 years aiming to inform teachers about changes in curricula, new methodologies, methods of evaluating students, etc. In 1988 this was changed (Φ.Ε.Κ. A 296) and in-service training has since then been realised through special short term training programmes targeting educational reforms and novelties, changes in the school curricula, introduction of new subjects, new teaching methods and new books. In article 30 of the same Φ.Ε.Κ. it is further highlighted that state school teachers can choose to continue their education if they wish so by completing postgraduate studies.

The bodies responsible for organising and carrying out in-service training are: the schools themselves, the Π.Ε.Κ., the universities and the Ι.Ε.Π. In addition, however, the school advisors also play an important role regarding in-service training. The school advisors' responsibilities are outlined and analysed in Φ.Ε.Κ. 1340/B. More specifically, school advisors are responsible for the scientific and pedagogical mentoring and support of the teachers who are appointed in schools located in the advisor's area of responsibility. The advisors must encourage any attempt the teachers make regarding scientific research. They also participate actively in the evaluation of the teaching practice and in staff evaluation. Advisors are also responsible for the proper functioning of remedial teaching. The advisors' work is further described along five main functions:

1. They support the application of educational innovations, so that their content and
philosophy become comprehensible and as a result their application gets more effective.

2. They coordinate the organisation of teaching in the schools of their area of responsibility, encourage, guide and cooperate with the teachers during the school year.

3. As trainers they are responsible for organising training seminars for the teachers they are responsible for. They also support and encourage any attempts towards training and further education taking place within schools.

4. They participate in the process of evaluating teaching and teachers. The aim of such evaluation is to highlight any weaknesses or difficulties and to provide help through positive motivation.

5. When an advisor notices that a teacher faces difficulties in teaching, then the advisor should suggest a training programme that aims towards the improvement of the teaching practice.

So it can be stated that organising and carrying out in-service training is one of the many duties school advisors are called to perform. In the same Φ.Ε.Κ. the relationship between teachers and advisors is also defined and it is stressed that they should cooperate on a one-to-one basis but also in groups. More specifically, it is explained that the advisors should organise meetings at the beginning of the school year in order to plan the whole year. The advisors must be in constant communication with the teachers throughout the school year. They can visit schools, have discussions with the teachers and guide them. They can also observe lessons if they are asked to do so. Finally, it is stressed that the meetings planned during the school year should not take place during teaching hours.
From the above it can be concluded that there are no fixed and detailed guidelines regarding in-service training. This is why in-service training in Greece has been strongly criticised both by teachers and researchers. In the discussion of their findings, Καψάλης & Ραμπίδης (2006, p. 271-272) make an interesting conclusion that highlights the need for an officially organised in-service training programme for experienced teachers:

“The discussion of the data supports the finding that the educational training policies should be changed. The advancement of teachers towards professionalism requires lifelong learning and continuous training. Thus the leadership of education should consider adopting educational policies that are applied in all developed countries in the world, where the training bodies and institutions offer a wide range of training activities and all teachers are required to select on a yearly basis and to attend 3-5 training activities that interest them and are offered in a convenient place and at a convenient time for them. In this way every teacher participates in 100-150 official training activities during their professional career.” (translated by the author)

Χαραμής (2011) also concludes by stressing the need for an official in-service training programme that should be longitudinal, cover the needs of the participant experienced teachers, who should be exempted from their teaching duties in order to facilitate their active participation in the programme.

Last but not least, an innovative project was introduced in 2010 for primary school teachers, called 'Πρόγραμμα Εκμάθησης της Αγγλικής σε Πρώιμη Παιδική Ηλικία' (ΠΕΑΠ) (English for Young Learners Programme) (http://rcel.enl.uoa.gr/peap/). The programme was designed and implemented by members of staff from the University of Athens and the University of Thessaloniki. Greek EFL teachers and EFL experts also participated in the project team. Although the programme targets primary school teachers it is mentioned here due to its innovatory character. ΠΕΑΠ is an online distance training course for primary school EFL teachers and it was introduced as a result of the introduction of English as a foreign language in the first two grades of primary school.
(Karavas, 2014). It followed the following stages in its development:

i) The teachers' needs were first identified

ii) The training goals and learning outcomes were identified

iii) The training materials were developed and evaluated through an online questionnaire and then revised (ibid.).

Allowing teachers to have access to an online training platform makes the whole in-service training experience more friendly, as the teachers can log in anytime they wish and they can also select the area they would like to widen their knowledge in. It would be interesting to see in the future such platforms available for secondary school teachers as well.

1.4 Organisation of the thesis

The thesis begins with a literature review which comprises two chapters. Chapter 2 is theoretical and the key concepts are defined there. In Chapter 3 the main belief studies are reviewed. There is also a discussion on change and teacher development. The literature review ends with the presentation of a suggested theoretical framework on belief structure and operation. In Chapter 4 the methodology is laid out: the research setting and context is presented in detail along with the research questions and the theories affecting the study; next, the methodological approach followed in the study, the data collection, the piloting and the analysis stages are presented. Following that, in Chapter 5 the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data is presented. The findings are discussed in Chapter 6 where the research questions are also answered. The study is summarised in the final Chapter (Chapter 7), providing an overview of its significance. What is more, the limitations of the present study are also listed and suggestions for further research are made.
Chapter 2

Literature Review: Theoretical Concepts

2.1 Overview

In this chapter a few of the main concepts that underpin this study are defined and clarified. The main concepts that underpin this study are beliefs and belief change and these are discussed in detail. The concepts of teacher education, teacher training and teacher development are also defined to help clarify their meaning within the present study.

2.2 Towards a definition of beliefs

Generally, beliefs pose a challenge to anyone who tries to define them (Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994), as due to their complexity it is difficult to identify their distinguishing features and unpack them (Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994). However, in order to be able to examine beliefs, clear conceptualizations of the term are required.

One reason why it is difficult to offer a clear definition of the term 'beliefs', is that beliefs “travel in disguise” (Pajares, 1992, p. 309), as there is a variety of terms used when referring to the concept of ‘beliefs’; e.g. attitudes, values, judgements, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, dispositions, personal theories, perspectives, rules of practice. Another reason is that beliefs are difficult to access, measure or observe, as they can only be inferred from people’s actions (Rokeach, 1972). Therefore, it is a challenging task for research to attempt to show how ways of talking, thinking and behaving directly relate (Freeman, 1996b).
One of the first attempts to define and describe beliefs was by Fishbein and Azjen (1975). They define beliefs as “the fundamental building blocks in our conceptual structure” (p.14). Fishbein and Azjen (1975) distinguish three types of beliefs:

a) Descriptive beliefs: Beliefs formed as a result of direct observation of an object. These beliefs are quite strong, since the validity of one's own senses is rarely questioned. Descriptive beliefs tend to be fairly veridical, but if an event occurs unexpectedly or if the person does not have enough time to observe an event carefully they may prove to be nonveridical.

b) Inferential beliefs: Beliefs that go beyond directly observable events and may be formed based on prior inferences. The authors suggest that these beliefs can change only by changing some or all of the relevant (or primary) beliefs that provide the basis for the inference process.

c) Informational beliefs: Beliefs formed through accepting information about an object provided by an outside source, such as a book, a newspaper, radio, TV, a lecture, a friend etc.

The fact that beliefs are the research focus of different areas (e.g. cognitive psychology, education) has resulted in a variety of definitions (Pajares, 1992). Beliefs in general have been defined as

“[A]ll the matters of which we have no sure knowledge and yet which we are sufficiently confident of to act upon and also the matters that we now accept as certainly true, as knowledge, but which nevertheless may be questioned in the future.” (Dewey, 1933, p. 6)

“[M]ental constructions of experience – often condensed and integrated into schemata or concepts” (Sigel, 1985, p. 351)

“[P]sychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996)
In Dewey’s (1933) definition above it is stated that beliefs may be questioned, which can be interpreted that questioning beliefs might lead to change (see 2.6, 2.8). However, “this definition underscores the contextual nature of beliefs and indicates that beliefs are not only a cognitive concept; they are also social constructs born out of our experiences and problems” (Barcellos, 2003, p. 10). The second definition implies that belief systems are highly organised and based on experience. Finally, the last definition places emphasis on the fact that beliefs are very personal but also hard to articulate, as ‘they are felt to be true’ (emphasis added).

In cognitive psychology, beliefs are described as an individual’s attitude towards reality and as factors that affect an individual’s thoughts and behavioural patterns (Harvey, 1986; Johnson, 1994). Rokeach (1972) has described beliefs as having three dimensions: A cognitive, an affective and a behavioural which, in turn, have an effect on a person’s knowledge, feelings and actions. Brown and Cooney (1982) also defined beliefs as determinants of one’s actions and behaviour.

What most scholars agree on is that when we talk about beliefs, we actually talk about a system, a set of beliefs or a network “which is coherent … focused around some central issue, and … is not held by everyone in a given culture” (Linde, 1980, p. 13). Woods (1996, p. 70) states that “a belief system deals not only with beliefs about the way things are, but also with the way things should be”, thus highlighting the personal factor, as every individual has a different view of how things should be.3

---

3 See also Richardson’s definition above.
This general discussion on beliefs is concluded with Borg's definition on beliefs (2001, p. 186) which brings together the common features of beliefs as these have been identified in various attempts to define beliefs:

“A belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour.”

2.2.1 Defining teacher beliefs in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Now that beliefs have been defined and discussed from a psychological perspective, in this section the focus is on reviewing the literature in order to describe teacher beliefs.

Barcelos (2003) presents a few terms and definitions available in SLA literature about beliefs (Table 2.1). Looking at these definitions Barcelos (2003) concludes that it becomes clear that in all definitions it is stressed that beliefs about SLA refer to the nature of language and language learning. Also, in some definitions the social and cultural nature of beliefs is emphasised (Barcelos, 1995; Cortazzi and Jin, 1996).

Table 2.1 Different Terms and Definitions of Beliefs about SLA (adapted from Barcelos, 2003, p. 9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TERMS</th>
<th>DEFINITIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Representations (Riley, 1989, 1994, p. 8)</td>
<td>“Popular ideas about the nature of language and languages, language structure and language use, the relationship between thought and language, identity and language, language and intelligence, language and learning and so on.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Beliefs (Gardner, 1988, p. 110)</td>
<td>“Expectations in the minds of teachers, parents and students concerning the entire second language acquisition task.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture of Learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1996, p. 230)</td>
<td>“The cultural aspects of teaching and learning; what people believe about 'normal' and 'good' learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, more definitions are available in the literature about beliefs. Regarding teacher beliefs, they have been defined by Kagan (1992, p. 65) as “tacit, often consciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught”. Richards (1998, p. 66) sees teacher beliefs as

> “the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom.”

Basturkmen et al (2004, p. 244) define teacher beliefs as

> “statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what ‘should be done’, ‘should be the case’, and ‘is preferable’.”

In educational research teacher beliefs are seen as having a filtering effect on all aspects of teachers’ thoughts, judgements and decisions (ibid.) (see 3.3), and research studies are based on three assumptions (Johnson, 1994):

- Beliefs influence teachers’ actions in the classroom
- Beliefs affect the way teachers understand what learning and teaching are and how they integrate this knowledge in the classroom
- Beliefs need to be understood by both trainers and trainees in order to design effective teacher preparation programmes.

Donaghue (2003) explains that beliefs are difficult to elicit as they are subconscious and this is why there are differences between what theories a teacher claims to support and how these are reflected in action. Donaghue (2003) also stresses that subconsciously when asked about their beliefs teachers might want to promote a particular image of themselves.

In addition, Nespor (1987) has identified six main belief properties that should be considered when researching teacher beliefs:

- Beliefs might contain assumptions about the existence of essences beyond the
teacher’s control

- They can include conceptualisations of ideal situations that differ from reality
- They rely heavily on affective and evaluative components
- They derive much of their power from memories of specific events
- They are not open to critical examination
- The domains to which specific beliefs may apply may be undefined.

Looking in detail in all the above definitions, what becomes clear is that there are contrasting aspects of L2 teacher beliefs. More specifically, “beliefs are considered to be personal and social/cultural; implicit and explicit; practical and theoretical; dynamic and resistant; complex and systematic entities involving many facets” (Gabillon, 2012, p. 192).

Based on all the above, for the purposes of the present study Borg’s (2001, p. 186 – see 2.2) definition is adopted, as it summarises all major characteristics of beliefs:

- Beliefs may be consciously or unconsciously held, i.e. teachers may not always be consciously aware of their beliefs probably because they were not given the chance to reflect on their actions and to verbalise their beliefs.
- Beliefs are evaluative, i.e. they are statements about the appropriateness of an activity in a given situation (Rokeach, 1972).
- Beliefs are personal, and therefore teachers stick to their beliefs and regard them part of their personality, thus beliefs are difficult to change.
- Beliefs guide action, i.e. they have a behavioural component attached that influences action (Rokeach, 1972).

---

4 This implies that belief change is difficult to achieve and contrasts with Dewey’s definition given earlier in this section, who argues that beliefs can be questioned. The fact that opposite ideas are expressed regarding belief systems shows the complexity of how these systems operate.
2.3 Beliefs vs. Knowledge

The British educational theorist Pajares (1992) mentions that there is a confusion and difficulty in studying beliefs that partially stems from the difficulty of distinguishing beliefs from knowledge. The two terms are often used in the literature inconsistently (Loch, n.d.). Nespor (1987) is one of the scholars who distinguished beliefs from knowledge by highlighting the fact that knowledge is open to critical examination and reason. Attempts to disaggregate the two concepts have resulted in proposing some defining characteristics for each one which are listed and contrasted in Table 2.2 (see table 2.2).

Table 2.2  Belief systems vs. Knowledge systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief systems</th>
<th>Knowledge systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>are not open to evaluation and critical examination (Nespor, 1987)</td>
<td>are open to evaluation and critical examination (Nespor, 1987)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organise and define tasks and problems (Nespor, 1987)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are static and represent eternal truths that remain unchanged (Roehler et al, 1988)</td>
<td>are fluid and evolve as new experiences are interpreted and integrated into existing schemata (Roehler et al, 1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- are based on evaluation and judgement (Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- are more open to debate as they rely heavily on affective and personal evaluations (Grossman et al, 1989), i.e. they contain a high degree of episodic material (Woods, 1996)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have differing degrees of strength (Woods, 1996)</td>
<td>refer to things we ‘know’ – conventionally accepted facts (Woods, 1996; Calderhead, 1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have unclear boundaries (Woods, 1996)</td>
<td>are structured (Genberg, 1992)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By examining the table, it quickly becomes clear that contrary to knowledge, beliefs are deeply personal and determine people’s actions (see 2.2). Another point that comes out of table 2.2 is the challenge of defining beliefs and knowledge, as some characteristics are mutually exclusive. For example, belief systems are described by Nespor (1987) as not

Other researchers (e.g. Lewis, 1990; Pintrich, 1990) do not make such extreme distinctions and argue that

“both knowledge and beliefs … influence a wide variety of cognitive processes including memory, comprehension, deduction and induction, problem representation, and problem solution.” (Pintrich, 1990, p.836)

A further point stressed in the literature is that knowledge is regarded as easier to research, mainly because it is more structured. Aristotle was the first to distinguish between technical and practical knowledge in order to emphasise that knowledge is not only “book knowledge”, but it can also be acquired through experience (Eraut, 1994). There is disagreement among epistemologists on how many different types of knowledge there might be (Fenstermacher, 1994). Here, there is just a brief presentation of the types of knowledge suggested by Shulman (1986), as his work has been influential in cognition studies. Shulman (1986) suggests that there are three types of knowledge (Figure 2.1):

**Forms of Knowledge**

- Propositional
  - Principles
- Case
  - Maxims
  - Norms
- Strategic
  - Prototypes
  - Precedents
  - Parables

**Figure 2.1** Forms of Knowledge according to Shulman (1986, p. 10-13)

a) Propositional knowledge: This is scientific knowledge “as it appears in standard or conventional behavioural science research” (Fenstermacher, 1994, p. 6) and can be divided into three categories:

- Principles: Derive from empirical research *(ibid., p. 11)*
- Maxims: The accumulated wisdom of practice *(ibid., p. 11)*
• Norms: Values that should be incorporated and employed, as they are morally or ethically right (ibid., p. 11)

b) Case knowledge: This is the “knowledge of specific, well-documented, and richly described events” (ibid., p. 11) and Shulman (1986, p. 11) divides it into the following three categories:

• Prototypes: They are theoretical principles
• Precedents: They are principles of practice
• Parables: They are norms or values.

c) Strategic knowledge: This is knowledge about action, about what to do next. It is the knowledge people use to decide what action to perform, what further steps to take in a given situation where actions have observable consequences (Gruber, 1989).

The concepts of beliefs and knowledge are again contrasted in the next section, but in relation to teachers and teaching.

2.3.1 Teacher Beliefs vs. Teacher Knowledge

Like teacher beliefs, teacher knowledge is another concept that has caused heated discussions in research. Defining teacher knowledge has proved to be less intriguing compared to defining teacher beliefs, but there are issues regarding whether teachers rely more on their knowledge or on their beliefs and how teacher knowledge develops or changes. Shavelson and Stern (1981), for example, argue that teachers rely on their beliefs to guide them when knowledge is not available. Social constructionists, similarly found that teachers' beliefs are more influential than knowledge in determining how teachers organise and define tasks, and are considered better predictors of the teachers' behaviour in the classroom (Williams and Burden, 1997). Woods (1996), in his discussion on terminology in language teacher cognition research, concludes that distinguishing
between beliefs and knowledge is problematic and stresses that he cannot see any qualitative difference between knowledge and belief systems. Therefore, he suggests the inclusive term BAK (Beliefs, Assumptions and Knowledge) which refers not only to beliefs, assumptions and knowledge but also to the relationship between them and to their interrelated structure. Similarly, Borg (2003a, p. 86) adopts the term 'cognition' as an inclusive one “to embrace the complexity of teachers’ mental lives.”

Going back to the influential work of Shulman (1986; see 2.3) the three types of knowledge are briefly defined in relation to teacher knowledge. So teachers hold:

a) Propositional knowledge, which refers to "what is taught to teachers" (Shulman, 1986, p.10), i.e. the knowledge they gain as a result of their studies and of their reading.

b) Case knowledge, which describes the knowledge teachers possess as a result of their classroom experience.

c) Strategic knowledge, which is the type of knowledge that "comes into play as the teacher confronts particular situations or problems ... [It] is developed when the lessons of single principles contredit one another, or the precedents of particular cases are incompatible" (ibid., p.13). As it is the case with case knowledge, teachers gain strategic knowledge within the classroom.

Woods (1996) explains that all these different types of knowledge are interrelated and do not operate in isolation. In fact, when one item of knowledge is changed, it has immediate effect on the other pieces of knowledge, i.e. the growth of knowledge results in a reorganization of the whole system. But does this process affect one’s beliefs? If it is accepted that beliefs and knowledge are closely linked, then it might; if it is supported that beliefs are not related to knowledge, then it might not. But this is not simply a yes-no question. Although in the present study the focus is specifically on teachers’ beliefs rather
than knowledge, the writer agrees with Pajares (1992) and Borg (2003a) that beliefs and knowledge are inextricably intertwined, as each further step we decide to take is the result of the development of the knowledge and the experience we gain, which, in turn, affect our beliefs. And this is part of the challenge teacher education faces: To develop teachers’ knowledge and to promote the transformation of beliefs into knowledge (Joram and Gabriele, 1998) (see 3.3.1), i.e. to help teachers to become aware of their beliefs by making them explicit.

Reading the literature on teacher knowledge leads to the conclusion that over time the term has expanded and broadened significantly (Ben-Peretz, 2011). Back in 1988 the term teacher knowledge was defined by Grossman and Richert (1988) as a body of professional knowledge encompassing knowledge and general pedagogical principles and skills as well as knowledge of the subject matter to be taught. Later in 2002 Clarke and Hollingsworth linked the knowledge growth of teachers with teacher change, and in 2003 Tang stressed the impact of context on teacher knowledge. So, "the closer we come to the present time, the more demands are made on the knowledge required by teachers" (Ben-Peretz, 2011, p.8). Teacher knowledge now does not solely describe the knowledge of subject matter, curriculum and pedagogical knowledge. It encompasses more general themes such as global issues and multiculturalism (ibid.). It is strongly related to individual experiences and contexts, thus understanding it is useful for the improvement of teacher education and it can aid making educational innovations more successful (Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer, 2001). Teacher education programmes nowadays cannot be limited to simply developing teachers' competencies in the subject matter; teacher education calls for "a more socially-conscious conception of teaching and teacher education" (Ben-Peretz, 2011).
2.4 Influential factors in the development of beliefs

Richards (1998) explains that teacher beliefs are shaped as a result of experience, school practice, personality, education theory, reading and other sources. In the literature (Pajares, 1992; Stergiopoulou, 2012) there are four main factors responsible for the development of the beliefs teachers hold: a) Apprenticeship of observation, b) Knowledge and educational development, c) Teaching experience, and d) Contextual factors.

2.4.1 Apprenticeship of observation

Teachers’ beliefs about teaching are formed early in life through their experience as learners (Pajares, 1992; Mok, 1994; Borg, 2003a), which means that teachers’ development is closely linked to their prior individual personal experiences as students (Haritos, 2004). This is what Lortie (1975, cited in Pajares, 1992) called the ‘apprenticeship of observation’. These early beliefs exert an influence on teachers throughout their professional lives (Johnson, 1994; Mok, 1994; Borg, 2003a) and include ideas about effective teaching and learning, about the subject matter teachers teach, and about the responsibilities they have. By the time students enter university they have spent 12 to 13 years of closely observing teachers and scrutinising their behaviour (Karavas and Drossou, 2010), so teachers may end up teaching the way they were taught. The fact that these beliefs are deeply personal makes it difficult for research to propose a universal and consistent teacher image (Haritos, 2004).

It has also been argued that as these beliefs form the basis of prospective teachers’ conceptualisations of language teaching (Borg, 2006a), they are resistant to change, even when there is evidence that contradicts them (Nisbett and Ross, 1980). This is because with time they become robust and individuals hold on them “even when they are no longer accurate representations of reality” (Pajares, 1992, p. 317). As mentioned in 2.3.1,
the challenge for teacher education is to change or re-form beliefs that are already part of the student teachers’ belief system. Richards et al (2001) argue that the reason why teacher education appears to fail to change these early beliefs, the ‘core’ beliefs, is perhaps because it rarely addresses them. But if through training teachers are given the opportunity to try out practices that may not conform to their core beliefs and these practices prove to be successful, then they argue that belief accommodation or change is possible. Interestingly, however, Bailey et al (1996) point out that the apprenticeship of observation will only exert that much influence on a teacher's instructional behaviour as the teacher permits. This is so because teachers' beliefs are not rooted only on the teachers' prior learning experiences as learners, but there are additional influential factors, which are discussed in the sections 2.4.2, 2.4.3, and 2.4.4.

2.4.2 Knowledge and educational development

Having in mind the discussion on knowledge in 2.3 and in 2.3.1, its value in shaping beliefs and affecting action can be recognised. When students enter university they already have fixed beliefs about teaching and learning, which according to research are rather stable (Johnson, 1994) and sometimes unrealistic or naive (Posner et al, 1982; Brookhart and Freeman, 1992). However, during their studies, they accommodate into their system the theories and the ideas they are presented with, thus they might change or modify the beliefs they already hold (see 3.3).

But knowledge received during one's studies should not be viewed in isolation of “how it is learned and how it is used. It is through looking at the contexts (see 2.4.4) of its acquisition and its use that its essential nature is revealed” (Eraut, 1994, p. 19). This means that teachers have numerous opportunities to learn: At university, in the classroom,

---

5 For possible reasons of this, see the points raised in the previous section (2.4.1).
in seminars (pre- and in-service), from searching the web, or from exchanging ideas with each other. The knowledge they gain from all these contexts is reflected in their actions once they enter the classroom and start planning their lessons. Breen (1991, p.232) suggests that

"by uncovering the kinds of knowledge and beliefs which teachers hold and how they express these through the meanings they give to their work, we may come to know the most appropriate support we can provide in in-service development."

In sum, both education and training (pre- and in-service) are important in shaping what teachers know and believe. Eraut (1994, p. 3) highlights this when he says that

“Some learning is associated with new input, some with new use; and some, no doubt with the period in between when there may be reflection on input or contemplation of use.”

The link between knowledge and practice leads to the next section, where the role of experience is discussed.

2.4.3 Experience

In the online Macmillan dictionary 'experience' is defined as the “knowledge and skill that is gained through time spent doing a job or activity” but also as “the knowledge that you get from life and from being in a lot of different situations”. In the first part of the definition the focus is on the time factor, but in the second part the focus is more qualitative, as the emphasis is placed on accumulating wisdom through active participation in a variety of situations.

According to Dewey (1966), experience is not a mental state but the interaction, adaptation and adjustment of individuals to the environment. He also explains that there are two fundamental principles in the constitution of experience: 1) The principle of
continuity, which refers to the connection between past and future experiences and 2) The principle of interaction, which refers to the transaction between an individual and the environment.

Defining what constitutes teacher experience, however, varies greatly in the literature. Teacher experience is mainly described on the basis of the number of years a teacher has taught (Rodriguez & McKay, 2010). The time span varies from 2-3 years (Bastick, 2002) to 9 years or more (Atay, 2008). Most commonly, however, teachers are characterised as experienced when they have approximately 5 or more years of actual classroom experience (Gatbonton, 1999, Richards et al, 1998, Tsui, 2003).

Experience affects the formation of beliefs, as implied in Sigel’s definition of beliefs (see 2.2). Similarly Orton (1996, p. 140) highlights that

> “teacher beliefs are not rooted in general theories of learning, cognition, or instruction, but in what has worked in the past, situations, particular instances, trial and error, and ‘muddling through’. Experience, rather than general principles of instruction, is regarded by teachers as the sine qua non of effective teaching.”

So, experience plays a pivotal role in shaping the beliefs teachers hold and in helping teachers to interpret and evaluate new beliefs and principles before adopting them (Richards, 1998). The role of teaching experience is also highlighted by Borg (2006c, p. 40) who stresses that “classroom experience has been shown to have a powerful influence on teachers’ practical knowledge and hence to shape teachers’ actions”.

Fullan (2001) highlights the role of experience in relation to educational change when he explains that when teachers are involved in the teaching process they have the opportunity to test out their beliefs and as a result to develop new understandings, in order to be consistent with the teaching culture (see 2.4.4).
Woods (1996) supports that experience plays a vital role in the evolution of the individual system each teacher holds, the BAK (see 2.3.1). Similarly, Calderhead (1996, p. 717) states that as a result of experience teachers develop valuable knowledge bases which “enable them to draw readily on their past experiences”.

Experience allows teachers to interpret classroom events differently than their inexperienced colleagues (Freeman 1996a). This might be so because they can reflect on their multiple experiences and use them to construct a completely different understanding of classroom life (Ur, 1997). Nevertheless, Richards et al. (2001) give a different view of the role of teaching experience. They explain that novice and experienced teachers are differently affected by teaching experience. They see greater potential in novice teachers to adapt or change their beliefs once they enter the classroom and interact with colleagues. On the other hand, the greater a teacher's experience the more they rely on their core beliefs and may become less adaptable. This inflexibility due to experience was also underlined by Stergiopoulou (2008), who found that teaching experience may be an obstacle to change, as established routines from experience might be shortcuts and efficiencies that teachers may be reluctant to change. Fullan (2001, p. 33) explains that experienced teachers can change if they have enough support from the work context. This support, he argues, is necessary because of the special reality teachers face in their daily life:

“... teaching decisions are often made on pragmatic trial-and-error grounds with little chance for reflection or thinking through the rationale; teachers must deal with constant daily disruptions, both within the classroom such as managing discipline and interpersonal conflicts, and from outside the classroom such as … dealing with principals, parents and central office staff...”

So although experience is among the most influential factors in the shaping of teacher beliefs, the learning value of experience only is to be questioned. Because the actual
numbers of years of teaching does not equal or guarantee expertise (Rodriguez & McKay, 2010). Tsui (2003) clarifies that some experienced teachers can be considered experts, while others remain "experienced non-experts" (ibid., p.3). It must be clarified that experience should be viewed more broadly as it encompasses the wisdom the teacher gains as a result of

- the everyday teaching in the classroom
- exchanging ideas with colleagues
- attending seminars
- reading
- receiving various stimuli from the general context.

The broad description of 'experience' above, also includes development seminars and reading and not just classroom experience. This is so, because experience alone is not enough and learning only from oneself is limited (Johnston, 1994; Ur, 1997; Tom, 1999; Kunzman, 2003). In the classroom teachers can experiment with different teaching methods and learn through trial and error; but it is logical to ask at whose expense these errors are made (Arnold, 1996). Research has shown that “gambling on this haphazard process endangers student learning and discourages many teachers from staying in the profession” (Kunzman, 2003, p. 245) as it has a demotivating effect. This is why experienced teachers should be encouraged to attend in-service seminars that allow them to situate their experiences in a context of reflection, feedback, and collaboration (ibid.), i.e. they can: a) Reflect on their experience, make it more explicit by being given the opportunity to share it with colleagues for example, interpret it and recognise it as a basis

---

6 There is an old adage saying that “Twenty years experience could be that, or be one year’s experience repeated twenty times”.

7 Combining the findings by Haritos (2004) (see 3.3.1) and Kunzman (2003) it is really interesting to see that both experienced and inexperienced teachers have similar gains from such seminars. The importance of reflection, feedback and collegiality is stressed by Haritos (2004) (see quote in 3.3.1) and Kunzman (2003) (see this section).
for future learning, but also b) Escape from their experience, i.e. challenge their assumptions and acquire new perceptions (Eraut, 1994). The importance of reflective EFL teacher training is highlighted in Papadopoulou (2002, p.319-320) who urges EFL teacher training practitioners to:

- Overcome the limitations of past models (e.g. the craft model, the applied science model).
- Consider the trainees' previous beliefs, ideas, images and preconceptions.
- Promote both received and experiential knowledge.
- Place an emphasis on reflection.
- Be context-specific, and
- To encourage the co-operation between teacher educators, experienced teachers and trainees.

Papadopoulou (2002) reports on a reflective teacher training session that was part of a teacher training course offered for experienced EFL teachers by the Aristotle University in Thessaloniki, Greece. The main aim of the session was to encourage participants to engage in reflection. After two weeks of the course it was observed that the participants' image of 'Teacher' changed in that it was enriched mainly in terms of new concepts (e.g. reflexivity, planning).

In other words, through attending in-service development programmes teachers cannot only expand their horizons, but they can also develop frameworks which they can use to evaluate and interpret their classroom experiences.
2.4.4 Contextual factors

The importance of context in shaping teachers’ practices and beliefs is also highlighted in the literature (Nunan, 1996; Borg, 2003a). Borg (2003a, p. 94) explains that context includes “the social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom”, i.e. parents, the school society, curriculum mandates, school policies, availability of resources, government documentation. Fullan (2000) adds that when there is rapport between all these contextual forces then learning occurs. If we omit context we will end up with a partial understanding of what is going on (Birello, 2012).

According to Richards (1998) and Haritos (2004), due to the fact that teacher development is quite complex, it is necessary to examine the practice of language teaching in its context. To mention an example, Kiely (2001) showed in his study how contextual factors, i.e. student feedback, promoted change in the way a teacher taught vocabulary. Atay (2008, p. 139) highlights the importance of context in relation to successful in-service training as he explains that

> “the knowledge transmitted [in in-service training programmes] is generally conceptually and practically far removed from the contexts of the teachers, and the situational factors affecting their classroom practices are not taken into account. As a consequence, the aim of increasing teachers' professional development is rarely achieved.”

It could be argued that because of the differences among various contexts it might be impossible or difficult for research looking into beliefs to lead to generalisations. However, because of the uniqueness of context, conclusions should not be drawn about behaviour without considering the defining context characteristics in which the behaviour occurs (Wright, 1992). Eraut (1994, p. 20) explains that “learning to use an idea in one context does not guarantee being able to use the same idea in another context”. This was highlighted by an experienced state school teacher in an interview, when asked if she can
identify any changes in her teaching as a result of experience (Stergiopoulou, 2008). She explained that before being appointed in a state secondary school she used to work in a private school that specialised in teaching the German language and in preparing students who wanted to attend the German high school in Thessaloniki\(^8\) or to study in a German university. She used to work with motivated students, and she would prepare a lot of extra work and not just rely on the material covered in the coursebook. So, having had this experience, working in a state school was challenging in the beginning:

“Coming to a state school was a shock. I had to simplify the way I presented the language; otherwise I would not be able to cover the material. My teaching style was to give extra support to students through supplementary material. On my first year I did not manage to cover the material prescribed in the curriculum. So with time I have learnt to focus on a few simple things … so what I have changed is that I have decided to reduce a great amount of information that has proved to be superfluous in the context of a state school and focus on the basics. I am happy now if the students are able to greet in German, or ask someone how they are and respond … You let go of a lot of things, but then again this has to do with the type of experience someone has.” (Stergiopoulou, 2008, p. 19)

So what this suggests is that each teaching context is a different pedagogical situation, a unique context.

To conclude, it must be underlined that there is a dynamic relationship among the four factors discussed above (see 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3, 2.4.4) and this is illustrated in figure 2.2. The dotted box is the context within which the factors operate. The two-sided arrows indicate the dynamic relationship among the factors: Teachers enter university and have already shaped a view of teaching and learning based on their own learning experiences in schools, but while at university they are still learners. In addition, while at university they might also attend pre-service seminars. Once they enter the classroom they carry with them all that ‘baggage’ which has been argued to affect the way they teach. There is a two-sided arrow between the last two boxes, as while teaching they might attend in-

\(^8\) This is a private, fee-paying school where most subjects are taught in German.
service seminars, thus they are again learners. Thus, any change within one of the factors that influence the shaping of the belief system, affects the rest of the system.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.2** Dynamic relationships among the factors that influence the shaping of beliefs

Teachers receive input from a variety of sources that are context-dependent. This input is filtered by each teacher in a different way depending on their personality and experiences and is then reflected upon their teaching (see 3.3 and figure 3.4). The relationships of these factors as these are illustrated in figure 2.2 underpin the design of the study and as a result my approach to the analysis, as their implications for the shaping of the teachers’ beliefs are considered.

### 2.5 Teacher Education, Teacher Training, Teacher Development

The term teacher education is a broad one and it encompasses, as described by the Global Teacher Education Organisation ([www.globalteachereducation.org](http://www.globalteachereducation.org)), both pre- and in-service learning experiences for educators. Back in 1986, Sarason *et al* (1986) highlighted the need for research to look into teacher preparation programmes and to study their effects on teachers because teacher education can offer a variety of benefits to teachers: The acquisition of knowledge, changes in beliefs, gaining skills, developing new attitudes and dispositions (Shahmohammadi, 2014).

Ur (1997) distinguishes between teacher training and teacher development. She defines teacher training as “preparation for professional practice usually through formal courses at
colleges or universities”. Thus, the term refers to pre-service courses that usually result in some kind of recognised accreditations, i.e. a certificate. On the other hand she explains that teacher development “usually refers to professional learning by teachers already engaged in professional practice”, i.e. it refers to in-service training. Based on her review of the literature, she presents a table (Table 2.3) which is a contrastive list of all the characteristics of training and development found in the literature. By looking at the teacher development column in table 2.3 it becomes clear that development contains a reflective aspect (items 1-6) but also a person-centred approach (items 7-10) (Ur, 1997). The last item, that of teacher empowerment, is according to Ur (1997) a key item in successful teacher development, although it does not always happen.

**Table 2.3 Training vs Development (from Ur, 1997)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training</th>
<th>Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imposed from &quot;above&quot;</td>
<td>Initiated by &quot;self&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-determined course structure</td>
<td>Structure determined through process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not based on personal experience</td>
<td>Based on personal experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Externally determined syllabus</td>
<td>Syllabus determined by participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External evaluation</td>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input from &quot;experts&quot;</td>
<td>Input from participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unthinking acceptance of information</td>
<td>Personal construction of knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive, cerebral</td>
<td>Cognitive and affective, &quot;whole person&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolated</td>
<td>Collaborative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stresses professional skills</td>
<td>Stresses personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disempowers individual teacher</td>
<td>Empowers individual teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Freeman (1982) also distinguishes between training and development. According to him, “training assumes that teaching is a finite skill, one which can be acquired and mastered” (*ibid.*, p. 21), whereas “development assumes that teaching is a constantly evolving process of growth and change. It is an expansion of skills and understanding”(*ibid.*, p. 21). In other words, development is viewed as more dynamic. He also underlines that this
distinction between training and development also implies a difference in scope, as training addresses certain immediate needs (e.g. helping an inexperienced teacher enter a class with some degree of confidence), whereas development has broader, long-term concerns (e.g. how a teacher can be encouraged to grow, to explore new avenues and ideas, and, thereby, to avoid professional atrophy or the feeling that one has done it all before).

Another scholar, Barduhn (2005) has also attempted to define development and argues that teacher development encompasses two branches of growth:

a. **Professional development**, which involves attending conferences, seminars, exchanging ideas with colleagues and is energy and time consuming

b. **Personal development**, which involves accepting that no-growth situation in a teacher’s personal development can lead to stagnation, frustration and loss of satisfaction. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to learn from their accumulated experiences by reflecting on them, for example.

To sum up, in this study the focus is on in-service teacher courses and the following terms are used interchangeably to refer to such courses: In-service training/seminars/courses, teacher development seminars.

### 2.6 Learning and teacher change – belief change: The requirements of teacher development programmes

In the past good teaching was solely seen as an art, whereas nowadays, though still seen as having a creative element, research has led to the knowledge that there are “principles, skills, behaviours, techniques, strategies, beliefs, and attitudes that have an impact on teaching and learning and that they can be studied and taught” (Shahmohammadi, 2014,
This means that effective teacher education can make a difference and as a result teachers can change.

Teacher change is a crucial aspect to the field of Second Language Teacher Education (Richards et al, 2001), as teacher education seeks to initiate change of one sort or another, which is why understanding the nature of change is important. Change can be observed in teachers' knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, practices, and self-awareness (ibid.). Karavas-Doukas (1998) describes effective change as being synonymous with continuous and systematic teacher education, thus highlighting the importance of continuing professional development.

In the present study change is examined in terms of change in the beliefs and practices of experienced EFL teachers about language, language learning, and language teaching that might happen as a result of (a) teaching experience or (b) in-service training.

Research has shown that teacher beliefs are stable and resistant to change (Kagan, 1992; see 2.2) and when changes occur then these are achieved slowly (Calderhead, 1996; Peacock, 2001) and only when considerable support is available to teachers (Calderhead, 1996). Borg (2011) underlines that teacher education can impact on what teachers do only if it impacts on their beliefs. However, he goes on to explain that only little research has been conducted on the extent to which in-service teacher education impacts on the beliefs of participant teachers. Mattheoudakis and Nicolaidis (2005) stress that the difficulty in promoting long-term change through teacher training courses may be due to an imbalance between theory and practice. They explain that although the teachers prefer the emphasis on practice, this may result in the mere provision of recipes which, though useful, are difficult to apply as each teacher encounters different teaching contexts (e.g. student
groups vary, resources and syllabi vary). Pasa and Cagla (2015) believe that change can
happen, but this requires time and effort. Harwell (2003) adds that professional
development can yield successful results provided there is support from the setting and
context in which it takes place: It is through offering consistent and high-quality teacher
development programmes that teachers can be expected to change. The notion of change
is described by Freeman (1989, p.29-30) around the following aspects:

- Change does not necessarily mean doing something differently; it can mean change in
  awareness or affirmation of current practice.
- Change does not necessarily have to be immediate or complete; it takes time.
- Some changes are directly accessible and thereafter quantifiable, whereas others are not.
- Some changes can come to closure while others are open-ended.

Bailey (1992, p.271) accepts that teachers change and identifies the following six catalysts
for change:

- dissatisfaction with the current situation teachers face
- the connection of a new idea with the teachers' own situation
- a change in the teaching context
- life changes and personal growth leading to professional development
- a realisation of something based on the teachers' own experience as learner
- a conflict between the teachers' beliefs and their practices.

Linking change to teacher programmes, Guskey (1986) explains that such programmes
aim to bring about change in the teachers’ classroom practices, in their beliefs and
attitudes, and in the students’ learning outcomes. However, there is little empirical
evidence that suggests that teacher training on its own can influence teachers’ beliefs (see
3.2.2) (Peacock, 2001). Besides, input does not equal intake (Pennington, 1996), as
teachers take in only those aspects of the input provided that are accessible to them. An experienced teacher in a study carried out by Stergiopoulou (2012), when interviewed, gave another reason why some seminars fail to promote change:

“In seminars they just present new and exciting ideas, but they never tell us what difficulties we are going to face in the classroom when teaching. It is only with experience that you know, for example, what difficulties your students are going to face when you present a grammatical phenomenon, so then you can adapt the focus of your lesson by taking the difficulties under consideration in your lesson plan.” (Stergiopoulou, 2012, p. 106)

However, according to the literature, teacher training programmes can be effective if the following characteristics are added when designing a training course:

1. Offering practical ideas that can be used in the classroom to enhance learning outcomes in students (Guskey, 1986)

2. Paying attention to how teachers understand their classrooms, the syllabus, their teaching and acting accordingly (Williams and Burden, 1997)

3. Helping teachers become aware of their beliefs (ibid.)

4. Fostering the notion of critical reflection (ibid., Batten, 1991)

5. Combining development and training (Ur, 1997)


The second and the last points above indicate that the beliefs teachers already hold should be taken into account when a teacher enters a training course. Research has shown that teachers, especially pre-service teachers, enter training courses believing they know what teaching is all about and may seem that they do not appreciate the complexities of
teaching (Weinstein, 1990), as they simply view it as a knowledge transmission process (Pajares, 1992). What the trainers should consider is that entering teachers bring with them their experiences and hold beliefs that are quite stable (Johnson, 1994; Joram and Gabrielle, 1998; Wideen et al, 1998), which have a significant impact on what and how they learn (Peacock, 2001).

Accepting that belief change happens, how does it happen? Guskey (1986) has proposed a model (Figure 3.1) that illustrates teacher change as a learning process that is developmental and experientially based. According to Guskey (1986), very few teachers leave a development seminar thoroughly convinced that the ideas presented will work for them. Therefore, the moment the teachers enter their classrooms after a training seminar, they should allow themselves some time for experimentation. But during that time they should be provided with enough support and guidance by their trainers or employers to help increase their confidence, and they should be given opportunities to interact and share ideas. This process of interaction can provide teachers with feedback on the students’ progress as a result of the new practices implemented; and when teachers see from the feedback that the new ideas were effective in their classrooms they might change or adapt their beliefs and attitudes (see 2.4.4).

![Figure 3.1 Guskey’s (1986, p. 7) change model]

But is change a linear process? It can be argued that each stage in Guskey’s model above raises a number of questions:
• What makes a teacher enter staff development? Is this decision extrinsically or intrinsically motivated? Motivation can be argued to be a crucial factor that plays an important role and affects the way input is received.

• Is change in practices at the second stage more like the teacher experimenting with new practices? Does belief change precede or follow such experimentation?

• Does change in student learning outcomes refer to improved outcomes for all students, or the majority? How soon should changes like this be apparent? What if a teacher is already happy with the students’ outcomes? Would s/he then ‘experiment’ with new practices?

• What is the role of context (see 2.4.4) in the whole process?

• Is change in beliefs in the last stage a result of the input the teacher received in stage one or of what happened in the classroom, i.e. a result of actual classroom experience?

Going back to the points raised in 2.4, beliefs are hard to change, even if they prove to be inconsistent with the reality of the classroom. Posner et al (1982) have explained that new beliefs might be formed when individuals are not satisfied with their existing beliefs, but the new beliefs should be consistent with the rest of the beliefs in the system. A point, however, on which many researchers agree is that experience is the most influential factor, as it is only in the classroom that beliefs can be tested and challenged (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Pennington, 1996). However, one should make clear conceptualisations of the term 'experience' (see 2.4.3).

Woods (1996) identifies two aspects which he argues are catalysts for change: Reflection and interaction. The importance of reflection is stressed in the literature, as it allows for processes to take place at a deep personal level (Pennington, 1996) and it helps teachers to make sense of the situations they find themselves in (Williams and Burden, 1997) (see
3.3.1). Interaction, i.e. talking about the details of one’s teaching with colleagues or trainers, allows teachers to make their beliefs explicit (Orton, 1996), which is a necessary step before beliefs can be subject to examination (see 3.3.1).

Change is not impossible as it is natural for teachers to evolve over time (Woods, 1996). It is, however, a complex process and it involves the questioning and challenging of one’s beliefs (Burns, 1992) and a deconstruction of the existing belief system, which might result in periods of frustration and disorientation (Woods, 1996). As it has already been highlighted, experience and the opportunity to test one’s beliefs out in the classroom are the two most influential factors for change in beliefs and behaviour. However, the support from work context is also vital, and one of the experienced teachers in Stergiopoulou (2008, p. 116) highlighted this by saying that “in order for a teacher to change, there need to be a lot of things into play and the state school does not welcome changes, so the teachers stop trying.” This may be a strong critique on the Greek state school in-service training system, but it reflects the will of experienced teachers to change as well as their need to feel they are fully supported and motivated by the wider school context.

The implications of the above for teacher training courses are presented in the next section.

2.7 Teacher development courses – Implications for in-service training

In the present study one of the two main focal points is belief change as a result of in-service teacher training courses (see 1.2). The concepts of teacher education, teacher training and teacher development have been defined in 2.5. In this section the aim is to discuss the implications of research on belief for teacher development programmes. Teachers need to attend qualitative in-service training in order to adapt themselves to the
constantly changing educational theories, technologies, and curricula, and in-service training programmes should be designed with the aim to provide teachers with solutions to the problems they encounter (Balta et al, 2015).

Berry (1990, p. 97 - capitals in the original) explains that in-service training courses for language teachers have the following underlying repertoire:

1. A typically primary SKILLS component, involving such activities as teaching observation and practice in various forms; the HOW of language teaching;
2. A METHODOLOGY component … which will be closely related, if not joined to (1);
3. A THEORY component … dealing with theories of language, learning and teaching … the aim of methodology could be seen as being to relate THEORY and SKILLS;
4. A SUBJECT MATTER component, i.e. study of the language itself … and of the culture and literature associated with it … the WHAT of language teaching;
5. A LANGUAGE IMPROVEMENT component, designed to improve the teachers' proficiency in the language, either generally, or with specific pedagogic purposes in mind... however the value of [this component] is often underestimated or taken for granted.

Ellis (1990) presents a simpler description of teacher education programmes saying that they comprise basically two components: The experiential and the awareness-raising ones. The experiential component is more clearly linked to actual teaching and contains practices like team teaching, peer observation, or micro-teaching; while the awareness-raising component contains tasks and procedures based on experiential data (e.g. teachers compare lesson plans, or evaluate material, or discuss a teacher's choices after having watched a video etc.).
Karavas-Doukas (1998), based on findings of research on teacher education, lists the main characteristics teacher training programmes need to share if the aim is change:

a) They must be systematic, ongoing and long term
b) Teacher attitude change is a key aspect of the teacher training process
c) Training takes into account teachers' existing knowledge and experience
d) Making teachers change agents and not merely recipients of change.

However, apart from what components and characteristics an in-service programme must contain, another aspect to be kept in mind is the teachers' actual needs. Mok (1994) distinguishes between experienced and inexperienced teachers and explains that pre-service teachers have different needs from in-service teachers. For instance, student teachers enter a course expecting to learn how to teach, whereas experienced teachers want to get practical ideas and advice on how to deal with problems that arise. In addition to the participants’ expectations and needs, teacher trainers also need to be aware of certain things, if they aim towards change. Guskey (1986) has stressed the need for clarity, experimentation, support and feedback. He also explained that teacher trainers need to realise that change is a slow and difficult process and they are likely to face resistance from the teachers. But if they manage to present the input as clearly as possible, then the teachers might be intrigued in experimenting themselves with the new practice (see figure 3.1).

What is widely stressed in the literature is that teacher development seminars should encourage teachers to become critical and reflective thinkers (Richards, 1998; Mueller and Skamp, 2003) as reflection can increase teachers’ awareness of their belief systems (Williams and Burden, 1997) and allows them to develop an increased understanding of who they are and of the nature of teaching (Schön, 1983). Burns (1992) explains that in
training programmes teachers should be given the opportunity to articulate and reflect upon their beliefs and practices. Such programmes should provide teachers with a safe environment where participants can understand and come to terms with who they are, what they believe and how they make sense of what they do (Johnson, 1994) by encouraging reflection. In sum, in-service programmes should aim at promoting self-inquiry and critical thinking so that teachers can develop the ability to view their practices from a different perspective, that of a reflective and critical practitioner (Richards, 1998).

In addition, teacher trainers need to take the beliefs participant teachers hold into account (Brown and McGannon, 1998). Thus in-service training must focus on the beliefs and thinking teachers employ, on how they frame and problematise issues, and on the ways in which they draw on experience, beliefs, and pedagogical reasoning skills in teaching (Richards, 1998). And this must be done because the input presented will “compete with, replace or otherwise modify the folk theories that already guide both teachers and pupils” (Bruner, 1996, p. 46 cited in Joram and Gabriele, 1998). In other words, the beliefs teachers hold represent interpretive lenses through which participant teachers perceive and filter the input they receive (Haritos, 2004). Once trainers receive that knowledge, it allows them to provide participants with support and to minimise any potential conflict, disillusionment, frustration and shock (ibid.). This means that in a training course teachers should be helped to make connections between their prior experiences as teachers but also as learners towards building new knowledge and an understanding of their roles as teachers (Brown and McGannon, 1998). However, the extent to which teacher training programmes actually encourage reflection should be further researched.

A final point is that teacher education programmes should not be simply based on theory, but there should be a link between theory and practice (Korthagen and Kessels, 1999). A
training course should include substantial practical elements, e.g. peer observation, class-
based lesson planning (Arnold, 1996), micro-teaching situations⁹, focus groups, or reflection upon videorecorded lessons. The benefit of this is that teachers can develop better understanding of life in their classroom and can develop better foundation for making the teaching and learning processes more productive and pleasant (Allwright, 2003).

Haritos (2004, p. 652, emphasis added) stresses all the above when summarising the findings of her study. She concludes that teachers should develop an understanding of how the community they are part of sees their role and what expectations are placed on them:

“It is important for educators to help candidates in training develop more realistic teacher role beliefs, a better understanding of the micropolitics of the environmental demands placed upon them, a diverse cognitive repertoire of teaching strategies as well as the ability to reflect upon such strategies in order for them to be able to respond flexibly to their rapidly changing and demanding workplace. This endeavour necessitates the constant monitoring of candidates’ teaching beliefs and teaching practices throughout their training. Candidates must also be given constant feedback as well as ample opportunities to discuss their teaching experiences with peers, instructors, and cooperating teachers.”

Richards (1998) interestingly explains that when teachers attend training courses and seminars they should not expect to be presented with the perfect teaching method but they should try to discover, once they are back in their classroom, what works for them, discarding old practices and taking on new ones, thus emphasizing the need for reflection.

Harwell (2003, p. 2-7) defines high-quality professional development around three characteristics:

---

⁹ Micro-teaching is traditionally linked with teacher training. The activities used in micro-teaching provide different kinds of teaching experiences and can then be used for reflection and analysis (Richards, 1998).
1) The context: Professional development can succeed only in settings that support it and this support must first and foremost come from the administrators. In addition, the context must be conducive to the change the professional development programme is designed to bring about. Teachers are more likely to change or adapt their beliefs in settings in which learning is viewed as a communal activity. Therefore, teachers need time to interact, study together, and help each other apply new skills and strategies, because social persuasion is a powerful means in changing beliefs (Bandura, 1995).

2) The content: The content of a successful teacher development programme must be focused and serve a well-planned long-term strategy by a) deepening teachers' knowledge of the subject being taught, b) sharpening teaching skills in the classroom, c) keeping up with developments in education, d) generating and contributing new knowledge to the profession, and e) by increasing teachers' ability to monitor students' work.

3) The process: Professional development should be designed around research-documented practices (e.g. cooperative learning, generating and testing hypotheses, setting objectives and providing feedback) that enable teachers to develop the necessary skills to implement what they are learning.

Γρίβα και Παπαδοπούλου (2008) suggest a framework for EFL teacher training structured around the following principles:

- The principle of participation: The teachers must be actively involved in all stages of training.
- The principle of adaptation: Adapting the content to the teachers' needs and wishes.
- The principle of decentralisation: When designing a training course the various needs of different contexts should be considered.
- The principle of cooperation: Teachers and everyone involved in training (stakeholders,
trainers) should cooperate.

- The principle of prediction: Training should take place prior to the introduction of new curricula or of new school books.

- The principle of independent learning: The teachers must be partly responsible for the training process.

- The principle of practicality: The effectiveness of training depends on whether the input is applicable in real classrooms.

- The principle of reflection and action research: It is of paramount importance that the teachers are actively involved in research.

Borg (2011, p. 379) lists the following eight issues and argues that greater attention to these issues can increase the likelihood that in-service teacher education will impact on language teachers' beliefs:

1. Acknowledge that examining their beliefs may be a novel experience for teachers and provide appropriate support as necessary.

2. Assist teachers in clarifying their understandings of what beliefs are (i.e. how they are distinct from practices and from theoretical knowledge).

3. Ensure that teachers understand why they are being encouraged to examine their beliefs.

4. Make reflection on beliefs a central social teacher learning process by providing communal opportunities – e.g. in-class discussions – for teachers to talk about their beliefs.

5. Supplement feedback advising teachers that they need to examine their beliefs in greater depth with concrete examples of how this can be achieved.

6. Encourage 'Biographically responsive' reflective practices through which teachers can understand the formative influence of past educational and professional experiences on their current beliefs.
7. Assess teachers' attitudes to reflective writing and consider if necessary whether alternative mechanisms (e.g. graphical, oral, photographic) for articulating reflections can be made available for teachers to select from.

8. Provide teachers not only with opportunities to make their beliefs explicit but also with space to question and doubt those beliefs and powerful alternative conceptions to consider.

Thus, it can be concluded that

“through teacher education teachers' beliefs can be strengthened and extended; they can be made more apparent to teachers and assume a form that can be verbalised; teachers can learn how to put their beliefs into practice and also develop links between their beliefs and theory. Teacher education can of course also be the source of new beliefs for teachers.” (Borg 2011, p. 378)

In sum, teachers' in-service professional development supports and encourages interaction among experienced teachers, takes place over an extended period of time (rather than in one-shot workshops), and provides opportunities for the participants to try out new teaching practices in safe environments (e.g. micro-teaching) and receive feedback from colleagues (Harwell, 2003). In addition, compared to pre-service training, in-service training programmes can be argued to have more clearly defined goals as they train teachers on very specific areas (Shahmohammadi, 2014), for instance on teaching English to young learners, on classroom management, etc.

However, throughout the whole process of organising and delivering professional development programmes for teachers, the role of the administrator or trainer is of paramount importance. It was stressed earlier in this section that the administrator must support the programme and consider its components important. The trainer's personality and craftsmanship can have a great effect on the professional development programme. Παπαευθυμίου-Λύτρα (2006) stresses the importance of having trainers (regardless whether they are advisors or active teachers) who are specially trained and educated. The
reason is that the trainees are people who are younger, older or near the age of the trainer, they may have more or less experience, and most important is the fact that they have settled beliefs, entrenched strategies and do not easily adopt new standpoints without first critically analysing them (ibid.). So, it is important for the trainer to be aware of this luggage the trainees carry once they enter in-service training, since it is this set of beliefs that may inhibit or enforce the transmission of knowledge.

Καραβά (2006) describes an innovative project applied by the National Kapodistrian University of Athens in an attempt to explain how active teachers can become trainers. She talks about the mentor system that has been successfully implemented in other countries. The mentor teacher is the experienced teacher who guides, advises, and supports the trainees aiming at their professional and personal development. In other words, the mentor helps the trainee get acquainted with the complexities of the teaching practice and helps him/her to self-evaluate the effectiveness of each teaching technique. However, it is not only the trainee who benefits from this process. Having experienced teachers involved as mentors is an important part of their continuous professional development. Through the whole process the mentors become aware of their actual teaching practices and develop the ability to self-reflect and self-evaluate. Καραβά (2006) concludes that for a teacher to become a mentor what is needed, apart from years of teaching experience, is systematic and specialised education on all aspects of training, observation and evaluation.
2.8 Links with the management of educational change

In the literature there are links between teacher cognition and development research and managing educational change. Fullan (2001, p.124) describes educational change as consisting of “changes in beliefs, teaching style, and materials, which can come about only through a process of personal development in a social context” (emphasis in the original). Fullan (2001) stresses the role of personal development in the context of collegiality as a precondition for change in different areas. However, considering that belief change is a very slow and difficult process (see 3.3), it is more important for research to focus on making clear conceptualisations on how belief systems operate and how they relate with knowledge systems. Gaining insights into how belief and knowledge systems operate and interrelate will help teacher trainers, consultants or administrators to structure the content of the input they want to communicate to teachers in such a way that effective communication can be ensured.

For example, if an innovation is to be introduced, all the aspects of the innovation need to be communicated to the teachers so that they are clear with what the new practice involves and how it is to be implemented. Because out of all the different factors that exert an influence on the success of any educational innovation, it is the teachers who are probably the most dominant factor (Papadopoulou and Griva, 2013). But is it so simple, or is a bit more complex than that? The person responsible for communicating the innovation should be aware of four facts:

1. Input is filtered and accommodated into our system depending on how consistent it is with our inner belief system (see 3.3, figure 3.5).

2. Deep knowledge of the wider context where the innovation is to be introduced, because this helps to know some of the beliefs the teachers hold.
3. Knowing how we learn, i.e. the process for input to become uptake and then output.

4. An understanding on the impact of the innovation on all aspects of the teaching and learning enterprise.

This knowledge will help to communicate input more effectively and, above all, to ensure effective implementation of the innovation. This knowledge is also valuable for teacher trainers who aim at creating qualified teachers and school directors who, in turn, aim at creating successful schools through productive cooperation with the teaching staff.

When the aim is effective learning within a group, e.g. participants in in-service seminars, then the five essential disciplines suggested by Senge (1990) should be encouraged.

Senge (1990) worked in the area of management and developed the notion of learning organisations and argued that if an organisation aims at continuous development and improvement, then it should be efficient in creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge. He maintained that to achieve that, five disciplines should be implemented, which the present writer thinks should be seriously considered when training teachers. The five disciplines are here presented in relation to points raised in this study about teacher training and development:

- **Team learning**: It involves the process of “developing the capacity of a team to create the results its members truly desire” *(ibid., p. 236)*. It is realised through dialogue (free flow of ideas) and discussion (presenting and defending different views towards reaching a decision). There is a link here with the need for communication, collegiality, and support in teacher development.

- **Shared vision**: It is “the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future we seek to create” *(ibid., p. 9)*, i.e. it provides the focus and energy for learning as it emerges by encouraging teachers to develop and share their personal visions through reinforcing increased clarity, enthusiasm, communication and commitment *(ibid.)*.
• **Mental models**: These are the deeply held beliefs and assumptions that affect and dictate the way we understand things and are reflected in our actions. However, as our mental models are more or less tacit (see 2.2), Senge (1990) suggests that we should look inside, bring our beliefs to the surface and evaluate the extent to which our assumptions represent the reality around us. Exposing our beliefs, he argues, will lead to adapting or changing them through what he calls ‘learningful observations’, so that they are consistent with our actions and our environment. This is why educational researchers have stressed the need for teachers to articulate their beliefs and to develop reflective skills (see 3.3.1).

• **Personal mastery**: It is “the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively” (Senge, 1990, p. 7); a process which aims to help teachers to develop high self-esteem and be confident when faced with new challenges. Confidence is a critical attribute of success, as it is the result of one realising and accepting their strengths and weaknesses (Diggins, 1997). By becoming reflective practitioners, teachers can work on their strengths and weaknesses and make teaching and learning fruitful and pleasant first of all for them and as a result for their students.

• **Systems thinking**: It is the ability to see the whole picture and the interrelationships within it and not just static snapshots. It is the discipline used to implement the other four disciplines. The key word here is ‘leverage’, i.e. “seeing where actions and changes in structures can lead to significant, enduring improvements” (Senge, 1990, p. 114). The discipline of 'systems thinking' is reflected in the proposed framework (figure 3.5) of the present study, where in an attempt to see the whole picture the particularities of context are considered in relation to knowledge, experience, beliefs and their role in receiving input and translating it into action.
Implementing the five disciplines in teacher training programmes, can be one major step towards professional development and life long learning.

2.9 Summary

In this first part of the literature review the theoretical background of the study has been presented, by defining the key concepts, beliefs and knowledge. The main factors (apprenticeship of observation, knowledge and educational development, experience, context) that influence the shaping of beliefs have been discussed and in the second part of the literature review (chapter 3), which follows, the key findings of similar studies are outlined and the practical implications of such studies for teacher training are presented.
Chapter 3

Literature Review: Belief Studies

3.1 Introduction

In this second part of the literature review, the findings of relevant belief studies are critically presented (see 3.2). The studies are organised around four sections: studies investigating experienced teachers' beliefs (3.2.1), studies on the effects of training on teachers' beliefs (3.2.2), studies comparing experienced and inexperienced teachers' beliefs (3.2.3), and belief studies carried out in Greece (3.2.4). The chapter concludes with the presentation of the proposed conceptual framework (see 3.3) that guides the present study.

3.2 Belief studies

The study of beliefs presents methodological challenges mainly because beliefs are not directly observable (Birello, 2012). Data collection methods in belief studies can be arranged around two main categories (Birello (2012):

1) Direct strategies, when for example a teacher is asked directly for their beliefs. However, such strategies are usually not the most productive as beliefs are hard to articulate (see 2.2).

2) Indirect strategies, which can be more effective. We can ask a teacher for example to draw a picture of an effective classroom, i.e. to use a stimulus to promote discussion.

Educational research has started to focus on what teachers know and how they learn since the early 1980s (Freeman, 1996a). A variety of qualitative data was collected for the purposes of early belief studies mainly comprising observations and field notes, interviews, questionnaires (both qualitative and quantitative), and stimulated recall methods (ibid.). Farrell and Lim Poo Choo (2005, p. 2) explain that
“in the area of language teaching, teacher beliefs have been examined to see how personal beliefs and knowledge of the pedagogical systems of teaching have informed the instructional practices and decisions of teachers of English as a second language.”

The first influential research instrument for teachers' beliefs was designed by Horwitz (1985). She designed two different research instruments with the aim to elicit foreign language teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching: i) the Foreign Language Attitude Scale (FLAS), and ii) the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Appendix B). Horwitz delivered the questionnaires to pre-service teachers entering teacher preparation courses and found that they already have preconceived ideas about language learning and teaching, which must be assessed prior to training because not all of their beliefs are realistic.

Borg (2003a) in his review of research on language teacher cognition states that there are certain areas in relation to which teacher cognition has been studied, namely grammar, literacy instruction, and some general foci like knowledge growth, planning and decision making. Some examples of belief studies with a specific focus are briefly mentioned here, in order to give the readers an idea of the different foci targeted in research studies on beliefs and teacher cognition.

Sanchez and Borg (2014) examined the interactions between cognitions and context in grammar teaching of two experienced secondary school teachers. The primary data included observations, post-lesson stimulated recall interviews and semi-structured interviews. The results indicated evidence of the influence on teachers' pedagogical decisions of their perceptions of the context they worked in.
Yunus et al (2016) conducted a study to investigate Iranian EFL teachers' cognition in terms of the pronunciation techniques they apply when teaching oral communication. Qualitative and quantitative data was collected from both the teachers and the students. The results showed an intricate relationship between language teachers’ experience with their cognitions about their language learners. Moreover, the teachers teaching higher level language courses were found to have broader cognitions about both the techniques they used in classrooms and the language learners’ characteristics as well.

Deprelli's (2016) study focused on the change processes pre-service teachers went under throughout a training programme and explored their beliefs about learning and teaching. Data was collected before and after the training programme. It was found that the teachers' initial beliefs were based more on theoretical knowledge rather than practical. What is more, change was identified and the participants seemed to struggle every time their theoretical beliefs were confronted with the reality of practice.

Such studies, however, are not included in this review of the literature, since the selection of studies has been made based on whether they match the focus of the present study, namely how experienced EFL teachers' beliefs are affected by in-service training and teaching experience. Therefore, the studies reviewed are organised around these themes, as already stated in 3.1. It should be noted, however, that the review contains studies that have been carried out in foreign language contexts but also some studies from general education. The latter studies are included because their focus matches the focus of the present study.
3.2.1 Investigating experienced teachers’ beliefs

Not many studies have focused on the beliefs held by experienced teachers or on the effects of in-service training despite the increased levels of interest in the area of language teachers’ beliefs (Farrell and Lim Poo Choo, 2005, Borg, 2011, Crandall & Christison, 2016). All studies reviewed here, apart from Kunzman’s (2003), have been carried out with foreign language teachers. The focus and the data collection tools of the reviewed studies are presented in Table 3.1. By observing table 3.1, it can be concluded that when studying experienced teachers, the data has been collected by mainly combining observations, interviews and elicitation procedures, such as stimulated recall. The studies are now presented in chronological order.

Burns (1992) conducted a classroom-based English as a Second Language (ESL) study to investigate teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice when teaching writing. This was an ethnographic investigation of six teachers that revealed that teachers have an extremely complex and interrelated network of underlying beliefs clustering around five major areas that appear to influence their practices:

1. The nature of language as it relates to beginning language learning: Language was described both as spontaneous communication and as a system of building blocks.

2. The relationship between written and spoken language in beginning language learning: The teachers presented a strong orientation towards spoken language, however they also showed considerable reliance in classroom practice on written language.

3. The nature of beginning language learning and the strategies relevant at this stage: There was emphasis on the need for cognitive strategies, such as repetition, practice and learning by heart.

4. Learners, their ability to learn, and their ability to learn English: References were made to the students' profiles, like their level or whether they were slow or fast learners.
### Table 3.1 Studies investigating experienced teachers’ beliefs (studies in italics relate to FL teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Data Collection Tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Burns, 1992** | teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice             | Observation: audio recorded and transcribed  
Interview: semi-structured, audio recorded and transcribed  
Other: Stimulated recall on the observation tapes |
| **Freeman, 1996b** | how teachers’ ways of thinking about teaching, brought about through a teacher education program, might move into changes in action | Observation:  
Interview:  
Questionnaire: open ended questions  
Other: -guided sharing of their background -discussion on sample lessons -written reflections on the lessons -one-to-one meetings with the head (the researcher) |
| **Pennington, 1996** | Experienced teachers’ beliefs before and after being exposed to organised input by taking part in a project aiming to help them apply a process approach to writing | Observation: video recorded  
Interview: ethnographic interviews, recorded and transcribed  
Questionnaire: open ended questions pre and post tool  
Other: introspective data elicited from the videos |
| **Woods, 1996** | the processes experienced teachers go through in planning a course curriculum and in turning it into lessons | Observation:  
Interview:  
Questionnaire: open-ended questions and a multiple response question  
Other: elicitation procedures |
| **Richards et al, 2001** | Exploring teachers’ beliefs and the processes of change | Observation:  
Interview: informal interviews with some of the teachers  
Questionnaire: open-ended questions and a multiple response question  
Other:  |
| **Breen et al, 2001** | the relationship between teachers’ thinking and actions | Observation:  
Interview:  
Questionnaire:  
Other: elicitation procedures |
| **Borg, 2011** | The impact of in-service education on teachers’ beliefs about language teaching and learning | Observation:  
Interview:  
Questionnaire:  
Other: |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Design</th>
<th>Data Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kunzman, 2003</td>
<td>The value of teacher education for experienced teachers</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>semi-structured, audio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>recorded and transcribed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiong, 2016</td>
<td>The impact of teacher education on in-service English teachers’ beliefs about self</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>semi-structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>participants’ coursework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loch, (n.d.)</td>
<td>Teachers’ perceptions about their beliefs concerning language teaching</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>semi-structured, audio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>recorded and transcribed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Likert-scale (FLAS and BALLI)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. The nature of the language classroom and the teacher's role: The teachers viewed themselves as having the central role in facilitating good relationships with students. Burns (1992) concluded that teacher education must find ways to help teachers articulate and reflect upon their beliefs.

Freeman’s (1996b) ESL study focused on how teachers’ ways of thinking about teaching, brought about through a teacher education programme, might move into changes in action. It comprised four case studies of four teachers doing an in-service teacher education programme. What Freeman (1996b, p. 224) found out is that

“as these teachers learned to express their tacitly held ideas about teaching through the shared professional discourse of the in-service programme, they gained greater control in shaping their classroom practice.”

Pennington (1996) carried out an ESL study with eight experienced Cantonese teachers on a part-time master course while working full time. The main aim was to encourage reflection among teachers and to help them develop problem solving skills. Pennington (1996) concluded that teachers change in areas they are already primed to change and this priming depends on their individual characteristics and prior experiences. She found out that several teachers felt more time for sharing and reflection would have been more beneficial.

Woods (1996) carried out a longitudinal study aiming at understanding the teachers’ decision-making processes. The study draws on interview data provided by eight university-level ESL teachers in Canada. Wood’s study is ethnocognitive, i.e. ethnographic in that it seeks information about language teachers’ behaviours, shared thought patterns and shared language use, and cognitive as it attempts to show how the teachers’ idiosyncrasies are reflected on the way they plan and deliver their lessons. The
findings indicated that planning is a complex procedure and the decisions made by teachers are affected by both external and internal factors. Woods concluded that every teacher is equipped with a set of beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (the BAK concept, as Woods calls it) and a teacher’s decisions and actions are filtered through and influenced by the BAK construct.

Richards et al (2001) investigated experienced second language teachers' beliefs and the processes of change. They administered a questionnaire to 112 teachers who had an average of 11 years of actual teaching experience. The majority of the participants were from Southeast Asian countries and 14 teachers were from Australia. They asked teachers to state their most important beliefs about language teaching and learning and to think about their first years of teaching and compare what they did then with what they do now. Finally, they asked teachers to explain the sources of the changes they stated in the previous question (e.g. did they change because of feedback from their supervisor, through trial and error, by attending seminars, etc.). In describing their general beliefs about language teaching and learning it was noticed that there was a lot of emphasis on teacher-student relationships and a clear thread of belief in the centrality of the learner. Concerning the teachers' stated changes in their approach to language teaching, changes were stated in the following areas:

– Learner centeredness: The teachers explained that over their careers they have started to show more respect for students' ideas, they treat students as individuals who learn differently, and use more pair-and groupwork activities.

– Basic teaching philosophy: The teachers stated changes in methodology, activity and task based learning, the linguistic and pragmatic focus of lessons, and assessment. In addition, they stated change in their own role, as they view themselves as guides, facilitators, motivators, counselors and consultants for learning.
Materials and resources: The teachers reported using more authentic texts, teacher created materials, communicative activities (role play, groupwork), and have introduced information technology in their teaching.

– Grammar teaching: A shift from focus on accuracy towards a focus on fluency and communication.

– Teacher confidence: The teachers stated that they feel more confident and enthusiastic for their work. They have developed better rapport with their students and are more flexible with lesson plans, teaching methods, and materials.

The majority of the teachers felt that these changes were mostly due to attending in-service courses and seminars/conferences. The teachers explained that such courses and seminars give them ideas which they can implement in their lessons. They also help them upgrade their skills and keep up to date with teaching trends, and last but not least they have helped them to change their attitude towards teaching English. The feedback they get from students was also among the top three sources for change followed by self-discovery, trial and error, and collaboration with colleagues. The authors state that it is no surprise that teachers value student feedback that much, since they spend a lot of time with students and they learn and change based on their learners' feedback. Regarding self-discovery, trial and error, and collaboration with colleagues the teachers explained that discussing with other teachers, especially more experienced ones, triggers off new ideas, leads to discovery, but also encourages self-reflection and self-evaluation.

Breen et al (2001) asked eighteen experienced ESL teachers (average teaching experience of 11.4 years) to describe their classroom practices and explain these in relation to the underlying language teaching principles that they saw as guiding their work. The purpose of the study was to discover the relationship between teachers’ thinking and actions. The
authors found that although beliefs and practices have a complex relationship, language teachers are likely to implement shared principles through a varied range of practices. They concluded that

“teachers’ principles become more entrenched with increasing experience. …the relationship between practices and principles is likely to be interactive … Over time a teacher may also evolve a framework of principles made up of ‘core’ principles that are applied across teaching situations and ‘peripheral’, more makeable principles that are thereby more adaptable to shifting contexts of work.” (Breen et al, 2001, p. 473)

Borg (2011) investigated to what extent an in-service language teacher education programme impacted on participants beliefs about language teaching and learning. It was a qualitative and longitudinal study. The six participant teachers first completed a preliminary questionnaire about their background, reasons for doing the course and what they hoped to learn. Each teacher was also interviewed across the course. The findings indicated considerable impact on the teachers' beliefs, however, not radical change. Teachers became more aware of their beliefs and felt they could articulate them quite strongly. Thus, “through teacher education teacher beliefs can be strengthened and extended, they can be made more apparent to teachers and assume a form that can be verbalised” (ibid, p. 378). However, some teachers felt that the course did not have an impact on their beliefs because there was an alignment between their beliefs and those promoted on the course but also because they felt they had limited opportunity to talk to each other about their beliefs.

Kunzman (2003) considered the value of teacher education for experienced teachers among a group of teachers attending a teacher education programme held by an English University. Five themes emerged from the quantitative and qualitative analysis: i) Teachers gained from the students in their classes who were struggling and developed strategies to help these students to improve, ii) They developed a broader understanding
of curriculum planning, iii) They valued the importance of collegiality, iv) They realised the importance of feedback and structured reflection, and v) They developed theoretical frameworks to inform and guide their teaching practice.

Xiong (2016) carried out a qualitative study in China intending to reveal the impact of an in-service training course on the beliefs of four EFL teachers. The data included semi-structured interviews and samples of the participants' coursework. The findings revealed some influence on the teachers' beliefs, though the degree and nature of impact varied among the teachers. Xiong (2016) concludes that teacher education can have a greater impact on teachers if a) the teachers' pre-existing beliefs are examined in advance, b) the belief awareness of teachers is raised at the beginning of the programme and reflection is encouraged throughout the programme, and c) teachers' are encouraged to discuss their beliefs explicitly.

Finally, Loch (undated) carried out an exploratory study to find out if teachers are aware of the sources of knowledge and beliefs they rely on in their teaching work, aiming to find out some evidence for belief change, and to find out if training can contribute to changes in beliefs and in practice. The participants, five Hungarian teachers of English with a teaching experience of 12-30 years were interviewed after they had completed two Likert-scale questionnaires: The Foreign Language Attitude Survey (FLAS) and Horwitz' (1985) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). The study revealed that the participants had a rather low opinion about the teacher training they received at university, as they say it was too theoretical and provided only little help for actual teaching work. The teachers were also asked to define the ratio of the three influential components in shaping their beliefs about teaching (their own experience as learners, pre-service training, and teaching experience). They had to state the ratio as this was at the beginning of their
careers and as it was after all these years of teaching. The results showed that at the beginning of their career they mostly valued their own experience as learners, second came the teaching experience they got as trainees, and third was the pre-service training they received at university. However, this order changed when they had to reconsider it and state how influential each factor was at that present moment. First came their actual teaching experience, second came in-service training and their own experience as learners was the least influential. Finally, the participants were asked to identify any changes in themselves by thinking back about their beliefs when they were novice teachers. They reported three changes: a) A shift from the grammar-translation method to more communicative language teaching, as with time they realised that communicating the message is more important than accuracy; b) The development of a more reflective attitude to learners' personal differences; and c) A more pragmatic approach to language teaching on the bases of course requirements, expected future language use, and the special needs of the learners, as with time they used tasks that imitate real-life situations, they also have a more balanced view about the role of teaching aids and are more tolerant and open to new ideas. Another conclusion Loch reaches, is that as teachers get more experienced they also get more aware of the factors that have contributed to the shaping of their beliefs, and they really value any opportunities they have to chat with colleagues or observe them.

The findings of the above studies can be grouped into three main themes:

1. There are complex relationships between thinking and action (Burns, 1992; Woods, 1996; Breen et al, 2001). Breen et al (2001) also explain that these complex relationships have implications for curriculum innovation, teacher education, and for language classroom research.
2. It is important for teachers to be given opportunities to reflect on their actions and to express their tacitly held beliefs (Freeman, 1996b; Pennington, 1996; Woods, 1996; Borg, 2011; Kunzman, 2003, Loch, undated). Reflection may be a precondition for change to happen, as it allows teachers to question their beliefs (Pennington, 1996; Burns, 1992).

3. There are implications for teacher education programmes (Burns, 1992; Freeman, 1996b; Woods, 1996; Borg, 2011; Kunzman, 2003). To begin with, in-service programmes should provide the participant teachers opportunities to “raise consciousness of the nature of the personalized theories which inform their practice” (Burns, 1992, p. 63).

According to Freeman (1996b, p. 237) teacher education programmes need to “involve the teachers-in-training in different contexts of teaching” and “instruction … should demonstrate the professional discourse in practice. … Teachers-in-training … should be encouraged to examine, through critical reflection, how the instruction they are receiving embodies what they are learning about teaching.”

In the next section belief studies that focused on the effects of training on the beliefs of student-teachers are reviewed.

### 3.2.2 The effects of training on the beliefs of student-teachers

A far greater number of studies have looked into the effects of training on the beliefs of student teachers. Brookhart and Freeman (1992) have reviewed 44 such studies and argue that there is a need for research to address deeper and more informative questions, as they question whether

“survey items can capture what an entering teacher candidate really thinks teaching is and how he or she thinks students learn. One can also question whether survey methodology can adequately depict the misconceptions and inappropriate beliefs that may characterise entering teacher candidates’ orientations to teaching.” (ibid., p. 52).

---

10 Possible reasons why the number of studies on experienced teachers' beliefs is smaller are stated in 1.2.
However, regardless of any limitations in methodology, research into the effects of training on the beliefs held by student teachers has helped to suggest ways of improving teacher training (see 2.7).

In Table 3.2, the focus and the data collection tools of the studies reviewed in this section are presented and then discussed.

By observing table 3.2 it becomes obvious that questionnaires have been widely used in studies comparing trainee teachers’ beliefs before and after training. Questionnaires have in some studies been combined with another data collection tool, whereas observation is not widely used. In Brookhart and Freeman’s (1992) review of 44 belief studies, thirty-eight out of the forty-four studies used questionnaires as the main data collection tool, only three were case studies, and three analysed students’ written work. Brookhart and Freeman (1992, p. 52) are, however, critical of the fact that researchers have so widely used questionnaires to study beliefs and suggest alternative data collection tools:

“The overemphasis on survey methodology is problematic for studies of candidates’ perceptions and beliefs about teaching. It is reasonable to question whether survey items can capture what an entering teacher candidate really thinks teaching is and how he or she thinks students learn. One can also question whether survey methodology can adequately depict the misconceptions and inappropriate beliefs that may characterise entering teacher candidates’ orientations to teaching. … It would be helpful to explore students’ written work more fully. This is a promising and very accessible source of student thoughts, because students are used to writing their thoughts on paper in college classes.”

However, there are counterarguments that support the benefits of using questionnaires, since questionnaires allow for pre- and post-tests, and they allow for a larger amount of data to be collected. In addition, if combined with other data collection tools, like interviews, observations etc, they provide a clearer insight into beliefs.
Weinstein (1990) examined the effects of an introductory education course and a related field experience on prospective elementary teachers’ optimistic biases and beliefs about what constitutes good teaching. The findings revealed lack of change but the researcher suggests that their beliefs might change once they confront the reality of the classroom and interact with their peers, but it is likely to be haphazard and infrequent. Thus, there is an emphasis here on the role of experience (see 2.4.3). The study was quantitative, but qualitative data were also used to support the quantitative findings.

Johnson (1994) did not investigate belief change, but sought to identify where beliefs come from. The qualitative study investigated the beliefs held by four inexperienced pre-service teachers who attended a 15-week practicum university course. The data consisted of the reflective journals kept by the participants, 3 observations and post-interviews with each teacher. The most striking pattern emerging from the data analysis was the power that the participants’ prior experiences as learners had on the shaping of their beliefs. Another pattern emerging from the analysis was that all 4 teachers did not seem to have enough knowledge about what happens in an actual classroom. However, Johnson (1994) concludes that teacher beliefs can shift and mature if through training teachers are presented with alternative images of second language teaching and are thus guided to reconstruct a more appropriate model of action for effective language teaching.

Almarza (1996) carried out a ten-month longitudinal study focusing on the process of learning to teach foreign languages. The participants were four foreign language teachers in a post-graduate Certificate in Education course. The data collection was a blend of qualitative techniques (see table 3.2). The analysis of the data revealed that teachers’ “early school experiences seem to constitute a more powerful influence than teacher education programmes on the process of learning to teach” (Almarza, 1996, p. 51).
Table 3.2 Studies investigating the effects of training on student teachers’ beliefs (studies in italics relate to FL teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Data Collection Tools</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weinstein, 1990</td>
<td>the effects of a training course and a related field experience</td>
<td>√ recorded and transcribed</td>
<td>√ open-ended and fixed response questions pre-and post tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnson, 1994</td>
<td>The origins of pre-service teachers’ beliefs</td>
<td>√ observed three inexperienced trainee teachers teaching</td>
<td>√ as a follow up of the observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almarza, 1996</td>
<td>what kinds of relationships exist between knowledge and action with reference to the student teachers’ thinking</td>
<td>√ semi-structured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown and McGannon, 1998</td>
<td>Trainees’ beliefs before and after training</td>
<td>√ fixed response questions pre and post tool</td>
<td>provide an open-ended response to any statement from the questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabaroglou and Roberts, 2000</td>
<td>the development of student teachers’ beliefs on language teaching and learning</td>
<td>√ in depth interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.2 (cont.) Studies investigating the effects of training on student teachers’ beliefs (studies in italics relate to FL teachers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Data Collection Tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MacDonald et al (2001)</td>
<td>the extent to which a research and theory course influenced key beliefs which students held relating to language learning during their period of study</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: √, Questionnaire: fixed response questions, Other: pre and post tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urmston, 2003</td>
<td>the extent to which the beliefs and knowledge of pre-service English teachers change between leaving secondary school and entering the teaching profession</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: √, Questionnaire: open-ended and fixed response questions, Other: pre-and post tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daSilva, 2005</td>
<td>the perceptions pre-service teachers hold concerning the teaching of the four skills in English as a foreign language, with a view to understanding how perceptions relate to pedagogical practice</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: √, Questionnaire: videorecorded and transcribed, Other: transcripts of 40 hours of discussion and of 8 hours of recall, 12 classroom observation reports, 25 lesson plans, 2 transcriptions of classroom texts, 25 self-evaluation reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leavy et al, 2007</td>
<td>metaphor construction as a tool to gain access to, and promote the development of, prospective teachers’ beliefs through the incorporation of reflective activities that integrate academic and field-based experiences</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: √, Questionnaire: BALLI, Other: diaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diab, 2009</td>
<td>Lebanese EFL teachers’ beliefs about language learning</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: semi-structured, Questionnaire: BALLI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debrel, 2016</td>
<td>Pre-service teachers’ belief change and practical knowledge development during the course of practicum</td>
<td>Observation: √, Interview: semi-structured, Questionnaire: BALLI, Other: diaries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Almarza (1996, p. 71) concludes by explaining that “these four student teachers efficiently implemented during teaching practice the method learned during teacher education, yet the degree of acceptance was subject to a great deal of variation.” The author explains that this is because student teachers find teacher education either irrelevant or hard to deal with and their knowledge may grow once they gain actual teaching experience when they enter the classroom. However, Almarza (1996) concludes that the picture emerging from this study is not as simple as that. During the training course the student teachers may have drawn on different sources of knowledge, due to having different backgrounds and experiences, however, the influence of the training programme was evident since all four student teachers presented the subject matter in the same way, although they had to teach different learner groups and different content.

Pennington and Urmston (1998) compared two groups of student teachers (a beginning and a graduating group) enrolled in a course at a Hong Kong university. The investigators carried out a questionnaire study aiming at gaining a view of the degree to which the philosophy and principles of the course had impacted the graduating group. The findings suggest that

“three years of an innovative TESL course may not have provided satisfactory preparation for a career as a secondary English teacher … The course seems not to have been able to build an adequate base of knowledge and skills that could support a second language teacher’s committed and confident classroom performance.” (Pennington and Urmston, 1998, p. 34)

Joram and Gabriele (1998) asked pre-service teachers to define learning and teaching before and after taking a training course, and to describe how their beliefs had changed as a result of taking it. The findings, which were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively, identified changes in the views of learning and teaching.
Brown and McGannon (1998) examined beliefs about language learning and the roles of language teachers among a group of 35 trainee teachers of foreign languages. The participants were asked to respond to a number of statements about language learning before and after the first teaching round. The qualitative findings revealed some evidence of belief change concerning the following areas: The teaching of grammatical rules, how parents treat their children’s grammatical errors and whether students learn what they are taught. The authors conclude by stressing the importance of taking into account student teachers’ prior beliefs as they enter a training programme.

Cabaroglou and Roberts (2000) investigated the development of student teachers' beliefs on language teaching and learning. The purpose was to test the widespread view that these beliefs are inflexible and to explore the nature of possible belief development. The participants were twenty students on a PGCE Secondary (Modern Languages) course at an English University, with each of whom three in-depth interviews were carried out. The qualitative analysis focused on the nature of development processes. In all but one case, participants' beliefs showed some development.

A quantitative study carried out by MacDonald et al (2001) investigated two groups of student teachers studying at undergraduate and postgraduate level to become teachers of English to speakers of other languages. MacDonald et al (2001) examined the extent to which a research and theory course which both groups took in second language acquisition influenced key beliefs which students held relating to language learning during their period of study. The same questionnaire was administered at the beginning and at the end of the course. The questionnaire included 12 key belief statements based on Lightbown and Spada (1995) and the participants were asked to tick with which statements they
agreed and with which they disagreed. The findings suggested certain changes in some of the student teachers’ key beliefs and attitudes towards language learning.

Urmston (2003) conducted a longitudinal study of prospective teachers of English in a Hong Kong university with the purpose to determine whether the beliefs and knowledge of pre-service teachers change between leaving secondary school and entering the teaching profession. The participants completed a questionnaire as they began the course and upon its completion and the results revealed that

“pre-service teachers’ beliefs and knowledge are based on their experiences as students within the education system; are strongly influenced by their time in classrooms during practice teaching; but are changed relatively less by the training that they receive in their BA course.” (Urmston, 2003, p. 112)

Da Silva (2005) investigated the perceptions of pre-service teachers concerning the teaching of the four skills in English as a foreign language, aiming at understanding the relationship between perceptions and pedagogical practice. She concluded that pre-service teachers’ perceptions can be divided in two groups: a) Perceptions constructed during their teacher education course, and b) Perceptions constructed throughout their lives. These perceptions “have a straight effect on the thinking, saying, and doing of the teachers; affect their decisions before, during, and after the teaching act; and constitute their professional knowledge” (da Silva, 2005, p. 16).

Leavy et al (2006) examined the changes in pre-service elementary teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning that come about as a result of participating in a teacher education program. They examined beliefs by asking the participants to construct personal metaphors about teaching and learning before and after the course. The analysis of the data revealed that there were changes in how pre-service teachers described teaching and learning before and after the course.
Diab (2009) conducted her study with the purpose to explore the beliefs about language learning of EFL university teachers and prospective EFL teachers in Lebanon. She investigated the beliefs about language learning held by 12 experienced and 19 inexperienced EFL teachers, using the BALLI questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. However, she did not compare the two groups to identify any similarities or differences between them, as the purpose of the study was to explore EFL teachers' beliefs. Nevertheless, if the two groups had been compared the results might be different and might provide better insights. On the other hand, the number of participants was small, which may be why the two groups were not compared. She reached the following conclusions:

1) The participant teachers seemed to hold a variety of beliefs about language learning, some of which may be conducive to the learning and teaching situations, while others may constitute an impediment to successful foreign language learning and teaching.

2) Teacher education programmes encourage prospective teachers to explore their beliefs, pay attention to any unrealistic beliefs or misconceptions and confront these with new information and knowledge.

3) The study supported the general contention that language teachers may hold certain beliefs about language learning that may affect their instructional practices.

Finally, Debreli (2016) carried out a study that focused on the change processes pre-service teachers experience while attending a training programme. The study explored their beliefs about learning and teaching before and after training. It was found that the teachers' initial beliefs were based more on theoretical knowledge rather than on practical. What is more, change was identified and the teachers seemed to struggle every time their theoretical beliefs were confronted with the reality of practice.
From the findings of the studies presented in the previous sections it can be concluded that with the experience teachers gain from actual practice they “learn to automatise the routines associated with managing the class, and can thus focus more attention on issues of context” (Borg, 2003a, p. 95).

Concerning the effects of pre-service training courses the findings are very interesting. Even when changes have been identified these are described as few or not significant changes. Little support is provided for the view that L2 teachers acquire their beliefs on methodology courses and Freeman (2000, p. 2) stresses again the importance of classroom practice and experience: “At best, university-based training can only introduce the tools and put them into circulation. Learning to use them can only happen on the job.”

What would be interesting is to further investigate how in-service training in particular affects experienced teachers’ beliefs. And this is one of the aims of the present study (see 1.2).

### 3.2.3 Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs

The number of studies comparing experienced and inexperienced language teachers' beliefs is small (Borg 2006c, Gatbonton, 2008) and scholars (e.g. Woods, 1996, Borg 2003a) highlight the importance of and the need for conducting research which focuses on the similarities and differences in the beliefs of experienced and inexperienced teachers.

A particular influential study was carried out by Lortie (1975 – cited in Fullan, 20011) who interviewed 94 elementary and secondary school teachers and gave questionnaires to almost 6000 teachers. His main findings indicated that teacher training does not provide

---

1 Fullan (2001, p.118) explains that he cites this study as it is “one of the most respected and widely quoted studies of what teachers do and think.” After discussing Lortie's (1975) findings he interestingly highlights that not much has changed in the study of teachers' beliefs since then.
teachers with the skills they need to face classroom realities, and this was a point on which both experienced and inexperienced teachers agreed. Experienced teachers felt that schools did not encourage collegiality (see 6.5) and the sharing of experiences and knowledge among the staff. They also felt that there was a lack of support and teachers had to rely a lot on their personal experiences.

Mok (1994) conducted a qualitative case study of 6 experienced and 6 inexperienced ESL teachers with the purpose to explore teachers’ cognitions through reflective practice. The study was based on the assumption that as teachers gain experience they change their beliefs about teaching and learning and as a result they change their behaviour. The findings suggested that teachers' beliefs and theories of and about teaching are guided by their previous experience as a learner and as a teacher. The study also revealed that the teachers’ self-concept (i.e. the teacher images stated by the participant teachers) and principles are the determining forces in their teaching, as

“it was noticed that how teachers defined their role in relation to their students could explain the decisions they made about teaching and their views on a variety of issues related to teaching and learning.” (Mok, 1994, p. 108)

Finally, no drastic changes were detected in the inexperienced teachers after their practicum.

In his quantitative study, Peacock (2001) sought to investigate changes in the beliefs about second language learning of 146 trainees over a 3-year programme at a Hong Kong University. The researcher hoped that as a result of participating in the programme the trainees would change any mistaken beliefs they might hold. The participants' beliefs were collected using the BALLI (Horwitz's Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) and were compared with beliefs held by experienced teachers from a previous study by Peacock. It was found that trainees' beliefs differ from experienced teachers' beliefs. In
addition, trainees’ beliefs changed very little upon completion of the programme. Peacock suggests that this is worrying, because these beliefs will inform the trainees' teaching in the future and as a result they will affect their students' learning.

Tsui (2003) carried out four case studies with four ESL teachers (an expert, two experienced, and a novice) in a Hong Kong secondary school. She investigated the classroom practices of the four teachers in order to understand what constitutes experience in ESL teaching. She observed lessons, carried out interviews, and analysed curriculum materials (i.e. teaching plans, teaching materials, and students' work). The qualitative analysis of the data was an ongoing process and was carried out in tandem with data collection. Tsui adopted a grounded approach while applying the data to categories and themes. The findings revealed that

“the critical differences between expert and nonexpert teachers … lie in the different ways in which they relate to their contexts of work, and hence their conceptions and understanding of teaching, which is developed in these contexts.” (Tsui, 2003, p.245)

Another study carried out by Gatbonton (2008) examined the novice teachers' pedagogical knowledge based on their report of what they were thinking about while teaching. The findings were then compared to findings of an earlier study Gatbonton had carried out with experienced teachers. The purpose of the study was to see whether “differences between experienced and novice teachers could be attributed to differences in their number of years of teaching experience” (ibid., p. 163). The findings suggest that novice teachers

“seem able to acquire after only a few years of training and minimal teaching experience, the larger categories of pedagogical knowledge that can underlie active teaching behaviours, in addition to knowledge about passive teaching activities such as observing and taking notes of what students do early on in the learning process. These novice teachers,
may need more time and experience to attain the ability to apply this knowledge.” (ibid., p.178)

In Table 3.3 the focus and the data collection tools of the reviewed studies are listed. It is interesting that observation was not widely used as a data collection tool in these studies. Questionnaires were mainly used and were combined with interviews or other procedures. What is more, the questionnaires included both open and closed questions. Open questions may demand more effort from the respondents, however, they allow for more freedom and spontaneity. Closed questions, on the other hand, lack on spontaneity, but require little time and are easy to process (Gray, 2004). Therefore, combining the two helps to get the best results possible (see 4.5.1).

**Table 3.3 Studies Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Data Collection Tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lortie, 1975</td>
<td>Experienced and inexperienced teachers' beliefs about the effects of training</td>
<td>√ Observation √ Interview √ Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mok, 1994</td>
<td>A case study of experienced and inexperienced teachers investigating their major concerns and changing perceptions over time</td>
<td>√ individual introspective interviews √ teachers' reflective writings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peacock, 2001</td>
<td>146 pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning. The findings are compared with experienced teachers' beliefs.</td>
<td>√ pre-and post-questionnaires (BALLI) - teachers' ESL proficiency scores - the trainer presented an instruction package for correcting those beliefs that were detrimental to their own and their students’ learning and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
observed the trainees' reactions

| Tsui, 2003 | Four case studies with four ESL teachers aiming at understanding expertise in teaching | ✓ non-participants, video and audio recorded supplemented by field notes | ✓ semi-structured | - teachers' lesson plans - teaching materials - student work |
| Gatbonton, 2008 | novice and experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge | | | - transcripts of the teachers' taped recollections of lessons |

Nunan (1992b) carried out a study, which is not mentioned above, as it did not target beliefs directly. He investigated the interactive decisions experienced and inexperienced teachers take. The study is relevant because teachers' beliefs are reflected in their decisions and guide what they do in the classroom (Richards, 1998). The findings revealed that there are differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers. Experienced teachers were found to pay greater attention to language issues, whereas inexperienced teachers were more worried about classroom management.

Finally, the main findings of the above reviewed studies are summarised in table 3.4. What is common is that in all studies it was found that there are differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers, which raises the following questions:

- What happens as teachers gain more teaching experience?
- What is the role of teaching experience compared to other influential factors (see 2.4) in the shaping of beliefs?

These questions played a major role in triggering the researcher's interest in designing the present study.
Table 3.4 Findings: Comparing Experienced and Inexperienced Teachers' Beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Main Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lortie, 1975</td>
<td>• lack of fit between training and reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• lack of collegiality and support in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nunan, 1992b</td>
<td>• differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mok, 1994</td>
<td>• teachers' beliefs are guided by their previous experience as learners and teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• no drastic changes in inexperienced teachers after training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peacock, 2001</td>
<td>• very little change in beliefs upon completion of a training course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsui, 2003</td>
<td>• differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gatbonton, 2008</td>
<td>• similarities and differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.4 Studies carried out in Greece

Very few studies have been carried out in Greece that focus on teacher beliefs and even fewer that target experienced foreign language teachers’ beliefs.

Sifakis and Sougari (2005) carried out a study in Greece targeting experienced EFL state school teachers’ beliefs. They conducted a survey of 421 Greek state school EFL teachers’ attitudes regarding their pronunciation beliefs and practices. More specifically, they investigated “[the teachers’] beliefs about and attitudes towards the pronunciation features that they are asked to teach in familiar classroom situations” (Sifakis and Sougari, 2005, p. 468). The goal was to explore “whether [the teachers’] teaching practices are consistent with their beliefs about pronunciation norms” (ibid., p. 473). The data was collected by administering a questionnaire that mainly consisted of closed questions, but included a few open questions as well. The findings indicate that

“Greek EFL teachers’ norm-bound views on pronunciation teaching are influenced by a) their natural role as the legal guardians of the English language with respect to their learners…; b) their immediate identification of any language with its native speakers, something which is reinforced by the country’s diglossia and recent immigrant inflow; and c) their lack of awareness of issues related to the international spread of English.” (ibid., p. 483)
Mattheoudakis (2007) conducted a longitudinal study in order to investigate Greek pre-service EFL teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching. The participant teachers were all taking part in a 3-year teacher education programme “that provides them with an integrated and comprehensive body of knowledge relating both to theories of learning and teaching as well as to classroom procedures and teaching techniques” (ibid., p. 1274). The data was collected by using the BALLI questionnaire (see 4.5.1), a quantitative self-report questionnaire, and a short questionnaire used to identify the participants’ background. The results indicated a gradual and sometimes significant development in the participants’ beliefs, however, their engagement in the teaching practice seemed to have a low impact on the development of their beliefs. Therefore, Mattheoudakis (2007) suggests that emphasis needs to be placed on addressing and changing pre-service teachers’ deep seated beliefs and behaviour. She goes on to explain that this can be achieved “through the use of awareness raising and reflection activities that will enable student teachers to become aware of and articulate their beliefs and previous experiences” (ibid., p. 1283).

Agathopoulou (2010) also examined student teachers’ beliefs about language learning. In her study she investigated the beliefs held by 46 students who attended a second language acquisition theories course as part of their four-year B.A. Degree in English Language and Literature at the Aristotle University in Thessaloniki, Greece. The participants were asked to reply to the same Likert scale questionnaire before and after the course. The questionnaire was the one included in Lightbown and Spada (1999). The analysis of the pre and post data indicated some change in student teachers' beliefs, yet this change was not dramatic, as it was observed in seven out of the twelve beliefs included in the questionnaire. Agathopoulou (2010) concluded by stressing the importance of comparing these results with experienced teachers' beliefs, as she considers teaching experience an important factor in belief formation.
A belief study was conducted in 2010 by Karavas and Drossou who also investigated student teachers' beliefs before and after a pre-service teacher education and training programme. They developed and used a Likert-type questionnaire before and after the course to investigate the beliefs of 100 student-teachers of the Faculty of English Studies at the University of Athens. Throughout the course the student-teachers were guided by experienced mentor teachers. The study had the following aims: a) To investigate student-teachers' perceptions of the teacher's and learner's role in the classroom, the place and importance of explicit grammar instruction and error correction and the importance of pair/groupwork and b) to investigate any changes in their beliefs upon course completion. Karavas and Drossou (2010, p. 270) conclude that “on the whole, student-teachers did not change their beliefs as a result of the teaching practice experience.” Only few changes were observed:

- The student-teachers attitudes towards the goal of native like pronunciation changed, as after the course the majority (60%) seemed to believe that this is not an important goal of language teaching.
- A smaller number seemed to have positive attitudes towards the importance of formal grammar instruction.
- A slightly larger number seemed to have positive attitudes towards the potential 'dangers' of pair/groupwork, the importance of error correction and the teacher's role as instructor and transmitter of knowledge (ibid., p. 270).

In this study it is interestingly highlighted that, according to research, teachers at different stages of their careers have different professional interests and concerns, e.g. novice teachers mainly worry about classroom management. This suggests that novice and experienced teachers' belief systems may differ in some areas, a point also stressed by
Joram and Gabrielle (1998) who said that experienced teachers have more elaborate, coherent and cohesive belief systems, as their beliefs are more connected to specific contexts. Karavas and Drossou (2010) conclude that student-teacher beliefs must be taken into account from the very beginning of teacher education courses, because if their beliefs are ignored, then such courses will have little chance of effecting change. Of course, the mentors need to be well trained and supported if such teacher education courses are to succeed.

Finally, Stergiopoulou (2012) compared experienced and inexperienced EFL teachers' beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching and also focused on the expectations experienced teachers have from training. The findings indicated that experienced teachers really valued their teaching experience. State school teachers, however, stated that in the context of the Greek state schools teaching experience might also be the cause for inflexibility and a factor that constitutes an impediment to change, thus teachers may be reluctant to change due to established routines. As for the expectations experienced teachers have from training, it was underlined that they value it but state school teachers explained that the focus of the seminars most of the times does not match their needs.

Searching the literature two more belief studies were found that were carried out in Greece, however in the context of primary school teachers, and two studies that were carried out in the context of university teacher training courses. The first was with EFL teachers and the second with secondary school philologists attending an in-service training programme at university.
The first study is by Kynigos and Argyris (2004) who investigated primary school teachers’ beliefs and practices established over time during an innovation with computer-based exploratory mathematics in the classroom. Their findings indicate that teachers “adopt multiple roles in the classroom and are influenced by the values of the educational system” (ibid., p. 247).

The second study is by Kasoutas and Malamitsa (2009) who investigated Greek primary school teachers’ beliefs by using metaphors. Their study aimed at contributing “a better understanding about the way Greek teachers make sense of their experience within their cultural context” (ibid., p. 68). The main conclusion they reached is that “teachers’ metaphors themselves should not be blamed for potential unsatisfactory practices” (ibid., p. 74). They go on to stress that teacher education programmes do not focus on modifying teachers’ beliefs and explain that in Greece “traditional teacher education does not sufficiently affect Greek teachers’ personal theories which seem to remain implicit and therefore unaffected by their pre-service education and, probably, any in-service training” (ibid., p. 78).

Moving on to the studies on university teacher training courses, the first was carried out by Mattheoudakis and Nicolaidis (2005). The School of English at Aristotle University of Thessaloniki ran in-service training courses for Greek EFL teachers. First, a national survey was carried out via questionnaire in order to investigate the training needs of practicing EFL teachers in Greece. The course was designed as a result of the analysis of the questionnaire. Two types of 60 hour courses were made available: the first course ran for 2 weeks and the second was a Saturday course, which ran over seven consecutive Saturdays. The syllabus consisted of a core component and was accompanied by a number of subjects which were based on the trainees’ feedback, thus it had a versatile and
flexible design. Moreover, feedback was requested from the trainees during the course so that they were actively involved in the training process, at the end of the course (written and in the form of oral discussion), and a year later. The results indicated lack of training opportunities for teachers in Greece, therefore the training course was particularly welcomed and the teachers appreciated the closer cooperation with the academic community.

The next study was conducted by Gravani (2005, 2008) with the purpose to examine the extent to which academics and secondary teachers in the course of an in-service programme are partners in generating knowledge or citizens of two different worlds. The programme lasted six months and the participants were philologists from secondary schools. The aim was to update their subject knowledge and professional skills while simultaneously informing them about educational developments and reforms. The 420 hour-long course took place at the Aristotle University in Thessaloniki, Greece. The participants included twenty-two teachers and the database consisted of semi-structured interviews which were audio recorded and transcribed. The findings indicated that there was a difference as to how each party, namely participants and tutors, perceived the necessity for in-service training to have a theoretical component. The academics identified theory as being the core of an in-service training course, whereas the majority of the teachers expressed their preference for more practice and less theory. In fact, the teachers entered the course with the expectation to get solutions to issues related to their everyday practice. They were seeking for answers to their practical problems and were dissatisfied with the fact that they were getting ex cathedra teaching. In addition, the teachers felt that their craft wisdom was often marginalised rather than recognised and they stressed that there was a cultural gap between them and the tutors, who seemed to have a different mindset and different concerns.
Another study carried out in Greece is by Χατζηγιάννη (2008). This study did not target beliefs or belief change, but the needs of secondary school teachers from training. It is considered relevant to mention this study, as one of the aims of the present study is also to shed light to the needs experienced teachers have from in-service training. Χατζηγιάννη (2008) focused on teachers of all subjects in secondary schools all over Greece. She stresses the research gap in the area of identifying the training needs of teachers in Greece. Concerning the contribution of in-service training Χατζηγιάννη identifies two basic trends: There are those who feel that in-service training has had a positive contribution with regard to aspects of general focus (e.g. scientific improvement, teaching competence); but there are also those teachers who are critical towards the contribution of in-service training to what regards more specialised issues (e.g. everyday problems in class, changes in the curriculum). The tendency, however, is for the teachers to express themselves negatively towards the in-service training they have received as they cannot identify links between the input they receive and their classrooms. The participant teachers also raised issues regarding the status of the trainer and highlight that the trainer must be someone who has adequate experience of the reality in schools and is still active in the classroom. The majority of the participants assess as mostly valuable the fact that participating in in-service seminars gives them the opportunity to meet colleagues and exchange ideas. Regarding the actual needs teachers have from in-service training these vary among teachers of different subjects but the following are common among all teachers:

- Educational psychology
- New teaching methodologies
- The use of teaching aids
- Educational innovations
- Teenage psychology (stress, anxiety, fears)
• Bullying

• Dealing with problems arising from the socio-economic inequalities among students

Foreign language teachers have also added the following needs to the above list:

• Student assessment methods

• Cooperation with parents and other agencies

• Teaching in a multicultural classroom.

The majority of the teachers also stated that in-service seminars should focus on helping teachers deal with the every-day problems they face in the classroom and they regard as an obstacle the fact that they have a lot of students in their class.

Finally, two Doctoral Thesis have been carried out at the Faculty of English Language and Literature at the National and Kapodistrian University, Athens that target beliefs and in-service training.

The first thesis was written by Karagianni (2012) and was carried out with Greek primary school EFL teachers. The aim was to examine the participants' views regarding more effective approaches to in-service teacher training and also to explore an alternative approach that can help overcome some of the weaknesses spotted in the existing in-service teacher training system. The focus was on helping teachers enhance their reflective skills and on supporting them in developing collegiality and sharing. The study utilised both quantitative and qualitative methods (questionnaires and the teachers' electronic diaries). The findings indicated that although teachers indentify weaknesses in the in-service training offered to them, they appear highly motivated and interested to develop professionally and to attend in-service seminars. They value the positive effects collegiality can bring but feel that instances of such collaboration are limited.
The second study was conducted by Giotis (2015). This study did not target Greek state school teachers, but set out to examine pre-service and beginning EFL teachers' concerns and beliefs. The participants were followed throughout their last year at university and their first year as EFL teachers. The aim was threefold: i) to identify any developmental patterns or change in the teachers' concerns, ii) to identify if the participants' teaching practices were reflecting their beliefs, and iii) to identify any association between the teachers' target language competence and their beliefs. The data was collected and analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods, namely questionnaires, observation, diaries and interviews. The findings indicated that novice teachers mainly worry about their competence in the target language, their ability to integrate technology effectively in their lessons and about the impact of their teaching on their students' learning. It was interestingly noticed that their beliefs remained stable throughout the research period and that they promoted the communicative language teaching approach. Inconsistency, however, was noticed between their beliefs about pair-and groupwork and their teaching practice. Finally, it was observed that the strongest supporters of communicative language teaching were the teachers with the highest target language competence.

3.3 Towards a conceptual framework

The complex range of factors shaping teacher beliefs can be set out graphically. One of the early attempts to present beliefs schematically was attempted by Moscovici (1984). Moscovici maintained that when individuals are confronted with a new idea they perceive it as a threat to the sense of continuity, and this fear forces them to make the unfamiliar explicit. He explained that this conflict is always resolved in favour of the familiar, i.e. the unfamiliar is absorbed into an already known category (see Figure 3.2), thus the familiar
always remains unchanged. Two complementary mechanisms compose this process which Moscovici (1984) calls the appropriation process: Anchoring and objectification. Anchoring is a process whereby the unfamiliar is absorbed into a known category and objectification is a process whereby the individual transforms the unfamiliar into a more significant and easily comprehensible image (Gabillon, 2012). In other words, the core beliefs express permanence and uniformity while peripheral beliefs express variability and diversity (ibid.). Thus Moscovici did not talk about change, but about adaptation and enhancement of beliefs.

**Figure 3.2** Schematic Representation of Moscovici’s Appropriation Process (Gabillon, 2012, p. 197)

Borg (2006c) puts forward a schematic conceptualisation of teaching. Borg (2006c) reworks the framework he proposed in 1997 (see figure 3.3) within which, as he explains, language teacher cognition has emerged, and “it indicates that teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work” (Borg, 2006c, p. 41).
Personal history and specific experience of classrooms which define preconceptions of education (i.e. teachers, teaching) may impact on existing cognitions though, especially when unacknowledged, these may limit its impact.

Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision-making

Beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, decision-making

About teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, colleagues, assessment, context

Around and inside the classroom, context mediates cognitions and practice. May lead to changes in cognitions or create tension between cognitions and classroom practices.

Defined by the interaction of cognitions and contextual factors. In turn, classroom experience influences cognitions unconsciously and/or through conscious reflection.

Figure 3.3 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006c, p. 283)

Borg (2006c, p. 284) explains that such a framework is necessary as “it reminds researchers of key dimensions in the study of language teacher cognition; and it highlights key themes, gaps and contextual relationships and promotes more focused attention to these.”

Hashweh (2003), in contrast with Moscovici (1984) proposes a model of change. Hashweh’s (2003, p. 421) model (see figure 3.4) illustrates the idea that

“teachers undergo accommodative change when they are internally motivated to learn; become aware of their implicit ideas and practices and critically examine them; construct alternative knowledge, beliefs, and practices; resolve the conflicts between the prior set of ideas and practices and the new; and do so in a social climate characterized by collaboration, trust, reflection and deliberation. When these conditions are not met, one of two outcomes occur. Teachers might continue to live with unresolved conflicts. These outcomes can be described as transitional. Finally, teachers might change some ideas or act to preserve prior ideas and practices. The resulting outcomes can then be called conservative ... I assert that while we can try to provide the setting that meets these conditions, it is only the teacher himself or herself that can control this process.”
**Figure 3.4** Hashweh’s (2003) model of accommodative change (C= conflict, R= real world)

So Hashweh argues that teachers change only if they are motivated to change and for change to occur they should become aware of their beliefs, recognise possible limitations in their beliefs, learn to search for disconfirming evidence in their experience, and have a supportive social climate (Wilke, 2008). The transitional state in his model is one in which a teacher may recognise the availability of new way of thinking or acting, but may feel unable to resolve the arising dilemma because the new ideas are in conflict with the ones the teacher already holds (*ibid*.).

Hashweh’s (2003) model can be argued to have some similarities with Guskey’s (1986) model of change (see 2.6, Figure 3.1). Hashweh explains that a teacher needs to be internally motivated to learn and it could be the case for a teacher who enters staff development (the first circle in Guskey’s model) to also be internally motivated. The idea of conflict presented in Hashweh’s model is similar with the third circle in Guskey’s model: Teachers change because they see a change in students’ outcomes.

Having presented the three models, it should be highlighted that there are differences between them. Moscovici's model is a very simple model of how beliefs are organised and how they 'fight' with new concepts. Change does not happen but new beliefs are accommodated within the existing beliefs only of they seem to be consistent. Borg’s model suggests a somewhat steady, stable, static development of teacher cognition. Hashweh’s model, on the other hand, is more dynamic and there is an emphasis on the
fact that for change to happen there has to be a conflict between existing ideas and new ideas.

Based on the above models, on the findings of previous studies (see 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4) and on reading about belief structures (see 2.2, 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.4, 3.2) the present study was designed based on the assumption that as teachers gain experience - in the broader sense of the term (see 2.4.3) - they test out their beliefs and knowledge about teaching and learning. This might lead to belief change and therefore to changes in classroom practice. The present researcher's view is presented schematically in figure 3.5, towards a framework that aims to illustrate how belief systems operate. Linking this model with the two models out of the three presented above, it should be highlighted that from Borg’s (2006c) model the role of context was borrowed, which in the present model is part of the filter, and classroom practice, which is reflected in the action circle. The idea of conflict, also presented by Hashweh (2003), is illustrated in the input circle, as there might be conflict between the inner belief system and the input received.

The circles represent belief structures. The inner circle, the nucleus, represents those central beliefs that are resistant to change (Rokeach, 1972; Pajares, 1992) (see 2.2, 2.4.1, 2.6). These are our core beliefs which are more stable and powerful. These beliefs are protected by a filter (the outer circle) consisting of:

i) The amount and type of experience (see 2.4.3) and knowledge (see 2.3, 2.3.1, 2.4.2) an individual has and

ii) The teaching context (see 2.4.4).

The arrows in the first circle, the input circle, represent knowledge input and the arrows in the second circle represent action. The arrows between the inner belief system and the
filter are two-sided, to illustrate the relationship between the two. The first image (INPUT) shows that the quantity and quality of input individuals receive is controlled by outside sources. This input, however, does not access the belief system immediately. It is first processed by the protective filter and is either rejected or accepted into the inner belief system, depending on how consistent it is with the stable perceptions already held by an individual (see 2.6). This filtering process is reflected by Eraut (1994, p. 27, emphasis in the original) when he supports that

“The in practical contexts theoretical knowledge has to be adapted to suit the particular demands of each situation. This requires more than the simple application of theory. Theories have to be interpreted in order to be used.”

The second circle (ACTION), the action circle, shows that the decisions teachers take are deeply affected by their beliefs. They are guided and formed by the beliefs located in the inner circle; however, before being actually translated into actions, they have to pass through the filter once again. The arrows in the second graphic are bi-directional in order to illustrate reflection. Teachers get feedback about their actions from the students, the school environment, the trainer etc, so they reflect on the results of their actions and modify them in order to be more effective, i.e. in order to lead to effective learning. Kiely (2001, p. 258) highlights this when he explains that

“The process of development typically involves some feedback to the teacher illustrating a problem, which creates instability in the belief system. Then the teacher adapts her belief system to re-establish coherence.”
Figure 3.5: Belief structure (towards a conceptual framework)
However, this is an area that needs to be further researched, as not all teachers are reflective and the feedback they get from students is not the same they will get from a trainer. Research on encouraging reflection and on challenging one's beliefs will give greater insights as to whether beliefs can change.

3.4 Summary
In this chapter the literature and the studies targeting beliefs and change have been reviewed. What can be concluded from the above discussion is that beliefs might be a complex construct to research, but “the cognitive analysis of second language teaching is … central to our understanding both of how teachers teach as well as how novice teachers develop teaching expertise” (Richards, 1998, p. 81). Gaining insights into how belief systems operate has major implications for managing educational change and for implementing innovations successfully. In the next section the research design and methodology are presented.
Chapter 4

Methodology: Theoretical Background and The Study

4.1 Overview

This chapter begins with the presentation of the theoretical background of the study by discussing analytically the theories affecting the study (i.e. cognitive science and mixed methods research). Next, details about the participants are given followed by a detailed presentation of the data collection methods and procedures. The piloting process is also presented followed by the ethical issues considered in the present study. The main aim of the chapter is to clearly describe the research setting and the research processes so that the analysis of the data can be “placed meaningfully within a specific social environment” (Holliday, 2002, p. 37).

4.2 Theories affecting the study: Methodological approach and design

This is an empirical, teacher-focused study with an exploratory purpose. The study combines both quantitative and qualitative data, i.e. it employs the mixed model in research design. Concerning the research methodology adopted, the study can be described as cognitive in terms of what it is trying to describe, i.e. the beliefs teachers hold. Cognitive science and the mixed model research design are presented in detail in sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, where it is explained how both methodological approaches informed the design of the present study.
4.2.1 Cognitive science

Cognitive science has been defined by Thagart (2004) as “the interdisciplinary study of mind and intelligence, embracing philosophy, psychology, artificial intelligence, neuroscience, linguistics, and anthropology.”

The term ‘cognitive’ refers to any type of mental operation or structure that can be studied in precise terms (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999). Interest in understanding the mind and how it works goes back to the work of the ancient Greek philosophers Plato and Aristotle; in the 1950s it was the focus of experimental psychologists and nowadays it is the field of artificial intelligence research (Thagart, 2004).

Thagart (2004) explains that there are a number of theoretical approaches that underpin cognitive science and seek to provide an answer to the question “why people have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour”. Based on the ideas expressed by Thagart (2004) Table 4.1 was created after first adapting his views to teachers. It is argued that the six different theoretical approaches Thagart provides are all encompassed in the concept of beliefs which is what this study aims to investigate. Gaining insights into the operations of the explanatory patterns in the table will result in a deeper understanding of how belief structures operate. The ideas expressed by Thagart (2004) are summarised in table 4.1 and are closely linked to the issues that triggered this study (see 1.2). They can be used to interpret the central circle in the framework suggested in 3.3 (figure 3.5). The explanatory patterns in table 4.1 play a crucial role in the shaping and development of every teacher’s inner belief system.

---

12 In 2.2 where the term ‘beliefs’ is defined, it was explained that in the literature different terms have been used to define beliefs, some of which are included in Thagart’s theoretical approaches (e.g. rules, concepts, images etc).
Table 4.1 Theoretical approaches of cognitive science

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical approach</th>
<th>Explanation target</th>
<th>Explanatory pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal logic</strong>: Inferences can be understood in terms of logical deduction</td>
<td>Why do teachers make the inferences they do?</td>
<td>Teachers have mental representations, and deductive and inductive procedures that produce the inferences they make.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rules</strong>: Human knowledge is naturally described in terms of rules</td>
<td>Why do teachers have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour?</td>
<td>Teachers have mental rules and procedures for using these rules to search a space of possible solutions, and procedures for generating new rules. These rule-forming procedures produce their behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Concepts</strong>: Schemas and scripts</td>
<td>Why do teachers have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour?</td>
<td>Teachers have a set of organised concepts, and a set of procedures for applying these concepts. The procedures applied to the concepts produce their behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analogies</strong>: Experiences</td>
<td>Why do teachers have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour?</td>
<td>Teachers have verbal and visual representations of situations that can be used as cases or analogs. They have processes of retrieval, mapping, and adaptation that operate on those analogs. The analogical processes, applied to the representations of analogs, produce their behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Images</strong>: Pictorial representations</td>
<td>Why do teachers have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour?</td>
<td>Teachers have visual images of situations. They have processes such as scanning and rotation that operate on those images. The processes for constructing and manipulating images produce their intelligent behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neural connections</strong>: Aspects of vision, decision making, explanation selection, and meaning making in language comprehension</td>
<td>Why do teachers have a particular kind of intelligent behaviour?</td>
<td>Teachers have representations that involve simple processing units linked to each other by excitatory and inhibitory connections. They have processes that spread activation between the units via their connections, as well as processes for modifying the connections. Applying spreading activation and learning to the units produces their behaviour.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To sum up, in Table 4.2 the points already raised to indicate the influences of cognitive science in the present study are brought together. In the left column the main characteristics of cognitive science are outlined and in the right column it is explained where these are taken up in the present study.

**Table 4.2 Cognitive science in the present study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive science</th>
<th>The present study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding how the mind works within a specific environment</td>
<td>The study seeks to gain insights into how experienced EFL state school teachers in Greece think and how they perceive teaching, learning and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What logic, rules, images etc guide teachers’ thinking and how these operate</td>
<td>The study seeks to identify why teachers think the way they do and what factors influence their thinking.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next section (4.3.2) it is explained what steps were followed to make this study one of good quality.

**4.2.2 Mixed Model in the Research Design and achieving Validity**

As mentioned in 4.2, both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods have been adopted for the present study. In the literature this is defined as “mixed model” (Bazeley, 2004), or “mixed methods” (Creswell, 2009). More specifically, a working definition is provided by Creswell and Garrett (2008, p. 322) and they define mixed methods as “an approach to inquiry in which the researcher links, in some way (e.g. merges, integrates, connects), both quantitative and qualitative data to provide a unified understanding of a research problem.”

Mixed methods research is philosophically informed by the pragmatic approach or worldview (Creswell, 2009). This means that the researcher’s focus is not on the method to be adopted, but on the research problem and on the approaches available to understand
the problem (ibid.). So the researcher can liberally draw from both qualitative and quantitative assumptions and is free to select those methods, techniques and procedures that best serve the needs and purposes of the study (ibid.). However, the researcher must establish a purpose and a rationale for mixing quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods (ibid.). Thus, “for the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as forms of data collection and analysis” (ibid., p. 11).

In the present study, adopting a mixed methods research design, was considered appropriate for the following reasons:

a) Previous belief studies combined qualitative and quantitative methods when collecting and analysing data (e.g. Weinstein, 1990; Joram and Gabrielle, 1998; Kunzman, 2003).

b) Enriching quantitative data with qualitative has been argued to enrich our understanding of the research problem (Bazeley, 2004).

In addition, Pasa and Cagla (2015, p. 168) explain that since “beliefs are difficult to elicit as they may be subconscious and they are related to each other in complex and dynamic ways”, a mixed-methods study can provide comprehensive and well-rounded data when studying beliefs. Pasa and Cagla (2015) strongly support the mixed methods approach because qualitative and quantitative methods complement each other, thus combining the two methods offers the possibility of combining the strengths of both methods and compensating for the weaknesses.

Therefore, in the present study the main data collection tool, the teachers’ questionnaire, contains both closed Likert-scale questions as well as open questions, and the semi-structured interview data have been used to enrich the questionnaire data.
Furthermore, the mixed-method was considered appropriate in the present belief study as eliciting teachers' beliefs is challenging since teachers may not always express their beliefs clearly; they may, for example, express professionally popular beliefs rather than their own beliefs. Thus, using only theoretical measures of teacher cognition is inadequate (Pasa and Cagla, 2015).

An issue to be discussed is how validity was achieved whilst following a mixed methods design. Creswell (2009) explains that the qualitative and quantitative approaches should not anymore be viewed as polar opposites, rather as the two ends of a continuum, so “a study can be more qualitative than quantitative or vice versa [and] mixed methods research resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches” (ibid., p. 3). So, when combining qualitative and quantitative methods researchers take advantage of the strengths of both approaches, thus it can be assumed that the result is a better understanding of the research problem (Creswell and Garrett, 2008). However, the goal of the mixed methods researcher should not only be to draw on the strengths of both approaches but also to minimise the effects of their weaknesses (Conelly, 2009). This is why in mixed methods research “validity stems more from the appropriateness, thoroughness and effectiveness with which [mixed] methods are applied and the care given to thoughtful weighing of the evidence than from the application of a particular set of rules” (Bazeley, 2004, p. 149). Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) explain that it is not a matter of achieving validity but a matter of achieving legitimation in mixed research. Legitimation refers to “the difficulty in obtaining findings and/or making inferences that are credible, trustworthy, dependable, transferable, and/or confirmable” (ibid., p. 51).
In applying the mixed methods research model, the following five areas suggested by Rocco et al. (2003, p. 22-23) were considered:

- Triangulation: It helps to increase the validity of the study and was achieved by using qualitative interviews and a quantitative questionnaire in data collection.
- Complementarity: It helps to increase both validity and interpretability by measuring overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon.
- Development: It helps to increase validity as results from one method were used to help develop or inform the other method.
- Initiation: It adds depth and breadth to the study. It involved a search for fresh insights as it deals with inconsistent results from qualitative and quantitative research findings and it emerges into the design.
- Expansion: It widens the scope of the study, as the different data provided a different and wider understanding of teachers' beliefs.

Summing up the above, three points were carefully considered in conducting this mixed methods study (Brannen, n.d., p. 13-14):

1. The logic of enquiry that drives the study (e.g. is the study inductive or deductive?)
2. The ordering of methods (e.g. is it sequential or simultaneous?) and
3. How dominant a method is going to be (e.g. is one data set treated as secondary or supplementary?).

In response to Brannen's points above, it should be mentioned that the study is inductive as it seeks to derive general principles about teachers' beliefs after investigating the participant teachers' statements about their beliefs. In the questionnaire, the order of methods could be described as simultaneous as the questionnaire contains both qualitative and quantitative questions, however the quantitative ones are more, thus more dominant
The relationship between the interviews and the questionnaire is sequential since the interview is conducted after the questionnaire. The interview is semi-structured, thus the data collected is qualitative. Quantitative data are dominant in the present study but are supplemented by qualitative data.

Finally, the following additional steps were followed in the present study to increase validity and make this a study of good quality:

- The context of the study (see 1.3) and the characteristics of the participants (see 4.4) are described to the reader in as much detail as possible.
- The quantitative and qualitative data collection (see 4.5) and analysis (see 4.7) procedures are made explicit.

4.3 The focus of the study

This is an empirical, exploratory, interpretive study combining quantitative and qualitative data analysis and collection methods, investigating the type of influence experience and in-service training have on EFL teachers’ beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching. It is also examined whether in-service training and teaching experience affect change in the teachers' practices. The study was conducted in Greece with Greek EFL lower and higher secondary school teachers with a teaching experience of more than 5 years. The focus of the study is on teacher knowledge (Ball, 2000) and on teacher learning (Kennedy, 1991). Freeman (2002, p. 1) highlights the importance of studying both areas, thus underlining the epistemological purpose of the present study:

“To explore this idea of the hidden side of teaching, … two main socio-cognitive processes [are examined]. One involves the developmental question of how individuals learn to teach; the other involves the epistemological question of how teachers know what they know to do what they do.”

The capitals indicate dominance.
The research questions the study seeks to answer have already been stated in 1.2.

4.4 Participants

The population studied are primarily experienced EFL high school teachers appointed in Lower and Upper Secondary Schools in Central Northern Greece\textsuperscript{14}. This area was chosen because it is the area in which the researcher lives and works so it was considered that contacting the teachers and advisors would be easier. A formal request for some official information was sent by the researcher to the Ministry of Education (Appendix A), which was forwarded by the Ministry to the Secondary Education Offices of Central Northern Greece (Prefectures of East and West Thessaloniki, Pella, Serres, Pieria, Chalkidiki, Imathia and Kilkis). It was officially requested they provide the researcher with the following information: a) The number of experienced (i.e. those appointed by 2007) EFL high school teachers and b) How many of these teachers are holders of a Master's (MA) or a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Degree. In table 4.3 the information provided by the Secondary Education Offices of Central Northern Greece is presented. The prefecture of Imathia and Kilkis are not included in the Table because there was no respond from the local Secondary Education Offices regarding the information requested through the Ministry of Education.

\textsuperscript{14} The teachers appointed in vocational schools (\textit{Επαγγελματικό Λύκειο/ΕΠΑΛ}), Music high schools, and Ecclesiastical high schools were not included, as their needs from in-service training may vary due to the particular characteristics of their schools and their students.
Table 4.3 EFL Teacher Population (high schools, Central Macedonia)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secondary Education Office</th>
<th>Experienced EFL Teachers in Lower and Higher Secondary Schools</th>
<th>MA or PhD holders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pella</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>6 (MA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serres</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20 (MA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pieria</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>9 (MA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thessaloniki (East)</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>31 (MA), 5 (PhD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thessaloniki (West)</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>24 (MA), 2 (PhD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalkidiki</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>6 (MA), 1 (PhD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>633</strong></td>
<td><strong>96 (MA), 8 (PhD)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Later, however, it was decided to administer the questionnaire to EFL lower and higher secondary school teachers all over Greece, since the 72 questionnaires initially collected from Central Macedonia were considered a small number, although it comprised the 1/10 of the total population, which is a statistically significant percentage of the population (Dornyei & Cziser, 2012). In this way, the study would broaden its perspective and the results would become more representative of the EFL teachers in Greece. For the purposes of the present study 307 questionnaires were collected that were fully answered: 293 online questionnaires and 14 hard copy questionnaires.

The participants fall into the following categories:

a) Experienced EFL teachers, with at least five years of teaching experience in lower and higher secondary education. The reason why the experienced teachers with more than 5 years of experience were selected is because in other studies with experienced teachers no teacher had a teaching experience of less than 5 years.

b) School advisors for state school teachers of English.

From the 307 teachers who filled in the questionnaire 11 teachers were also interviewed.

The profiles of the teachers interviewed are presented in table 4.4. The names are
pseudonyms and begin with ‘E’ for ‘experienced’. It must be highlighted that all teachers who were interviewed volunteered to do so. In all cases it was the teachers who, after having completed the questionnaire, first contacted the researcher saying they were willing to give an interview. By observing table 4.4 it can be easily noticed that nine out of the eleven teachers interviewed hold a postgraduate degree. This may be an indication that the teachers who have continued their studies at postgraduate level holding either an MA or a PhD are more sensitised towards research and are therefore willing to actively participate in other research studies.

**Table 4.4 Profiles of the experienced teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>MA</th>
<th>Attendance of in-service seminars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elena</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>MA in teaching Greek as a Foreign Language</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>5 7</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellie</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>MA in Translation and Interpreting</td>
<td>Three-four times a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elsa</td>
<td>More than 11</td>
<td>Master of Education (MEd) in Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>More than five times a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>More than 11</td>
<td>MEd in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elisa</td>
<td>5 7</td>
<td>MA in TESOL</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erica</td>
<td>5 7</td>
<td>MA in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language)</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erin</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>MA in the use of computers in language learning</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esther</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evie</td>
<td>More than 11</td>
<td>MA in TEFL</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eugene</td>
<td>8 10</td>
<td>MA in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>Three-four times a year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moving on to the second group of participants, that of school advisors, five school advisors were interviewed. The school advisors interviewed are active in the following geographical areas: Central Northern Greece, Eastern Northern Greece and Thrace, and Peloponnese. More details about the interviews are provided in 4.5.2. Three school advisors operate in Central Northern Greece, 1 in Eastern Northern Greece and Thrace and 1 in Peloponnese. All interviews were conducted face to face with the exception of the one
with the advisor from Peloponnese who was interviewed on the phone. The reason why it was decided to interview the advisor from Peloponnese was because two of the teachers interviewed are appointed in Peloponnese and both of them in their interviews underlined the effective cooperation they have with their advisor. In addition, the response rate from Peloponnese to the questionnaire was positive (26 questionnaires). The school advisors were interviewed to provide the researcher with information about:

i) In-service training (how is it organised, how often seminars are held, how many teachers attend, which topics are discussed, etc).

ii) What problems school advisors face regarding the organisation of in-service seminars.

iii) When and why teachers contact them (in which areas do they seek guidance, advice etc).

iv) What their proposals are for the future of in-service training.

4.5 Types of data collected and data collection procedures

Primary data were collected for the aims of this study. The data collection process involved the distribution of the questionnaire (see 4.5.1), and the audio recorded interviews with teachers and school advisors (see 4.5.2). In the following sections the types of data collected are presented in detail and the data collection techniques adopted are made explicit.
4.5.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire (Appendix C) was given to experienced EFL teachers, working in state schools in secondary education, aiming at gaining insights of their beliefs on language, language learning, language teaching, and teacher training.

With the help of the questionnaire it was made possible to collect the data “quickly, economically, and without significant effort on the researcher’s part” (Borg, 2006c, p. 174). In addition, using questionnaires is a widely used data collection technique in belief studies (see 4.2; Borg, 2006c).

The questionnaire includes mainly closed questions and a few open-ended ones. The open-ended questions were added, as such questions have the following advantages:

i) They are good for soliciting subjective data (Gatech, 1997)

ii) They result in a wide variety of responses that reflect the opinions of the respondents more accurately (Nunan, 1992a; Dörnyei, 2003)

iii) Beliefs are deeply personal (see 2.2), and open-ended questions can capture unanticipated information (Frary 1996; Dörnyei, 2003).

Joram and Gabriele (1998, p. 181) who investigated trainee teachers’ beliefs before and after a training course also used open-ended questions and explain that “because of their open-ended nature they do not influence the students to respond one way or another, and they have been shown to result in a broad range of responses…”

However, the limitations with open-ended questions were also considered:

- The answers might be too simple and superficial (Dörnyei, 2003)
- The halo effect, i.e. people tend to overgeneralise (Dörnyei, 2003)
The answers can be difficult to analyse (Gatech, 1997) as sometimes long answers can be inappropriate or uncodable (Dörnyei, 2003)

Different readers may interpret the questions differently (ibid.)

There might be variation in willingness and ability to respond in writing (Frary, 1996) as answering such questions requires more thought and time – compared to closed questions (Dörnyei, 2003). The teachers, however, who participated in the present study were really willing to answer the open-ended questions, as out of the 307 questionnaires collected the open-ended questions were fully answered in 282 questionnaires (see 5.3). This may be an indication that the teachers found the topic interesting and felt the need to express their beliefs on the effects of in-service training and experience and to state their needs from in-service training.

However, the above mentioned weaknesses apply only when questionnaires are the exclusive data collection tool and Dörnyei (2003, p. 15) explains that to overcome the limitations of open-ended questions, questionnaire data should be enriched and “the most effective strategy is … to combine the questionnaire survey with other data collection procedures”. Therefore, interviews were also used for the data collection procedure.

The design and construction of the questionnaire is now analytically discussed.

The questionnaire starts with some factual questions (Dörnyei, 2003) in order to get some information about who the respondents are. So Section A comprises four questions in which the teachers are asked to state their years of teaching experience, any additional qualification (e.g. MA, PhD), the Prefecture of Greece their school is located in and finally whether they attend training seminars and if yes how often.

Section B is divided into seven subsections and comprises forty-seven quantitative Likert scale items, three open-ended questions and a ranking question. The first forty-seven
questions, are statements to which the respondents have to reply by ticking a box on a Likert scale from 1 to 5 (where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree). The statements in subsection B1 are taken from the Teacher Version of the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) designed by Horwitz (1985), a pioneer in researching teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching. Permission was given by Elaine Horwitz to use the BALLI for the purposes of the present study (Appendix B). Horwitz designed the questionnaire both for research and teacher training purposes with the aim to investigate the opinions of the teachers on various issues related to language learning. It is a widely used instrument in studies and PhD dissertations. Horwitz developed the BALLI “to assess teacher opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning” (Horwitz, 1985, p. 334).

Horwitz (1985) explains that the BALLI is used in research to serve mainly two purposes: 1) To help researchers better understand why teachers choose particular teaching practices and 2) To identify possible conflicts between the beliefs of language teachers and those of their students. “As a teaching instrument the BALLI has also served as a useful discussion tool in in-service workshops and in foreign language methods classes” (Horwitz, 1985, p. 334) in order to understand what beliefs prospective teachers have. The BALLI assesses beliefs in four major areas (Horwitz, 1985): i) Foreign language aptitude (questions 1, 18), ii) The difficulty of language learning (questions 2, 3, 7), iii) The nature of language learning (questions 5, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17) and iv) Language learning strategies (questions 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12). The original questionnaire designed by Horwitz comprises 27 statements. Eighteen of these are included in subsection B1. Those eighteen items have been selected as they are considered to be mostly relevant with the focus of the present study (see 4.3). Horwitz (1985, p. 334) suggests that the responses of each individual item can be used “as discussion stimuli and as descriptions”.

119
Subsections B2 to B6 have the same design with subsection B1 (i.e. Likert scale response items). The statements, however, are derived from the literature and from findings from a qualitative study by Stergiopoulou (2012) where experienced foreign language teachers' beliefs were compared with student teachers’ beliefs. In table 4.5 the focus and the number of statements of each subsection are listed.

**Table 4.5** The focus of questionnaire subsections B2-B6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsection</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Number of questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>8 (questions 19-26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>Teacher's role</td>
<td>7 (questions 27-33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>5 (questions 34-38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>5 (questions 39-43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>4 (questions 44-47)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final subsection, B7, comprises three open-ended questions and a ranking one. The teachers are first asked to explain what expectations they have from training seminars. The aim is to gain deeper insights into their expectations as they may have additional expectations to the ones listed in subsection B2. Then, they are asked to describe any possible change(s) they can identify in their classroom practices as a result of their participation in training seminars and as a result of their teaching experience in the classroom. Finally, they are asked to rank in order of importance (by putting the most important factor first) the factors that have been identified by previous research so far as the most influential in shaping teachers' beliefs and to briefly comment on their ranking decision.

The Cronbach a was calculated for all subsections of the questionnaire to check internal consistency. For section B1 it was found to be 0.413, for section B2 0.474, for section B3 0.713, for section B4 0.462, for section B5 0.731 and for section B6 0.530. Although any measures less than 0.5 might be considered invalid, it was decided to proceed with the
data, for two reasons: (i) the study also employed qualitative data (see 4.2.2), and (ii) the qualitative findings provided support for the quantitative findings (see chapter 5).

Regarding the distribution of the questionnaires, this was done following the process described below:

The teachers were approached via e-mail. An e-mail was initially sent to all high schools in Central Macedonia that addressed the EFL teacher of the school. The aim was to explain to them what their participation in the study would involve and it was highlighted that as they were experienced teachers their help would be appreciated and their experience would be a valuable source. In the e-mail the researcher was briefly presented, the link of the questionnaire was given and the purpose of the study was outlined. Also, it was explained to the teachers that if they wanted to be interviewed, as part of the data collection process, they should feel free to contact the researcher either through e-mail or by phone. At first the questionnaire was forwarded to all Lower and Higher Secondary Schools in Central Macedonia. A week after the first distribution of the e-mail the teachers were contacted by phone to ask them whether they had received the e-mail and whether they would be willing to participate. It was, however, not possible to reach all teachers. A reminder e-mail was sent three weeks later thanking those teachers who had filled in the questionnaire and kindly reminding the ones who had not filled it in to kindly do so. This whole process took about three months (mid-September 2012 to early December 2012). It was then decided to forward the questionnaire all over Greece. The same strategy was employed: The e-mail was sent to all high schools addressing the EFL teachers, a reminder e-mail was sent three weeks later, and the data collection process was completed in April 2013. So a total of 293 online questionnaires was collected. The rest of the questionnaires (14 questionnaires) were hard copies filled in by teachers who participated
in a seminar given by one of the participant school advisors. The school advisor allowed the researcher to administer the questionnaire to the experienced teachers in the room at the beginning of the seminar and by the end of the seminar the completed questionnaires were handed in.

The questionnaire was made available online (http://evdokia.foupas.eu). Once the teachers filled in the questionnaire and clicked on the 'Submit' button the anonymous questionnaire was forwarded to the researcher's e-mail address. Each completed questionnaire was automatically given a unique code. This process ensured 100% anonymity. Overall the system recorded 815 clicks of the questionnaire. However, not all of the opened questionnaires were completed. What is more, it cannot be known whether all these 815 clicks came from teachers of English who met the survey's target group, i.e. experienced state school teachers working in lower and higher secondary education schools. Therefore, estimating the effectiveness of the survey tool based only on the response rate may not be the best way, as representativeness of the respondents is a better criterion for judging effectiveness (Biersdorff, 2009). There were questionnaires that were left totally blank and others that were partially or half-completed. The 293 questionnaires used for the study were those in which the Likert scale questions were fully answered (the questionnaires used were those in which the questions left unanswered were not more than three). Regarding the response rate, there can be no clear answer as to how many questionnaires are enough in mail surveys. In the literature various numerical answers are given ranging from 20% (Visser, Krosnick, Marquette and Curtin, 1996) to 75% (Bailey, 1987). The response rate for the present study is calculated at 36% (as out of the 815 viewed questionnaires 293 were answered), which is overall considered an average acceptable rate achieved after a reminder (Vanderleest, 1996).
4.5.2 Interviews

Interviews were taken from two groups of participants: From teachers and from school advisors. All interviews were semi-structured, as the course of the interview was determined by topics and issues emerging from the questionnaires (in the interviews with the teachers) and from the focus of the study and the literature (in the interviews with school advisors) rather than a list of predetermined questions (Nunan, 1992a). Therefore, an interview schedule was prepared consisting of a list of questions and topics aiming to be explored during each interview. More precisely, the list included the following questions/topics to be discussed:

- Your comments on your experience from the initial training you received when attending PEK
- What kind of seminars do you usually choose to attend?
- Have you ever been asked about your needs from in-service training?
- Reflecting an the in-service training you have received so far, have you made any changes in your teaching as a result of it?
- What problems do you identify in in-service training?
- What changes would you like to see in the future? Suggestions for better in-service training. Suggestions for topics for in-service training.
- Reflecting on your teaching experience, have you made any changes in your teaching as a result of it?
- How have your studies influenced your beliefs about teaching?

The schedules helped to keep the interaction focused (Hoepf, 1997), since semi-structured interviews are rather flexible (ibid.) and allow “depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the respondent’s responses” (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p. 157). Also, the semi-structured interview format gave
the researcher a great deal of flexibility in the manner in which the interviewee was encouraged to talk about the themes to be discussed (Borg, 2006c, p. 190).

Eleven teachers volunteered to be interviewed. They all completed the online questionnaire and then contacted the researcher in response to the e-mail they had initially received, inviting them to fill in the questionnaire, saying that they would like to be interviewed. Care was taken to arrange the interview some time close to the time of the questionnaire so that the teacher would have the questionnaire in mind. What is more, the list of the interview topics was e-mailed in advance to the teachers so that they would have an idea of what would be discussed, but also in order to minimise any stress they might be feeling by familiarising them with the discussion topics. The interviews were carried out in Greek, since when discussing beliefs one should feel comfortable; so expressing and discussing them in the mother tongue can result in richer data, as the situation is less stressful for the interviewee and allows the interviewer and the interviewee to go into greater depth.

Four teachers were interviewed face-to-face and seven interviews were conducted by phone because of the geographical distance. The face-to-face interviews took place at a time and place selected by the interviewees. In the same way, the telephone interviews were arranged at a day and time suggested by the interviewees and the phone call was made by the researcher. Five school advisors were interviewed (see 4.4) in order to provide information about the reality of in-service teacher training in Greece but also to provide a different viewpoint on the topic of teacher training and belief change. As with teacher, the interview agenda was e-mailed to the advisors prior to the interview. The topics to be discussed included:
- In-service education/training in Greece for experienced EFL teachers (e.g. How often are seminars held? How many teachers attend? What topics are discussed? Any problems? etc)

- Experienced teachers' needs and expectations from training.

- What kind of problems do teachers report when they contact their advisor? In which areas do they need guidance and support?

- The role of experience in shaping teachers' beliefs and actions.

- Suggestions for the future.

The advisors provided valuable information on the process followed in training state school teachers from the point they start working in a state school and explained how they follow-up and advise their teachers. Problems were discussed that both teachers but also school advisors face regarding training and some suggestions for the future were also put forward.

Before each interview began, some key elements were considered. First of all, the nature of the research and the purpose of the interview were explained to the interviewee, i.e. it was made clear that the study is about teachers' beliefs and the effects of in-service training and teaching experience. It was also highlighted that the data were to be used for the purposes of the present study only. Following the advice given by Walker (1985, in Nunan, 1992a) the physical positioning of the interviewer and the interviewee was considered in the face-to-face interviews. This means that we sat side-by-side as this can be more productive than face-to-face, due to the fact that it conveys the message of cooperation. Care was taken so that eye-contact was maintained. Tables 4.6 and 4.7 give more information regarding the amount of interview data collected as well as the length of the interviews. In order to preserve the actual wording and content the interviews were
recorded. The recorder might be off-putting, but taking notes while the interviewee is speaking is more stressful for the interviewee, as this does not allow eye-contact.

**Table 4.6** Length of interviews with teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elena</td>
<td>12'44&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>13'46&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellie</td>
<td>12'52&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elsa</td>
<td>18'52&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>15'36&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elisa</td>
<td>27'37&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erica</td>
<td>42'03&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erin</td>
<td>13'35&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esther</td>
<td>15'40&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evie</td>
<td>11'00&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eugene</td>
<td>12'01&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3 hours 15 min. 46 sec.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.7** Length of interviews with school advisors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advisor</th>
<th>Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anna</td>
<td>64'58&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alex</td>
<td>08'01&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alice</td>
<td>28'15&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agatha</td>
<td>21'25&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angie</td>
<td>17'36&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2 hours 20 minutes 15 seconds</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When transcribing the interviews the exact words of the interviewee were recorded without making any changes regarding structure (Appendix D).
4.6 Piloting

The questionnaires were piloted before the actual data collection process commenced in order for the following points to be made clear:

- Are the questions clear or are there any problems in understanding the questions because of the wording, i.e. terms used or syntax?
- Do all the questions in the questionnaire need to be included or are there questions that produce the same answers?
- Should questions be added, i.e. are there aspects that need to be further clarified?
- Are questionnaires the best method to collect the data I need, i.e. can the research questions be answered?

The online questionnaire was forwarded to teachers via internet sites of EFL teacher groups in Greece. 11 e-mails with completed questionnaires were received. Two more questionnaires were handed out as hard copies. The teachers answered all the questions and did not seem to have any difficulties either with filling in the questionnaire or with understanding the questions. However, a few changes were made in the questionnaire as a result of the piloting. More specifically, changes were made in the following sections:

Section A: Question 3 was added (“I work in a school in the Prefecture of …..”) to get an idea of the geographical area most questionnaires were collected from. In question 4 regarding the attendance of training seminars the option 'Not anymore' was added and question 4b which asked teachers to explain why they do not attend training seminars was taken out, as all teachers had replied that they attend training seminars\(^{15}\).

\(^{15}\) Besides, initial training is compulsory for state school teachers and at some point during their career they will have attended a seminar or a training session with their advisor. Therefore, this question was not considered necessary.
Section B: Subsection B7 was added. It was decided to include the open-ended questions to gain deeper insights into change and the shaping of beliefs. These are some of the questions that were to be discussed in the interviews with the teachers (see 4.5.2), but it was decided that asking more teachers through the questionnaire would yield richer data.

4.7 Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was both quantitative and qualitative. The Likert scale questions and the ranking question in B7 were analysed quantitatively (apart from the data obtained from the open questions in subsection B7) using the SPSS software package (version 17) to compute calculations and conduct analyses. A 5% statistical significance level has been considered for all statistical tests. The quantitative analysis involved several statistical procedures. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, means and standard deviations were computed to summarise the teachers' responses to the belief items. For uni-variate analysis, results are expressed with mean value (measure of central tendency) and standard deviation (measure of dispersion) for all the 5-point Likert scale measured items (considered as continuous variables). Findings for categorical variables – nominal type of data (e.g. education, experience) are presented as absolute frequencies (number of responses) and relative frequencies (percentage distribution). Also, for the clarity of the findings, percentages of every category of the Likert scale are reported.

To determine the empirical relationship between variables (e.g. teaching experience and beliefs on in-service training), bivariate analysis has been employed. This refers to the existence of any statistically significant differences between a dichotomous variable and the factors derived from the items. Non parametric Mann-Whitney test has been employed to reveal any differences.
As for the analysis of qualitative data it should be noted that it was a complex undertaking, as “there is no set of rules, no simple recipe, that one can follow … which will always be appropriate and guarantee good results” (Boulton and Hammersley, 1996, p. 289). It mainly involved developing categories and assigning these to the data (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). It ran along a description-analysis continuum (ibid.) and as Nunan (1992a) highlights, in qualitative analyses there is no particular moment when data analysis begins as impressions are formed as early as the data collection process begins. The process of the qualitative analysis was inductive and began with data reduction, which involved first the reading of all data (e.g. transcripts) and next the organisation of the data into units (Barcelos, 2003). Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 345) define a unit as the “smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself” and can be interpreted within the broader context of inquiry. These units were then grouped into categories which were continuously reviewed and revised (Barcelos, 2003).

Apart from the process described above, in analysing and interpreting the data the three important elements according to Freeman (1996a, p.371) were considered:

- **Stance**, i.e. the researcher’s attitude towards the participants. The stance can be participatory, where the participants become co-analysts, or declarative, where the analysis is handled by the researcher. For the present study a declarative stance was mainly adopted.
- **Process**, i.e. the way in which the data analysis unfolds throughout the research process. The process can be linear, where the researcher follows certain steps to analyse the data, or iterative, where the researcher moves back and forth to verify and extend the meanings revealed by the data. The process would be described as iterative, because it involved going through the qualitative data many times before reaching any conclusions. A preliminary analysis was carried out immediately after the data collection. So, the
questionnaire data obtained from the open-ended questions was analysed by being first displayed in tables. Similarly, the interviews were first transcribed and entered into tables around pre-determined categories emerging from the questionnaire and the focus of the research questions. This allowed to reduce the data by identifying links among the different types of data collected so that conclusions could be drawn. It also enabled the quantification of the qualitative data.

- **The categories** the researcher uses, which shape the stance and the process. In qualitative research the categories can fall into one of the four groups as shown in figure 4.1. Concerning the categories used, these would fall into the last group of figure 4.1, namely a priori analysis, as they were determined in advance since they were structured from the questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMIC</th>
<th>ETIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outsider as Insider</td>
<td>Outsider as Outsider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounded Analysis Categories and analysis emerge from data with minimal a priori expectation.</td>
<td>Negotiated Analysis Categories and analysis developed by researcher with input of participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided Analysis Categories developed a priori; subsequent analysis guided – and categories modified through interaction with data.</td>
<td>A Priori Analysis Categories determined in advance of data collection; analysis according to those categories.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1** Data analysis and interpretation (Freeman, 1996a, p. 372)

The type and amount of final data collected for the purposes of the present study are presented in table 4.8.
Table 4.8 Data sets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of data</th>
<th>Amount of experienced teacher data</th>
<th>Amount of school advisors data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>11 (transcribed, a total of 3 hours 15 minutes 46 seconds)</td>
<td>5 (transcribed, a total of 2 hours 20 minutes 15 seconds)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n/a = not applicable

To answer the first research question (see 1.2), the experienced teachers’ questionnaires were statistically analysed. More specifically, the statements from section B listed in table 4.9 were used in order to locate the teachers’ beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching.

Table 4.9 Questionnaire data analysed for the first research question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Question Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>BALLI</td>
<td>1 to 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>the teacher's role</td>
<td>27 to 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>39-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>classroom management</td>
<td>44-47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>39 questions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interview data were then used to help gain a better and deeper understanding of the teachers’ beliefs. Carefully selected extracts from the teachers’ answers have been quoted, aiming at illustrating as clearly as possible the teachers’ beliefs, attitudes and practices (Holliday, 2002).

To answer the second research question (see 1.2), questionnaire statements 34-38 from section B4 focusing on teaching experience were analysed. Next, the interview data were used to enrich the researcher's understanding of the role of experience. The data obtained from the open questions 50 and 51 were also analysed aiming to identify the effects of teaching experience on teaching practices and beliefs.
To answer the first part of the third research question (see 1.2), questionnaire statements 19-26 from section B2 focusing on teacher training were analysed. Again, the interview data was used to enhance my understanding of the role of training on teachers' beliefs. The data gathered from the open questions 49 and 51 were also analysed aiming to identify the effects of in-service training on teaching practices and beliefs. To answer the second part of the third research questions, i.e. to identify the expectations experienced teachers have from in-service training their answers to the open question 48 were examined and the data was arranged into groups. The data was also enriched by the interview data.

Further analysis of the quantitative data was carried out to identify correlations between teachers' beliefs and the effects of actual teaching experience, of the attendance of in-service seminars, and of postgraduate studies. So comparisons were made using the Mann-Whitney test between:

a) Teachers with 5-7 years of experience and teachers with more than 11 years of experience to identify the effects of experience on teachers' beliefs. It was decided to divide the comparison groups in these specific two groups, as according to the literature (see 2.4.3) a teacher can be identified as experienced after the completion of at least five years of teaching experience. Therefore, if any changes in beliefs take place as a result of teaching experience, these would be identifiable after comparing teachers at their early years and teachers who have longer classroom experience.

b) Teachers who attend in-service training seminars 4-5 times a year and those who attend only once or not anymore in order to identify the effects of in-service training on teachers' beliefs.

c) Teachers who hold a postgraduate degree and those who do not in order to identify any differences in beliefs.
How each research question was approached is summarised in Table 4.10. In the first column the research question is stated. In the second it is indicated what data sets were used to answer each question, and in the third the context of analysis is presented by indicating the relevant sections in the analysis chapter.

**Table 4.10 Summary of the study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question (see 4.2)</th>
<th>Data sets (the numbers refer to the relevant sections)</th>
<th>Context of analysis (the numbers refer to the relevant sections)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1) What beliefs do experienced foreign language teachers have about language, language learning, and language teaching? | • 307 questionnaires (4.5.1)  
• transcribed interviews (3 hours 15 minutes and 46 seconds) (4.5.2) | Beliefs experienced teachers hold about:  
• Language  
• Learning a foreign language  
• Teaching a foreign language  
• Influential factors in shaping beliefs (5.2.1, 5.3.4, 6.2) |
| 2) What is the role of teaching experience in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and teaching? | • 307 questionnaires (4.5.1)  
• 16 transcribed interviews (5 hours 35 minutes and 61 seconds) (4.5.2)  
• 282 replies to the open questions 50 and 51 | The role/effect of teaching experience on experienced teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. (5.2.2, 5.2.4, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 6.3) |
| 3) a. What is the role of in-service training in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and language teaching?  
 b. What expectations do experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training? | • 307 questionnaires (4.5.1)  
• 16 transcribed interviews (5 hours 35 minutes and 61 seconds) (4.5.2)  
• 282 replies to the open questions 48, 49 and 51 | The role/effect of in-service training on experienced teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. (5.2.3, 5.2.4, 5.3.3, 5.3.1, 5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.4.4, 5.5.2, 6.4, 6.5) |
4.8 Ethical Issues

A number of ethical issues had to be taken into consideration before undertaking the study. It was explained to the teachers and the school advisors interviewed what were the aims of the study, as well as the responsibilities of the researcher. Every care has been taken to maintain anonymity, to the extent that this is possible. The feminine pronouns (she, her) are used when referring to the teachers, irrespective of the teachers’ gender (Holliday, 2002). In addition, the fact that all data is coded and stored under pseudonyms helps to ensure that anonymity is preserved to the greatest degree possible.

4.9 Summary

In this chapter the theoretical methodological background of the study was presented followed by a detailed presentation of the methods of data collection, including the questionnaire and interviews. The data analysis procedure was then discussed. Having examined the methodological and philosophical issues, comprising the basis of the present study, in the next chapter (chapters 5 the results from the analysis of the data are presented.
Chapter 5

Results

5.1 Overview

In this chapter the analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data is presented. First, the statistical findings of the quantitative data are presented, and are later enhanced through comparison with the qualitative questionnaire and interview data to help gain deeper insights into the area researched, i.e. into experienced teachers' beliefs and needs from in-service training. Finally, the reality of in-service training, as this is described by the advisors in the interviews, is presented, to help with the interpretation of the qualitative findings, as through these interviews the background within which in-service training in Greece takes place is illustrated.

5.2 Quantitative Results

In the next section (5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.2.3, 5.2.4) the quantitative results are presented based on the analysis of the Likert scale questions in the questionnaire (sections B1, B2, B3, B4, B5, B6). In the final section (5.2.4) the quantitative findings are correlated in order to identify any relationships among the data.

5.2.1 Experienced foreign language teachers' beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching

The beliefs experienced EFL teachers have about language, language learning and language teaching were found after analysing the data collected from sections B1, B3, B5 and B6 of the questionnaire (see 4.5.1). The aim is to gain insights into the teachers' general beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching. The questions in section B1 are taken from the BALLI (see 4.5.1) and the findings are presented in relation
to the four areas the BALLI assesses beliefs: Foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning, nature of language learning and language learning strategies. When reporting the quantitative results from the Likert scale questions of the questionnaire the five scales are reported as 3, as the strongly disagree and disagree percentages are added and similarly the agree and strongly agree percentages are also reported as one number, to reflect the teachers' tendency to either disagree or agree.

i) **Foreign Language Aptitude**: Concerning foreign language aptitude experienced foreign language teachers tend to agree that everyone can learn a foreign language (70.4%, mean 3.88) however, they also agree that some people have an innate ability to learn foreign languages (76.5%, mean 3.89) (Table 5.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1 Beliefs about Foreign Language Aptitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

ii) **Difficulty of Language Learning**: In relation to whether it is difficult or not to learn English as a foreign language more than half of the teachers believe that English is easy to learn (69.1%, mean 2.20) and to teach (68.0%, mean 2.17). Also, the majority (86.7%, mean 4.7) believe that if someone already speaks one foreign language, then this person can learn another foreign language more easily, as they have developed the ability but also activated the mechanism to learn a foreign language (Table 5.2). However, linking this final belief with the findings from table 5.1, the main belief is that everyone can learn a foreign language, but for some people it may be easier.
Table 5.2 Beliefs about the Difficulty of Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. English is a difficult language to learn.</td>
<td>21,5</td>
<td>47,6</td>
<td>21,4</td>
<td>8,8</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>2,20</td>
<td>0,90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. English is a difficult language to teach.</td>
<td>22,1</td>
<td>45,9</td>
<td>25,4</td>
<td>5,5</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>2,17</td>
<td>0,87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>3,9</td>
<td>8,1</td>
<td>59,3</td>
<td>27,4</td>
<td>4,07</td>
<td>0,79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

iii) **Nature of Language Learning**: Table 5.3 refers to the teachers' beliefs in relation to the nature of language learning. The teachers do not seem to take position of whether knowing the culture is necessary in order to speak the foreign language, i.e. 31,6% neither agree or disagree, 30,3% agree and 28,3% disagree (mean 3,12). A large percentage of the participants (67,8%, mean 3.73) agree that learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects. The majority also disagree that learning a foreign language is just a matter of learning only vocabulary (48,5%, mean 2.62) or only grammar (62,9%, mean 2,32) or of translating from one's mother tongue (87%, mean 1,70). There is also agreement that receptive skills (reading, listening) are easier than the productive skill of speaking. Writing, on the other hand, although it is a productive skill, is considered easier when compared to speaking.
Table 5.3 Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>28,3</td>
<td>31,6</td>
<td>30,3</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>3,12</td>
<td>0,98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary.</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td>38,4</td>
<td>31,6</td>
<td>18,9</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>2,62</td>
<td>0,94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>48,9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5,9</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>2,32</td>
<td>0,83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It is easier to understand than speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>4,6</td>
<td>12,1</td>
<td>57,0</td>
<td>25,4</td>
<td>4,01</td>
<td>0,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>10,7</td>
<td>19,5</td>
<td>48,9</td>
<td>18,9</td>
<td>3,73</td>
<td>0,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Greek.</td>
<td>53,1</td>
<td>33,9</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>2,0</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>1,70</td>
<td>0,99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. It is easier to read and write a foreign language than to speak it.</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>24,4</td>
<td>25,4</td>
<td>40,4</td>
<td>6,2</td>
<td>3,21</td>
<td>1,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

iv) Language Learning Strategies: There is a tendency to agree that living in the foreign country makes the process of language learning easier (62,2%, mean 3.76) (Table 5.4). Nearly all participants also agree that it is important to revise and practise a lot (94,2% , mean 4.37). The final group of questions regarding language learning strategies deals with the role of mistakes and with whether students should be allowed to make errors. Having a native like accent or at least an excellent accent is not considered important according to 47,2% (mean 2,78) of the participants. In contrast, only 27.3% believe that the learner should try to achieve a native like accent. Nearly all participants disagree with the belief that students should not be given the opportunity to speak unless they are able to make the least possible errors they may make (92,5%, mean 1,49). The teachers agree with the belief that students should be given the opportunity to guess meaning from context (88,6%, mean 4,31).
### Table 5.4 Beliefs about Language Learning Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.</td>
<td>8,8</td>
<td>38,4</td>
<td>25,4</td>
<td>20,5</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>2,78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. You shouldn't say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.</td>
<td>65,1</td>
<td>27,4</td>
<td>2,9</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>1,49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. It is better to learn a foreign language when living in the foreign country.</td>
<td>2,0</td>
<td>12,1</td>
<td>23,8</td>
<td>32,2</td>
<td>30,0</td>
<td>3,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in the foreign language.</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>6,8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46,6</td>
<td>4,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. It is important to revise and practice a lot.</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>4,6</td>
<td>49,2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4,37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.</td>
<td>21,5</td>
<td>44,6</td>
<td>16,9</td>
<td>13,4</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>2,33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

The beliefs experienced teachers hold about the teacher's primary role are investigated in section B3 of the questionnaire (Table 5.5). There is overall agreement that the teacher holds multiple roles, which are listed here according to the degree of attention they receive: The teacher must be able to adapt her teaching approach according to the learners' needs (98%, mean 4,66), the teacher must help learners discover effective learning approaches (95,4%, mean 4,48), it is the teacher's role to pass on knowledge (93,1%, mean 4,30) and to provide useful learning experiences (92,5%, mean 4,24), the teacher is a model of correct language use (79,7%, mean 3,95) and should answer the students' questions (77,1%, mean 3,94). The interest, however, lies in belief number 30, about whether the teacher's role is to correct the learners' errors. The majority of the teachers tend to agree (48,2%, mean 3,32), but there is a 32,1% that neither agrees or disagrees whether this is among the teacher's roles, and 19,7% tend to disagree.

139
Table 5.5 Beliefs about the Teachers' Role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The teacher’s primary role is to …</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27. …provide useful learning experiences.</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>6,2</td>
<td>59,8</td>
<td>32,7</td>
<td>4,24</td>
<td>0,62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. …provide a model of correct language use.</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>15,4</td>
<td>58,5</td>
<td>21,2</td>
<td>3,95</td>
<td>0,77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. … answer learners’ questions.</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>5,6</td>
<td>17,3</td>
<td>54,9</td>
<td>22,2</td>
<td>3,94</td>
<td>0,78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. … correct learners’ errors.</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>17,4</td>
<td>32,1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6,2</td>
<td>3,32</td>
<td>0,91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. … help learners discover effective approaches to learning.</td>
<td>0,3</td>
<td>0,7</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>41,2</td>
<td>54,2</td>
<td>4,48</td>
<td>0,63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. … pass on knowledge and skills to their learners.</td>
<td>0,3%</td>
<td>1,3%</td>
<td>5,2%</td>
<td>54,4%</td>
<td>38,7%</td>
<td>4,30</td>
<td>0,66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. … adapt teaching approaches to match their learners’ needs.</td>
<td>0,7%</td>
<td>0,3%</td>
<td>1,0%</td>
<td>28,4%</td>
<td>69,6%</td>
<td>4,66</td>
<td>0,59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

How the teacher creates the effective learning environment is reflected through the participants' beliefs about teaching (section B5) and classroom management (section B6) (Table 6.6). Nearly all teachers (84,3%, mean 3,96) believe that having a lesson plan is important. Apart from organisation and planning, they agree that teachers should employ a variety of teaching methods (94,2%, mean 4,35) and activities (96,7%, mean 4,51). More precisely, they find that using authentic material (84,3%, mean 4,18) and encouraging self-/peer-correction (88,6%, mean 4,19) are helpful practices.
Table 5.6 Beliefs about Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39. It is important to use authentic material when teaching a foreign language.</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. It is important to encourage self-/peer-correction.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. It is important to have a lesson plan.</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. It is important to employ a variety of teaching methods.</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. It is important to use a variety of different activities in the classroom.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

Finally, their beliefs about classroom management (Table 5.7) indicate that they avoid shouting (65.3%, mean 2.15) and instead try to manage a class by using gestures or by maintaining eye-contact (87.5%, mean 4.12). However, although they seem to take a more learner-friendly approach in classroom management and seem to opt for creating a relaxing atmosphere, the results regarding the options of being strict and authoritative and using punishment are quite interesting, as the teachers do not take a clear stand as to whether they are for or against these methods. More specifically, 36.5% neither agree nor disagree as to whether being strict and authoritative is a solution to effective classroom management. By observing the mean score (2.53), however, the overall tendency is that they disagree that a class can be managed effectively by a strict and authoritative teacher. Similarly, regarding the use of punishment, although they do not opt for it (mean 2.48), 30.9% neither agree nor disagree that the enforcement of punishment can be a successful technique towards classroom management.
Table 5.7 Beliefs about Classroom Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44. To manage a class I try to be strict and authoritative.</td>
<td>16,0</td>
<td>31,9</td>
<td>36,5</td>
<td>14,0</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>2,53</td>
<td>0,97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. To manage a class I shout.</td>
<td>32,0</td>
<td>33,3</td>
<td>23,2</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>2,15</td>
<td>1,03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. To manage a class I use gestures and eye-contact to avoid shouting.</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>3,0</td>
<td>8,5</td>
<td>57,7</td>
<td>29,8</td>
<td>4,12</td>
<td>0,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. To manage a class I use punishment (i.e. send students out of the classroom, send them to the director’s office etc).</td>
<td>20,5</td>
<td>30,6</td>
<td>30,9</td>
<td>16,3</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>2,48</td>
<td>1,04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

5.2.2 Experienced Teachers' Beliefs about the role of teaching experience

In this section the analysis of the quantitative data from section B4 of the questionnaire is presented. The results from the closed questions (questionnaire section B4) indicate that experienced teachers consider their teaching experience to be of great importance (Table 5.8). Nearly all agree that their teaching experience has affected their beliefs and they have made changes in their teaching as a result of their experience. What they also consider of importance is having the opportunity to share classroom experiences with colleagues (86,1%, mean 4,05). However, 88,6% (mean 4,17) believe that experience alone is not enough in learning to teach. Lastly, they do not feel that having a lot of experience makes them less flexible in adopting new ideas (53,4%, mean 2,57).
Table 5.8 Beliefs about the role of experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief</th>
<th>SD  %</th>
<th>D  %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A  %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34. The more teaching experience a teacher has the less flexible s/he is in adopting new ideas.</td>
<td>19,3</td>
<td>34,1</td>
<td>23,9</td>
<td>15,1</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>2,57</td>
<td>1,18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. My teaching experience has affected my beliefs about foreign language teaching.</td>
<td>0,3</td>
<td>4,9</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>64,7</td>
<td>19,3</td>
<td>3,98</td>
<td>0,73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I have made changes in my teaching as a result of my teaching experience.</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>63,1</td>
<td>32,7</td>
<td>4,25</td>
<td>0,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. I learn by sharing classroom experiences with colleagues.</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>9,9</td>
<td>61,8</td>
<td>24,3</td>
<td>4,05</td>
<td>0,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Teaching experience alone is not enough in learning to teach.</td>
<td>0,3</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>6,9</td>
<td>57,4</td>
<td>31,8</td>
<td>4,17</td>
<td>0,73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

5.2.3 Experienced Teachers’ Beliefs about the role of in-service training

To begin with, the results from the closed questions in the questionnaire (Table 5.9) indicate that the experienced teachers consider in-service training seminars to be influential, as 74% (mean 3,79) state they have made changes in their teaching as a result of attending training seminars. The majority also feel that such seminars help them remember and refresh their knowledge about teaching (67,9%, mean 3,69), give them new ideas about teaching (87,9%, mean 4,15), and even help them address some classroom problems (57,9%, mean 3,48). Such seminars are considered helpful when they combine theory and workshops (95,1%, mean 4,48). On the negative side, there is a feeling that sometimes seminars present ideas that are too theoretical (38,7%, mean 3,25) and some of the ideas presented are not always applicable (44,1% neither agree nor disagree, mean 2,74).
### Table 5.9 Beliefs about training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>N/N %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St.Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Training seminars/conferences etc help me to remember the various teaching theories and methods.</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Training seminars/conferences etc are helpful when they combine theory and workshops.</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Training seminars/conferences etc help me to address my classroom problems.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Training seminars/conferences give me new ideas about teaching.</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The ideas presented in training seminars/conferences are not applicable in my classroom.</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I have made changes in my teaching as a result of attending training seminars/conferences etc.</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Attending training seminars/conferences etc has affected my beliefs about foreign language teaching.</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Training seminars are too theoretical.</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(SD= Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, N/N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree, St.Dev.= Standard Deviation)

### 5.2.4 Correlations

To investigate the correlation between the characteristics of the sample (based on teaching experience, postgraduate studies and attendance of in-service seminars) and their answers for each factor the Mann-Whitney Test was employed.

The quantitative questionnaire data (sections B1 to B6) were reanalysed by employing the Mann-Whitney Test to identify whether there are any differences in teachers' beliefs based...
on the actual years of their teaching experience. The participants were divided into two
groups (Table 5.10): Teachers with 5-7 years of teaching experience and teachers with
more than 8 years of teaching experience (see 2.4.3, 4.7).

Table 5.10 Grouping teachers according to teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>246</td>
<td>80.1</td>
<td>80.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>307</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, when interpreting the findings it should be kept in mind that there is a
difference in the number of participants in each group, as out of the 307 participants
19.9% (N=61) have a teaching experience of 5-7 years and 80.1% (N=246) have a
teaching experience of more than 8 years. This is so, because the study aimed to target
experienced teachers' beliefs (see 4.3) and therefore the data was collected from
experienced teachers only. Nevertheless, according to the Central Limit Theory, the
distribution of the sample means has an approximate normal distribution, no matter what
the distribution of the original data looks like, as long as the sample size is large enough,
usually at least 30 (Rumsey, 2011). Another important point to mention is that the 246
Questionnaires were completed by teachers who teach in schools in large urban areas (e.g.
Thessaloniki East and West, Athens), in which EFL secondary school teachers are
appointed after they have served schools in rural areas all over Greece for at least 10-12
years. The findings are presented in Table 5.11. By observing Table 5.11 it becomes
evident that teaching experience does not seem to have a significant effect on experienced
teachers' beliefs. The only exception is teachers' beliefs about the Nature of Language
Learning (p=0.05).
Table 5.11 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Belief Areas</th>
<th>Teaching Experience</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Aptitude</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Difficulty</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Language Learning</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Strategies</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>Ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's role</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>Ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>Ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>Ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Management</td>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>Ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ns= non significant, N= Number, p<0.050)

By further observing the table, there is a further small difference, concerning the strongest and weakest beliefs of the two groups of teachers (Table 5.12). Though not statistically significant, it is considered interesting to go through the strongest and weakest beliefs of the correlated data, as they are indicators of the way teachers think and might help to identify some tendencies between the groups compared each time. The only difference is that the more experienced teachers tend to disagree with most belief statements on Language Learning Difficulty and on Classroom Management.
Table 5.12 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on the years of teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Strongest Belief</th>
<th>Weakest Belief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>Teaching (mean=4.20)</td>
<td>Language Learning Difficulty (mean= 2.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 + years</td>
<td>Teaching (mean=4.25)</td>
<td>Language Learning Difficulty and Classroom management (mean= 2.82)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to examine in detail any difference in beliefs between holders of a postgraduate degree and those without a postgraduate degree, the Mann-Whitney Test was run for all nine factors of the questionnaire. For each factor the mean of all items was calculated and for those factors that proved to be statistically significant (p<0.05) the analysis was run for each item separately. The aim of this analysis was to identify the effects of postgraduate studies on experienced teachers' beliefs, by comparing the beliefs of the participant teachers who do not hold a postgraduate degree (57%, N= 175) with the beliefs of those teachers who have a postgraduate degree (43%, N= 132). The total number of the participants of each group is presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Experienced teachers with and without a postgraduate degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postgraduate Degree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>57,0</td>
<td>57,0</td>
<td>57,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>43,0</td>
<td>43,0</td>
<td>43,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings are listed in Table 5.14 Three statistically important differences were revealed in the following areas:
a) Beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning ($p=0.052$): The experienced teachers without a postgraduate degree neither agreed or disagreed with the items that examined their beliefs about the Nature of Language Learning ($M=3.00$, $SD=0.39$). Those, however, who had a postgraduate degree had the tendency to disagree ($M=2.90$, $SD=0.45$).

b) Beliefs about Language Learning Strategies ($p=0.027$): Both groups neither agreed nor disagreed with the items examining their beliefs about Language Learning Strategies, but the experienced teachers without a postgraduate degree scored higher ($M=3.21$, $SD=0.36$) compared to the experienced teachers with a postgraduate degree ($M=3.13$, $SD=0.45$).

c) Beliefs about Teaching ($p=0.028$): Both groups agreed with the items examining their beliefs about Teaching, but the experienced teachers without a postgraduate degree scored lower ($M=4.18$, $SD=0.53$) compared to the experienced teachers with a postgraduate degree ($M=4.31$, $SD=0.46$).

Table 5.14 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor Postgraduate studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postgraduate Degree</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Aptitude</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Difficulties</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Language Learning</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Strategies</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's role</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Another difference between the two groups of teachers concerns the weakest belief (Table 5.15.). The teachers without a postgraduate degree tend to disagree with most beliefs about Classroom Management and the teachers with a postgraduate degree score lower on the beliefs about Language Learning Difficulty.

**Table 5.15 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on having a postgraduate degree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postgraduate Degree</th>
<th>Strongest Belief</th>
<th>Weakest Belief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Teaching (mean=4,18)</td>
<td>Classroom Management (mean=2,83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Teaching (mean=4,31)</td>
<td>Language Learning Difficulty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(mean=2,77)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, the quantitative data were analysed again by applying the Mann-Whitney Test in order to identify differences in beliefs based on the frequency the participant teachers attend in-service training seminars. The participants were divided into two groups (Table 5.16): The first group were the teachers who attend seminars up to twice a year (54,7%, N=168) and the second group are the teachers who stated they attend seminars more than three times a year (39,1%, N=120). The reason why the limit in the first group was placed in twice a year, is because most teachers attend the meetings with their school advisors that usually take place twice a year (at the beginning and at the end of the school year). These meetings are not obligatory, however, they are highly attended.
Table 5.16 Frequency of Attending In-service Seminars

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings are listed in Table 5.17 below. Statistically significant differences were observed in two areas:

a) Beliefs about Teaching (p= 0.026): Both groups agreed with the items examining their beliefs about Teaching, but the experienced teachers who attend seminars up to twice a year scored lower (M=4.17, SD=0.53) compared to their colleagues who attend in-service seminars more than three times a year (M=4.33, SD=0.46).

b) Beliefs about Classroom Management (p=0.025): Both groups disagreed with the items examining their beliefs about Classroom Management, but the experienced teachers who attend seminars up to twice a year scored higher (M=2.90, SD=0.62) compared to their colleagues who attend in-service seminars more than three times a year (M=2.73, SD=0.64).
Table 5.17 Mann-Whitney Test on the effects of the factor Attendance of In-service Training Seminars

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Attendance</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Aptitude</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Difficulties</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Language Learning</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning Strategies</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher's role</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ns= non significant, N= Number, p<0.050)

A small difference is also identified regarding the strongest and weakest beliefs among the two groups compared (Table 5.18). The teachers who attend in-service seminars up to twice a year demonstrate their strongest beliefs in two areas, namely beliefs about the teacher's role and beliefs about teaching (mean= 4.17). Their weakest belief is in the area of Language Learning Difficulties (mean=2.82). The teachers who attend in-service seminars more than three times a year demonstrate their strongest belief in the area of teaching (mean= 4.33) and their weakest in the area of classroom management (mean=2.73).
### Table 5.18 Strongest and weakest beliefs depending on Attendance of In-service Training Seminars

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attendance</th>
<th>Strongest Belief</th>
<th>Weakest Belief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>up to twice a year</td>
<td>Teacher's role and Teaching (mean=4.17)</td>
<td>Language Learning Difficulty (mean= 2.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 + times a year</td>
<td>Teaching (mean=4.33)</td>
<td>Classroom Management (mean= 2.73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.3 Qualitative Results

In this section the analysis of the qualitative data collected from the open questions in section B7 of the questionnaire is presented. Wherever possible, the qualitative data have been quantified and are presented as such. A total of 282 out of 307 teachers, i.e. 91.8% of the participants, replied to the open questions (questions 48, 49, 50, 51) (see 4.5.1). The presentation of the qualitative results follows the order of the questions in the questionnaire.

#### 5.3.1 Expectations experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training (Question 48)\(^\text{16}\)

To identify the teachers' expectations from in-service training the qualitative data from the teachers' answers in the open questions in section B7 of the questionnaire have been analysed. These data have been quantified and are first presented.

In the questionnaire (section B7, question 48) the experienced teachers were asked to outline their expectations from in-service training. They outlined a variety of expectations and the results are illustrated in Figure 5.1\(^\text{17}\).

---

It is interesting that more than half of the teachers (56%) say they want to learn something new. They explain they want to get ideas about methods and techniques, they wish to be kept up to date and they also stress that these new ideas must be practical and not theoretical. So, teachers seem to be eager to constantly learn something new, to develop, and to try to apply the new knowledge in their lessons. Second (22%) comes their need to be presented with something that is applicable in their classroom, as they stress that they would like it if through the seminars they could have the chance to practise the new ideas in real-life situations, so that the workshops will be more realistic. Next, 11% state that in-service seminars should help them deal with their problems effectively, in other words, what teachers seek in seminars is that they provide them with answers or recipes they can

---

17 The percentages in the figure do not add up to 100 because this was a multiple response question.
then immediately apply and thus overcome any difficulties they might face. One of the problems they feel must be addressed in seminars is how to deal with mixed-ability groups. What some of them (10%) also seem to value is that when going to seminars they have the chance to meet other colleagues and exchange ideas with them. The inspiring American educator Robert John Meehan places emphasis on collaboration and collegiality and the positive effects of sharing are reflected in his quote: "The most valuable resource that all teachers have is each other. Without collaboration our growth is limited to our own perspectives."

Only 4% believe that they have absolutely no expectations from in-service seminars. Other expectations they mention are:

- In-service seminars must address the teachers' actual needs and help them become better teachers.

- Some teachers (5%) feel they need help with classroom management techniques.

- There is also criticism on the way seminars are organised. A few teachers (3%) believe that seminars are poorly organised as there does not seem to be any continuity. As one teacher puts it, in-service seminars must be “battery charging and not energy spending”. Also, seminars should be convenient in terms of attendance, i.e. all teachers should have access to training.

- A few teachers (3%) feel they need to be provided with more extensive knowledge about technology.

- 1% suggest that seminars should focus on the psychology of teenagers and suggest the topics of bullying and stress for further development.
Finally, various other suggestions for seminars are made, like: How to embed the British culture and history in the lesson, and how to use self-evaluation techniques with their learners.

5.3.2 The role of teaching experience in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and language teaching (Question 49)

In the final section of the questionnaire (section B7, question 49) the teachers were asked to list any observed changes in their teaching as a result of their teaching experience. Their answers are illustrated in figure 5.2\textsuperscript{18}.

Most teachers have observed changes in classroom management and explain that now they set rules in advance and try to make their expectations clear to the students. Concerning classroom management, it is interesting that 3\% feel they are now less authoritative, whereas 1\% feel they have become more authoritative. Another area where the participants have made changes is lesson organisation. They believe that now they use better activities, are more resourceful, know how to make a realistic lesson plan, use authentic material, employ multiple teaching methods and manage their lesson time more effectively. Also, 18\% feel that due to their teaching experience they can adapt their teaching to their students' needs. 12\% feel that with experience they have become more

\textsuperscript{18} The percentages in the figure do not add up to 100 because this was a multiple response question.
flexible and more inventive as they are able to make on the spot changes. 12% say they are now more mature, as they believe they have evolved as teachers, are more confident, more focused and thus more effective. 11% feel they are now able to handle any rising difficulty and they can even predict situations and thus offer help. Experienced teachers also believe (6%) they are now more patient, and have a better relationship with their students. What is interesting, although not mentioned by a lot of teachers (6%), is that they feel they have become less demanding; they say they now have less expectations from the learners, they give less homework and are more lenient. This was also stressed by Eva, one of the teachers interviewed, who said that she has really simplified everything because she feels that when the lesson is simple it is more accessible to the students and they participate more. Another point that is worth mentioning, but which is stressed by only

---

**Figure 5.2 Changes in Teaching as a result of Experience**
1.8% of the participants, is that they have become more critical towards their work, reflect on their lessons and self-evaluate their teaching.

5.3.3 The role of in-service training in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and language teaching (Question 50)\textsuperscript{19}

In the final section of the questionnaire (section B7, question 50) the teachers were asked in an open question to outline any possible changes they can identify in their teaching as a result of training (see figure 5.3\textsuperscript{20}).

Nearly half of the teachers (46%) state that as a result of in-service training, they have applied new techniques and have tried new teaching methods. More specifically, they list the following new and up-to-date techniques and methods they have adopted after seminars:

- Adopted a more learner-centred orientation
- Adopted group- and pair-work
- Applied a more appealing lesson design
- Applied innovative techniques like drama, project, or cross-curricular activities
- Started using extra material or authentic material
- Started encouraging their students to use a portfolio
- Tried different testing and assessment methods
- Changed the way they teach some skills.


\textsuperscript{20} The percentages in the figure do not add up to 100 because this was a multiple response question.
Figure 5.3 Changes as a Result of In-Service Training

Further changes are also listed, but are not as common as the change mentioned above, however, they are also interesting. The second most common change (13%) is the teachers' feeling that they have become more flexible and more creative because of in-service seminars. 10% of the participants, feel that through in-service seminars they have become more aware and more focused of what they do in the classroom. However, the same percentage (10%) states that in-service training has had no or little effect on their beliefs, mainly because they feel that the ideas presented in such seminars are not applicable in their classrooms and in the words of one of the teachers “they seem like re-discovering America”. The teachers' strong criticism on in-service training was presented earlier in section 5.6 and from their quotes in that section it can be concluded that teachers mostly complain about the difficulty of applying the content of seminars in real
classrooms. One of the teachers further complained that “relevant seminars are limited” (Teacher 30).

Nevertheless, despite the critical spirit further changes due to in-service training were mentioned, though these were not so frequent among the participants:

- Familiarisation with new technologies (e.g. web tools or using the interactive whiteboard)
- Understanding students better and thus being able to encourage different learning styles, or a feeling that they are now more effective with dyslexic students or slow learners and also a feeling that they can cultivate a better relationship with their students
- Adopting more effective classroom management techniques
- Being more tolerant and more patient
- Having a feeling of belonging to a group in which each member shares the same goals and as a result develop a more positive attitude towards teaching.

5.3.4 The teachers' opinions on the importance of the four influential factors in the shaping of beliefs (Question 51)  

In the questionnaire the teachers were asked (section B7, question 51) to rate the order of importance of the four influential factors in the shaping of beliefs (see 2.4): 1) Teaching experience, 2) Studies, 3) Own experience as learners, and 4) Attending seminars. When rating them they were asked to have in mind the effect each of these has had in the shaping of their beliefs about foreign language learning and teaching. In sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3 it was analysed how teachers value the role of teaching experience and the role of in-

---

service training. In this section, however, all four influential factors are compared and discussed. The rating results are illustrated in Figure 5.4.

![Figure 5.4 Rating of the Four Influential Factors](image)

Only 6.30% rates attendance of seminars as number 1 in relation to its effect on beliefs about teaching and learning. Overall, attending seminars is third in order of importance. The factor they consider to be more influential is experience. When commenting on their ranking, their comments about in-service seminars are mainly negative. They explain that in-service seminars have not influenced them significantly and are quite disappointing because they state either the obvious or are too theoretical. Although some of the teachers consider in-service seminars to be extra boosters, they explain that the content is not applicable to their classrooms and most seminars are not consistent with providing assistance either. Another limitation they mention is that such seminars are scarce and have no continuation or link among them. Few teachers comment positively and explain
that in-service seminars have enriched their teaching. The following are some representative comments\textsuperscript{22} the teachers have made about in-service seminars:

“Seminars most of the times are about things you cannot apply, given by people who have stayed away from a classroom for a very long time.” (Teacher 136)

“Seminars may help only if their content is in touch with what we deal with in the classroom. If not, teachers tend to forget about what they learned at the seminar and return to what they are used to doing.” (Teacher 175)

“Everything seems perfect until the moment you're asked to try it on your own.” (Teacher 46)

“I attended excellent seminars when working as a private school teacher. I got inspired and had the opportunity to test out various techniques in my classroom. However, now that I am a state school teacher I have realised that the training seminars we are invited to attend most of the time have no direct link with reality. So, I expect training seminars to be more focused on our real needs and to give us ideas, e.g. on how to engage students effectively.” (Teacher 200)

Nearly all teachers value their teaching experience (figure 5.4) and consider it to be the most influential factor regarding the shaping and development of their beliefs about teaching and learning. They believe that their actual teaching experience has helped them to view teaching more realistically, as through self-criticism they have learned from their mistakes and feel they have improved. The following are some representative comments they make about experience:

“Through an approach of trial-and-error you can actually improve as a teacher.” (Teacher 57)

“First you have to realise what is going on in a real and not an ideal classroom which sometimes takes you 2-3 years.” (Teacher 58)

“In the classroom theory becomes practice and a teachers' beliefs are challenged and shaped.” (Teacher 228)

\textsuperscript{22} The comments that follow are representative of the ideas expressed by the teachers. The majority expressed negative comments about in-service training and highlighted their dissatisfaction.
“Experience has taught me a lot: How to plan, how to communicate with students, colleagues, parents.” (Teacher 200)

“Only through experiencing myself the issues raised in a classroom did I manage to realise problems, ineffective methods etc.” (Teacher 202)

“Through teaching I've learned a lot, because in a classroom you have to deal with different personalities and different learning abilities and/or difficulties, which creates the need to constantly adopt new ideas and try new techniques.” (Teacher 218)

In their comments the teachers are positive about the effect their own experience as learners has had on the shaping of their beliefs. They explain that their experience as learners has affected them to an unconscious level and in fact it has motivated some of them to become teachers. These early experiences have proved to be helpful to some teachers, especially at the beginning of their teaching career, as they tried to imitate the good teachers they had. However, some teachers state that reflecting on their experience as learners now that they have some teaching experience has made them realise that the traditional teacher role should change, but they do not elaborate this point further. The effects of one's own experience as learner in the shaping of beliefs were also discussed with the teachers who were interviewed and they expressed the same views:

“I remember my experiences as learner. I remember what I found difficult, what I didn't like and I'll always have these experiences in mind because my students may experience the same feelings.” (Eva, IW)

“I believe that you try to avoid the mistakes you made because a teacher in the past did not help. I believe you try hard to help, and not to do the same mistakes your teachers did.” (Elisa, IW)

In the questionnaire, the majority of the teachers are quite critical towards their studies. They explain that their studies provided them with the theoretical framework, but these studies were not very helpful when they entered the actual teaching arena. However, the teachers who continued their studies at postgraduate level say that their master studies were more helpful, because they were more specialised and gave them the opportunity to
reflect on their knowledge and beliefs. The same beliefs are underlined by the teachers who were interviewed. Their beliefs can be organised around two categories:

1. The postgraduate studies were more helpful with the actual teaching methodology.
2. The undergraduate studies were more helpful with the actual language. It should, however, be highlighted that undergraduate studies in the past were different in terms of practices followed compared to studies in the present.

These views are reflected in the teachers' actual words:

“At university we had no guidance as to how to teach reading or writing, how to assess. It was my MA studies that helped me. It was after my master studies that I entered the classroom with more confidence. I was more aware of what to do and I reacted more efficiently. … My undergraduate studies helped me with the language but we did not have many courses on methodology and teaching. We were not prepared for the state school.” (Elena, IW)

“Undergraduate studies are mainly theoretical as they acquaint us with the teaching approaches and methods available. One must have a sound theoretical underground. But seminars and training must be more tangible, more interesting, more useful.” (Erin, IW)

“My undergraduate studies improved me as a person, but not as a teacher.” (Eugene, IW)

“I recently completed my MA studies.... I learned many new and interesting things that add a different dimension to the lesson, a dimension that is not included in any seminars.” (Elsa, IW)

In the questionnaires the teachers made some very interesting comments comparing all four factors and outlining their effects in the shaping of their beliefs about teaching and learning:

“My studies gave me the theoretical framework to filter my own experience which primarily shapes practice, and then continuous training supports implementation of new methods and techniques in my real practice. My teaching experience only poses problems to be solved, thus helping flexibility and innovation.” (Teacher 51)

“My studies have helped me modify the beliefs I had as a student, i.e. previous knowledge. My teaching experience has helped me see how theory is put to practice and with what results and
seminars (with the exception of few) seldom manage to reach target because they are scarce and short-termed.” (Teacher 75)

“It is important to remember how we learn in order to adjust teaching accordingly. Seminars provide fresh ideas that add variety, experience helps establish what works and what doesn't. Studies are the theoretical background.” (Teacher 146)

“Beliefs change according to the feedback we get from our students, our own observations of what works better in the classroom, the views of our fellow teachers and the new information provided by seminars.” (Teacher 149)

“I think that subconsciously I use my teachers as a teaching model. My studies were a real inspiration and my teaching experience has helped me iron out inapplicable theoretical techniques. Seminars have only helped me improve what I already know but most of the times I get the feeling that I'm attending an hour long commercial break that actually listening to people who are really interested in helping me become a better teacher.” (Teacher 190)

“My studies have provided me with a clear sense about the links between culture and language as well as a better grasp of the English language structure and history. Seminars have been helpful in terms of the variety of teaching methods I employ in class. Teaching experience and my experience as learner have offered me a clear outlook regarding what works and what not in class.” (Teacher 192)

To sum the above quotes up, the teachers seem to admit that teaching experience can lead to changes in beliefs as it allows for self-reflection, either due to student feedback or self-observation. In-service training seminars can also aid change as they give teachers the opportunity to exchange ideas with colleagues, but they seem to lack in organisation and content, as they tend to be scarce and repetitive. As of their studies, although few teachers found them inspiring, the majority stated that undergraduate studies just shaped the theoretical background and lacked in practical matters.
5.4 Interviews with Teachers

In the interviews more in-depth discussions were carried out with the eleven teachers who were interviewed about the impact of teaching experience and of in-service training on their beliefs, as well as on the experiences and expectations they have from in-service training. The findings are presented in the next sections (5.4.1, 5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.4.4).

5.4.1 The role of teaching experience on teachers' beliefs

The analysis of the qualitative interview data resulted in five areas in which the teachers feel their teaching experience has played a major role: Improvement in the pedagogical approach, improvement as a teacher, improvement through trial and error, evaluating one's work and learning from one's own mistakes, and improvement when combined with in-service training. Each area is now discussed in detail.

1. Improvement in the pedagogical approach: Experience has played a role in how they view the way they approach their teaching. Experience has helped them gain a better understanding about what students need and they have become more skilled in using new techniques that have to do with more effective teacher-student communication but also with better classroom management.

2. Improvement as a teacher: Elena explains that with experience a teacher improves because she gains deeper insights into teaching. Erin adds that now she feels she has improved in the way she manages time. Esther believes that “experience gives the teacher the ability to be flexible as she can adjust herself subconsciously in any situation” (Esther, IW data). Eugene believes that she has improved because she has learned to take into consideration her students' opinions on what works and what does not.

3. Improvement through trial and error: Eva explains that “experience has shaped the way I teach and the way I consider to be best because through trying out techniques you
can see what works and what does not and accordingly you adjust” (Eva, IW). Ellie believes that she has improved because she constantly tries out new methods and new tasks and activities. She tries to add variety in her lessons and does not just teach from the book. She uses the internet a lot, she plays songs or films, has her students work in groups and so the students do not get bored easily. Emily feels that now she is a better teacher compared to 13 years ago, because she has learned from her experience what students find difficult and feels she can now help them learn more effectively. Erin has learned through this process of trial and error that “you can't do the same thing even if you have the same book. You can't repeat a lesson. Each lesson is different and you understand that with experience. We must be open-minded” (Erin, IW). This point is also highlighted by Esther, who is appointed in different schools every year. She explains that now it is clear to her that although the book is the same, she does not plan her lessons until she meets her students and evaluates their needs. The students' level varies from area to area and the students' interests are also different, so she cannot teach using the same lesson plan in two different schools. Elisa, however, believes that this process of being continuously on the search for something new that works better with the students and trying out new techniques to see which works and which does not might result in the teacher losing her patience more easily and getting more disappointed.

4. **Evaluating one's work and learning from one's own mistakes**: Ellie and Eugene explain that at the end of every school year they distribute questionnaires to their students and ask them to say what they liked and what they did not like throughout the year in the English lesson. They take the students' opinions and comments seriously and try to learn from their mistakes, as this process helps them reflect on their teaching.

5. **Improvement when combined with in-service training and/or reflection**: Elsa believes that experience alone is not enough. She believes it must be combined with in-service
training, which is useful only if the teachers apply in their classroom what they are being presented with. Similarly, Emily believes that experience alone is not enough but links any possible change and development with one's character:

“I do not believe that experience is linked with the teachers' pedagogical development. I think it is a matter of character and experience. I mean when someone is stubborn and one-sided in their personal and social life and do not change then how can they develop? It's a matter of personality.” (Emily, IW)

Eugene expresses this idea when she says that what helps her is to reflect on the results of her practices throughout the school year and change or adapt accordingly. Erica believes that the problem is that people do not elaborate their experience enough. She stresses that if someone has twenty years experience, but is just repeating the same practices, then this equals to no experience. However, she explains that in order for a teacher to elaborate her experience effectively she feels support is needed, and this support should come from the school director, the colleagues, and the advisor. Similarly, Erin stresses the fact that although she has eight years of teaching experience in a state school, her experience is limited, as it comes from working in the same school, i.e. she has eight years experience in a small high school on an island. So, she does not know how she would have evolved throughout these eight years if she had been appointed in different schools located in other areas. Evie also stresses that experience should be combined with training:

“Making changes based on experience only is not enough. Experience certainly helps and we improve and try to change some things because we know from experience whether they work or not. On the other hand, this is not enough. I mean there are new methods … which we cannot learn unless we attend in-service seminars.”(Evie, IW)
5.4.2 The reality of in-service training as described by the teachers interviewed

It is now interesting to see how the teachers interviewed describe their experience from in-service training, but also their experience from the initial training they received (ΠΕΚ).

The teachers also comment on the type of communication they have with the advisors. Their views are summarised in Table 5.19 and are then analysed.

Table 5.19 The reality of in-service training (teachers' beliefs from the interviews)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training body</th>
<th>Teachers' beliefs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ΠΕΚ</td>
<td>-lacked organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-content too theoretical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-ineffective trainers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service training</td>
<td>-lack of internal and external motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-content not always applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-trainers are not always active teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-practical issues (time, availability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-topics presented lack variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-seminars are optional and lack continuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of advisor</td>
<td>-lack of communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-meetings are scarce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-not all advisors do a training needs investigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-do not visit schools often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-few interesting seminars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To begin with, all the teachers are critical towards the initial training they received. They describe it as a negative experience because of the organisation, the content covered, and the trainers. Each of the three categories is now discussed in detail:

1. Organisation: All teachers explain that the seminars lacked in organisation. Esther explains that when she attended ΠΕΚ it took place after the school year had started, but it would have been more helpful if those seminars had been organised some time before lessons began. Eugene also feels that the fact that ΠΕΚ were organised during the school year was quite tiring, as she had to be at school in the morning and then in the evenings attend the seminars: “This was very tiring ... and I gained completely nothing” (Eugene, IW).
2. **Content covered:** Elsa feels that ΠΕΚ failed to prepare her for the reality in state schools. Elisa explains that some of the activities presented were not applicable in secondary schools, as they were activities for little children. Finally, Eugene comments that she found the material presented too theoretical.

3. **Trainers:** All teachers express their dissatisfaction with the majority of the trainers. They feel the trainers were either not rightly selected or were not effective in presenting their topic.

Moving on to how they view in-service training, they all start the discussion by pinpointing the problems of in-service training. Overall, the problems they mention can be grouped into six categories: Motives, applicability, trainers, practical issues, topics, optional. Each category is now presented in detail:

1. **Motives:** The teachers feel they lack internal and external motivation when it comes to in-service training. Elena explains that when she worked for the private sector she had to be trained in order to keep up to date. However, she feels that in state schools this intrinsic motive is non existent. Elisa feels also unmotivated, as she says that most in-service seminars have no aim and are usually not to the point.

2. **Applicability:** The teachers express the belief that the ideas presented in in-service seminars are not applicable in their classrooms. Elena thinks this is so because the trainer is not always an active teacher, and just presents some nice theory that may be applicable in some environments, but not in all, so the teacher has to adapt the content. Eva, Eugene and Emily add that the problem is not just that the ideas are not applicable, but that everything is presented as if everyone teaches in the ideal classroom, where students are quiet and eager to learn. Eva and Esther add that although some in-service seminars are quite informative, they fail to help teachers solve the actual problems they face in class. Emily says that as far as theory is concerned, she can do an internet search and find
relative articles and read the theory. Elisa has the feeling that in-service training is caught in a vicious circle and seminars that are useful and to the point are so scarce that many teachers are not interested to attend anymore. Eugene complains that in-service seminars lack in applicability, since they are designed based on the guidelines provided by every government.

3. Trainers: Some teachers express their dissatisfaction with the trainers for two main reasons: They say that trainers have either lost touch with the every-day school reality or the ideas they present are not easily applicable in state schools. Elena says that in theory all presentations sound perfect, but her complaint is that the presenters do not seem to be aware of the state school reality. Esther believes the problem lies in the fact that presenters sometimes lack actual classroom experience and therefore their presentations are not always to the point. Eugene agrees and says that the trainers are not active teachers and therefore their ideas work only in ideal classrooms.

4. Practical Issues: The teachers mention a number of practical issues that sometimes make it hard for them to attend in-service seminars. Elena and Eugene think that in-service seminars are first of all not enough and in addition, they find the fact that they take place during school hours an impediment in attending all of them. Eugene is, therefore, not against attending seminars at weekends but says that some of her colleagues do not feel obliged to attend a seminar on a weekend, as it is outside working hours. Ellie and Evie comment negatively on the fact that some seminars are not available to all teachers, as the participants are selected with a draw, so one has to be lucky.

5. Topics: Eva comments negatively on the fact that a lot of in-service seminars focus on the use of technology in order to plan more interactive lessons. She says that through technology learning can become a passive process and she wonders if this results in addicting the learners in a specific learning model that can turn the learners into lazy
thinkers. Eva feels that during the seminars there is too much focus on learning disabilities and this results in treating all children as having some type of learning disability, rather than forcing them to think effectively and use effective learning skills. Ellie has noticed that there is no variety in the topics around which seminars are organised. She feels that there is a constant repetition of the theories she learned at university. Elsa feels that in-service seminars do not deal with novel topics and are more theoretical rather than having workshops that are more interesting and expresses her disappointment when she says that “we don't learn something that is really dynamic and novel” (Elsa, IW). Finally, Elisa adds that in-service seminars lack in having a more experiential character that can make them more interesting.

6. Optional: Evie believes that although there are some attempts to organise in-service seminars that combine theory with practice, in-service seminars are not organised on a regular basis and do not always have continuity: “The issue of in-service training is a serious one and I don't think it is effectively promoted in the new draft laws.... It makes no sense to have mandatory appraisal and optional in-service training” (Evie, IW).

In the interview the teachers were asked to describe the type of communication and cooperation they have with their advisor. Most teachers, with only few exceptions, were quite critical regarding the type of communication they have with their advisors. Elena, Ellie, Emily, and Elisa say their experience from their advisor is not that positive, mainly due to lack of communication. More specifically, Elena says that she has never met an advisor and therefore feels that advisors are just not interested. Ellie shares her similar negative experience: “I have honestly never met an advisor. … I understand that they are responsible for many schools … but the advisor in my area … this year has not called any meeting”. Elsa is also dissatisfied as according to her, the advisor organised only one meeting at the beginning of the school year and has disappeared ever since. Emily and
Elisa adds that no advisor has ever asked them for their training needs or asked them to suggest topics for seminars. Eva remembers that it has been only once that an advisor visited her at school and had a discussion with her about the difficulties she faces. Erin comments that she has met two advisors; one visited her in her school once and the other organised an informative seminar in her area about the new books.

The teachers are also dissatisfied with the content of the in-service seminars organised by the advisors. They believe that the topics are most of the times poor and meaningless. Elsa remembers the advisor who was responsible for the schools in the area she used to work last year and explains that the advisor used to organise a seminar once every 3-4 months but the level was very low: “She would even read out an article out of a magazine” (Elsa, IW). Erin also complains that she has not attended a seminar organised by the advisor that dealt with an interesting topic. The successful seminars organised by advisors, according to the teachers interviewed, are only scarce. Elsa describes a cycle of seminars she attended recently organised by the advisors in her area:

“A cycle of seminars, continuous education as they called it, and we discussed various topics. It took place every Wednesday for three hours. … We discussed various educational issues, like crisis in the classroom, the teachers’ appraisal … and I can say that it was quite successful. It was interesting …. interactional and this was nice. …. However, I did not manage to attend all sessions.” (Elsa, IW)

Finally, only Esther and Eugene are very happy with the communication and cooperation they have with their advisors. Esther is satisfied with the quality of the seminars organised by her advisor. It is not only the topics, that are of interest to the teachers, that she likes, but it is also the relationship the advisor has with the teachers. According to Esther the advisor is in regular contact with the teachers and tries to improve the content of the seminars by asking the teachers what their needs are. Esther has the chance to see her advisor in a meeting at least every two months and explains that the advisor is both
understanding and helpful. Finally, Eugene seems satisfied with her advisor, as she has been cooperating with her for the last six years and admits that she has been asked many times about her training needs, and the problems and difficulties she might face.

5.4.3 The role of in-service training on experienced teachers' beliefs

In-service training was discussed more extensively with the teachers who were interviewed. One main change mentioned by all teachers, is that because of in-service training they have introduced changes in their teaching. More specifically, these changes have to do with the implementation of new teaching and pedagogical practices. Elena and Elsa explain that in-service seminars help teachers get new ideas that they can implement in the lesson and may increase their learners' motivation. The following are some examples of activities and practices the teachers say they have used after attending in-service seminars:

- “We were presented with some songs which I then used in class. … Quite often some games are also presented, but you can't use these songs and games on a daily basis.” (Eva, IW)
- “A school advisor in the past made a very interesting presentation about the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) method.” (Elsa, IW). But she goes on to stress that there was no follow up to that seminar. She started the CLIL method with her high school students and attended private in-service seminars because she felt she wanted to learn more.
- “I learned to listen to the students... to let them speak... and I have given more value to the discovery learning method. I realised this is the best method.” (Emily, IW)
- “The only seminar I remember was one I attended back in 2000 when I was first appointed in a state school and a school advisor explained how we can use the dictionary..." (Emily, IW)
in our classes. I use the dictionary a lot.” (Emily, IW)

- “I try to make the lesson less theoretical.” (Elisa, IW) And she gives the following example: she has come up with the SVOMPT song in order to teach students word order and syntax: the initials stand for subject, verb, object, manner, place, time.
- “I have implemented groupwork more effectively with my Lykeio students. Neither all school directors nor all colleagues are familiar with this method and even students are not comfortable with it. But I have tried.” (Erica, IW) Eugene also places emphasis on the fact that she has used groupwork as a result of in-service training, but mentions that sometimes her colleagues complain about the noise, but she feels that the main problem is that the students are not familiar with groupwork, as it is not a method widely used in other subjects.
- “Various seminars have helped me on the pedagogical aspect of teaching, as we lacked such courses at university.” (Eugene, IW)

Another point they mention quite often, is that what experienced teachers value a lot in seminars is that they meet with colleagues from other schools and have the chance to discuss with them and exchange ideas. Ellie says she has improved as a result of such discussions as she has found ways to be less nervous and more patient towards her students. Erin comments that sometimes the breaks in a seminar are more constructive compared to the seminar itself, as she finds discussing with colleagues quite interesting.

Ellie and Emily mention a further positive experience they have had: They have both been presenters in training seminars. Ellie has presented some activities she has done in class and says that it was a very helpful experience, as the follow-up discussion with the teachers who attended was very constructive. Similarly, Emily made a presentation about novel teaching methods and explains that she gained a lot from preparing the presentation. She had to read extensively, search and discover things she did not know.
Finally, Erica explains that attending in-service seminars is positive, as it gives her a sense of belonging in a group of professionals: “You get the feeling of doing an important job” (Erica, IW), of being a professional and you leave the seminar feeling you have the chance to try with your students all the new ideas you were presented with.

5.4.4 Expectations experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training

In-service training seminars were discussed extensively in the interviews with the teachers. They had a lot to say and expressed their expectations which are more like suggestions for improving in-service training. Their expectations have been grouped into seven categories: Needs analysis prior to training, trainers who are in touch with the reality of the classroom, the content presented must be applicable, more practice and less theory, more dynamic topics and methods of presentation, more systematic training, and mandatory in-service training that is effectively linked with the teachers' appraisal. Each category is now discussed in more detail:

1. Needs analysis prior to training: Elena feels that in-service seminars lack in organisation, as no needs assessment takes place before a seminar. She suggests that questionnaires can be delivered to teachers where they are asked about their training needs. Erica takes this idea further, and apart from the questionnaire, she suggests that it will be useful if teachers are given the opportunity, through organised seminars at the end of the school year, to reflect on their experiences, to share their problems and to get supportive and evaluative feedback so that they can improve their teaching in the coming school year.

2. Trainers who are in touch with the reality of the classroom: Elena comments on the fact that most trainers have stepped out of the classroom and this results in their seminars being either too theoretical or out of touch with the teachers' reality.
3. **The content presented must be applicable**: To Eva's view the problem is that seminars are too theoretical and what they lack is clear examples of how the ideas presented can be applied in the classroom. The same point is also made by Ellie and Erin who place emphasis on the need of in-service seminars to be realistic and tangible.

4. **More practice, less theory**: Ellie underlines the need for in-service seminars to be more practical rather than theoretical:

   “I can read theory on my own. I can take 200 books and read them. We need practice, we need realistic things we can use in the classroom. Things that attract the students' attention and can be done within the time we have available.” (Ellie, IW)

Elsa also explains that in seminars the trainers do not explain how the theory they present can be applied in the classroom, and Elisa adds that people learn better when they act and it is this experiential character that is missing from in-service seminars. Erica interestingly highlights that theory is necessary, but ideally a theoretical presentation should have a practical follow-up. The teachers should be given the opportunity to study the theory and apply it in their lessons. Ideally, the school advisor should observe the lesson and then take up a supportive role and discuss the observed lesson with the teacher. Alternatively, microteaching sessions should be organised followed up by a discussion among the colleagues and the advisor. Eugene comments on a unique experience she had when attending the Major Training Programme23, which matches Erica's suggestion:

   “What I really liked about the Major Training Programme is that we applied the ideas we were presented with in our classrooms and then went back and discussed the results. We got feedback and exchanged good practices. I really liked this part” (Eugene, IW).

5. **More dynamic topics and methods of presentation**: Elsa comments on the need for seminar topics to be more dynamic, in the sense that they shall be novel and give a new

---

23 Μείζον Πρόγραμμα Επιμόρφωσης (ΜΠΕ) was a large scale training programme that took place in 2012. It was a valuable experience for those teachers who were able to attend it, but unfortunately it was not made available for all teachers all over Greece and it has not been repeated.
dimension in the teachers' way of thinking. Emily talks about the need to improve the methods of presentation. She explains that the trainers just talk but do not listen and do not always leave enough time for questions and discussion.

6. **More systematic training**: Elsa believes that it is important that in-service seminars are held on a more systematic basis. She explains that the problem is not that there are not enough seminars, but that these seminars are not systematic, as they seem to lack in clear aims and objectives, and above all there is no follow-up. Elisa also raises this issue and highlights as a disadvantage the fact that seminars have no follow-up sessions, and give no opportunities for reflection. Erica also believes that in-service training is not systematic, but says that this has also to do with the fact that seminars are held on school days between twelve o'clock and two o'clock. This is a major problem, as the teacher has to be absent from school in order to attend a seminar. She believes that July is the ideal time when in-service training should be held.

“This should be a permanent practice for every summer... for the month of July... Then, we can use all these [the ideas, techniques and methods presented in the seminars] during the new school year and then there should of course come some evaluation that is based on certain criteria... and some feedback should follow up.” (Erica, IW)

Evie, on the other hand, is against the view that in-service training seminars are organised in July or August, due to the fact that the summer in Greece is hot and there are side-costs involved in booking air conditioned rooms. She believes that the month of June is ideal for in-service training, as during this month, especially during the last 10 days, there are no lessons or exams, so the teachers do have time to devote to training.

7. **Mandatory in-service training that is effectively linked with the teachers' appraisal**: Emily brings up the burning issue of the teachers' appraisal which is about to take place in
Greek schools\textsuperscript{24}. She believes, it is ineffective to first conduct the appraisal and to follow it up with in-service training for the teachers who will get a low score. “I cannot evaluate a student whom I have never taught … How can someone appraise a teacher who is 50 or 55 years old and has left university 30 years ago and has throughout her career never been forced to train?” (Emily, IW) She therefore believes, that mandatory in-service training should be first organised for all teachers before their appraisal takes place.

Finally, they suggest some topics for in-service training seminars:

1. \textit{Mixed ability classroom}: Elena explains that as English is taught for only two hours a week she would like to attend a seminar on how to teach effectively in a mixed-ability classroom and how to apply personalised teaching techniques.

2. \textit{Psychological support to teachers}: Elena, Erica and Eugene feel that there are a lot of teachers who feel disappointed or unable to deal with certain students (eg. students with learning difficulties or with psychological problems) and explain that this could be overcome through support groups but also through seminars about teacher motivation or even about the psychology of teens and adults, as Esther adds.

3. \textit{Teaching methodology}: Ellie and Eugene would like to be informed about new trends in teaching methodology and Erin explains that she would like to be given ideas on how to make the best out of the book, how to adjust authentic material to her students' level and needs and how to approach a listening task. Erin concludes by saying that she would like to be informed “about something new … that will puzzle me and show me a new way … something practical because I am familiar with the theory from university” (Erin, IW).

\textsuperscript{24} At the time the data was collected (2011-2012) the teachers' appraisal was just a scenario and the teachers were constantly bombarded with rumours of how their appraisal will be done, eg. should a teacher's appraisal be linked with the salary, should a teacher who gets negative appraisal be fired or be trained and thus given an opportunity to improve etc? At the time this chapter is written (2013-2014), the teachers' appraisal has taken place only in pilot schools and there is the scenario that all the teachers will be appraised in 2014-2015. Because of the uncertainty of how the teachers' appraisal will be done, what effects it will have on the teachers etc, the issue of appraisal is currently a hot issue in Greece.
4. Modern teaching concepts and modern teaching tools: Elsa and Eugene explain that they would like to be informed about new, contemporary teaching methods, but not in terms of theory; they would like to see how they can apply the new methods and the modern teaching tools effectively in their lesson. Elisa feels she needs to be informed about techniques that will give a fresh air to her teaching.

5. How to create interactive e-material: This point is raised only by Emily, who says that she does not need more in-service training that is just information about new technologies. She explains that she is quite familiar with using a computer or an interactive whiteboard. What she would appreciate is more specialised training regarding how teachers can create their own interactive material.

“Now that the books we teach are given to us by the ministry of education and we don't even have the CDs, I would like to be able to create my own materials. I have a lot of ideas but I do not know how to implement them. I would like more specialised training on how to create educational interactive electronic material.” (Emily, IW)

6. Classroom management: Erica says she needs more training on how to manage a classroom and explains that the difficulty is not because she is not good at it, but because she feels she needs support on how to deal with the fact that in every classroom she has to deal with 25 different families who have different problems. Esther and Evie bring up an important issue that has to do with how to manage a class when you have students with special needs, who do not attend a specialised school and how can these students be effectively immersed in the learning environment.

7. Bullying: Evie says that she needs more information about how to deal with bullying situations. However, she explains that recently there are more and more seminars organised on the topic of bullying, but they lack on giving the teachers actual suggestions on how to handle the various types of bullying.
To sum up, the main points the teachers mentioned in the interviews are listed in table 5.20

Table 5.20 Experienced Teachers’ expectations from in-service training and their suggestions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experienced teachers’ expectations from in-service training</th>
<th>Topics suggested for in-service training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• needs analysis</td>
<td>• mixed ability classrooms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• trainers' status</td>
<td>• psychological support to teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• content</td>
<td>• teaching methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• more practice-less theory</td>
<td>• modern teaching concepts and tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• topics and methods</td>
<td>• how to create interactive e-material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• more systematic training</td>
<td>• classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• mandatory in-service training</td>
<td>• bullying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 Interviews with School Advisors

The interviews carried out with the school advisors helped gain deeper insights into the reality of in-service training and helped identify further training needs experienced teachers have. The findings are presented in sections 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.5.3.

5.5.1 The School Advisors' views on the role of teaching experience

At this point it is interesting to see what the five school advisors said, when interviewed, about the role of teaching experience. Their beliefs are not very different from the beliefs expressed by the teachers and are discussed around four categories:

• *Experience can lead to change if the teachers' beliefs are challenged:* Anna explains that teachers should come into conflict with some of their beliefs because their beliefs are deeply rooted in them and challenging, let alone changing them, is impossible, as teachers resist when they are not aware of their beliefs and also when they are not willing to change. She explains that teachers must be willing to change and challenge their beliefs, because this whole process of challenging one's beliefs and changing them is really hard, as it feels
like you are recanting yourself. Agatha and Alex also express the same belief: They believe that experience can lead to knowledge only if teachers are aware of their beliefs and are willing to adapt them.

- **Experience can lead to stagnation if a teacher is indifferent**: Nearly all advisors express this belief and say that this is the negative side of experience. Anna says that some teachers are just not interested in getting involved in the process of realising what their beliefs are and of challenging them. Alice believes that some experienced teachers just do not bother: “They say they know because they have been teaching a certain way for 20 years, so why change?” (Alice, IW). She goes on to explain that especially after ten years of experience, some teachers feel they have no need for internal development, “because training is an internal need” (Alice, IW). And she explains this by saying that teachers can do an internet search and read articles on topics that interest them, or find ideas for activities etc. It is not necessary for the advisor to gather them in a room and give a two-hour theoretical seminar. But she feels that very few experienced teachers do this. Agatha also underlines this negative side of experience when she expresses the belief that experienced teachers have firmly shaped views which are difficult to change. However, Angie says that changing such deeply rooted beliefs is not impossible; it just takes more time for any change to become inherent with the teaching practice.

- **Experience is not defined by how many years experience one has**: Alice explains this belief quite in detail:

  “Experience is not just based on time.... Experience in the classroom is a different thing.... It is a matter of 'experiences', I mean in which school are you? If you have taught in 15 different schools you have much more experience compared to being continuously in the same school.” (Alice, IW)

- **Experience must be linked with in-service training and with reflection**: This is nicely reflected in Agatha's belief, when she says that for teachers to change there are two
conditions that need to be met: Good quality in-service training and a chance for the teacher to reflect on their teaching. She explains that there needs to be a follow-up session after in-service seminars, so that teachers have the chance to reflect on how they applied the techniques and ideas they were presented with, discuss the difficulties they faced, how they dealt with them etc, and she argues that it is this process that can lead to change and can help teachers build up on their experience.

5.5.2 The experienced foreign language teachers' training needs as described by the advisors

At this point is is interesting to see what the advisors say about teachers' training needs, based on the questions they get from the teachers who contact them. In the interviews the school advisors were asked the following question: “When experienced teachers contact you, what problems, difficulties or needs do they express that can be treated through in-service seminars?” The analysis of the advisors' answers resulted in the following categories: Legislation, Exams, Teaching methods, and Pedagogy (Table 5.21).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do experienced teachers ask their advisors about?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questions about legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to link their lesson with the State Certificate of Foreign Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• how to teach grammar and syntax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• how to teach a mixed-ability classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• lack of facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• indifferent students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• learning difficulties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the above categories are now presented in detail:
Legislation: Alex explains that experienced teachers usually contact her when they have difficulties in understanding the educational legislation. She explains that sometimes the law is not clear enough and they need advice on how to act. This point is also raised by Agatha, who says that sometimes when a new law comes out, teachers panic and need advice. She is critical towards the practice of the ministry of education to bring out laws at the last minute. She gives the example of schools which were turned into pilot schools overnight and the teachers had to change to a new curriculum in December and were informed about the new exam format in pilot schools in May. This continuous change in legislation is also brought up by Angie, who explains that the teachers experience a constant confusion due to these changes, as they have to adapt their teaching and their methodological approach. So the advisors need to provide their teachers with clear and up-to-date information regarding the educational legislation.

Exams: Alice comments on the fact that teachers contact her and have questions about how they can adapt their teaching so that students can enter the exams for the State Certificate of Foreign Languages. Alice agrees that the fact that the state school does not provide the learners with some type of certification is a major issue and sometimes it is the reason why students do not fully appreciate English lessons at school.

Teaching Methods: This category is the one most frequently mentioned by all advisors and the data has been grouped into the following sub-categories:

- How to teach grammar or syntax: Anna says that some teachers think

  “and this is just their perception, that they don't know how to teach grammar or syntax. They think they don't. … In fact what they haven't realised is that … they don't have to stick to a book. They must add their own teaching style.” (Anna, IW)

She also adds that teachers tend to ask for teaching recipes, i.e. for fixed ideas they can copy in their lessons. Angie makes the same point saying that teachers contact her looking for practical, applied teaching solutions and are not at all interested in anything
theoretical.

- *Mixed-ability classes – Levels in High Schools:* Anna and Angie say that teachers contact them to ask questions about how to deal with their mixed-ability groups. Anna explains that although the students in high school are divided into groups according to their level (beginner or advanced), the majority of the groups are mixed ability groups. She advises teachers to use differentiated teaching and Angie mentions differentiated teaching as being one of the methods teachers want to be trained in. Agatha also mentions mixed ability classes and levels and says that teachers contact her when they have problems with dividing students into groups according to their level. She explains that there are schools where the teachers are not allowed by the director to divide students in levels, mainly because this has implications for the school schedule.

- *Lack of facilities:* Alice mentions that some teachers need support because they believe they do not have the appropriate facilities to teach, e.g. not enough classrooms, no computers, no projectors etc. “On the other hand”, she critically comments, “the paradox is that in schools which offer all the facilities the teachers don't know how to use them, or don't have the time. … But you make time. … You accommodate your schedule” (Alice, IW).

- *The books:* Alice says that teachers complain to her about the books being poor or inappropriate, but becomes quite critical with how they approach the books. She says that unfortunately they do not teach English or communication, but choose to teach the book, by starting from Unit 1, going on to Unit 2, etc. She suggests the teachers use the book as a guide and focus more on communication, on having the students actually use the English language for communication. Agatha also says that teachers contact her to seek advice on how to make the best out of the books or where to find additional
material. She says that there used to be complaints about lack of audio material, but recently all recordings have been made available online for the teachers to download.

- Technology: Alice suggests this as an area teachers need to be trained in, because she says that from her experience all these years she has noticed that usually the teachers who are over 40 are not very active or familiar with technology.

- Pedagogy: The advisors mention the following three areas with which teachers usually need support:

  - Indifferent students: Anna talks quite extensively about the fact that teachers quite often have to face the indifference of their students, especially in Upper Secondary School. She suggests that teachers should organise their material based on their students' needs and that they involve their students at the beginning of the school year in the syllabus design:

    “The book is helpful for insecure teachers, but experienced teachers need to get away from the book, design their own material. Because the book is written for tube students – as I like to call them. Books can't cover every student's needs.” (Anna, IW)

    In addition, Anna suggests that teachers should be flexible and show enthusiasm with their Lykeio students if they want to attract their attention and increase their motivation.

  - Classroom management: Agatha briefly mentions that teachers ask advice on classroom management and generally on how to deal with behaviour problems.

  - Learning difficulties: Agatha says she has noticed that teachers need advice on how to deal with students who have different learning difficulties. She highlights, however, that she is not an expert on the topic but can organise such in-service seminars by inviting an expert.
5.5.3 The reality of in-service training as described by the advisors

In the interview with the advisors all aspects of training were discussed, ranging from the initial compulsory training teachers receive after they are appointed in state schools, to the reality of in-service training as this is viewed through the experience of each advisor. What the advisors had to say is summarised in table 5.22 and presented in detail in this section.

Table 5.22 The problems of in-service training as described by the advisors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Disadvantages/Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ΠΕΚ</td>
<td>- the only organised compulsory training available for state school teachers</td>
<td>- Second phase: Practical but only for teachers with no experience in state schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-service Training</td>
<td>- Not systematic</td>
<td>- Difficulty in communicating with all teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Optional</td>
<td>- Some experienced teachers show poor interest in training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- experienced teachers face a complex reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- the trainer's/ advisor's identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- lack of an official framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- poor organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- lack of financial resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anna and Angie explain that the initial training organised by ΠΕΚ (see 1.3.3) is the only type of organised, compulsory training state school teachers receive. All other types of training (in-service, or postgraduate studies) are optional and in-service training offered by the state is not systematic. Anna is critical about the second phase of compulsory training. This phase is not theoretical, it is practical, and involves observations in real classrooms. She disagrees with the fact that this phase is only for teachers with no previous teaching experience in state schools. She thinks it should be compulsory for all teachers. However, she realises that there are both practical and financial implications: It would be difficult to fit all teachers (over 30 teachers in each advisor's group) in classrooms so that there is
minor nuisance in the lesson, and of course more money would be needed if more experienced teachers' classrooms were to be used for observation.

Moving away from ПЕК and into in-service training, Anna highlights an impediment in communication, as she has noticed that not all experienced teachers have their own e-mail address:

“I can organise distance in-service training. I can start a forum, a dialog using their e-mails etc like I do with my students at the Open University … so that there is an interaction among us. But this is a problem that blocks communication and training”

(Anna, IW).

Alice feels a bit disappointed and says that some experienced teachers feel competent just because they are experienced and show poor interest in anything new that comes up, like technology, new books, or new methods. She also comments on the fact that very few experienced teachers attend training seminars organised by bodies other than the state, like TESOL Greece25, publishers or local associations. On the other hand, she says she has observed that inexperienced teachers are more eager to attend any type of training.

Angie believes that before criticising experienced teachers for their unwillingness to train one should attempt to understand the educational reality they face:

“Teachers vary in the type, depth and breadth of training when they enter their work environment. On the one hand they must work in environments that … are not always their first choice … and on the other hand they must apply any current educational policies, they must embed any new reforms into their teaching”

(Angie, IW).

She goes on to explain that they adopt all these reforms usually after attending in-service training, which for experienced teachers usually focuses on updating their knowledge about teaching or even transforming their teaching behaviour.

25 TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) Greece is an independent, volunteer, non-profit professional association for teachers of English as a foreign language and other ELT professionals working in Greece. (http://tesolgreece.org/)
Finally, Agatha stresses that what is important, is who the trainer is. To her view, a lot relies on the good will of the advisor to organise seminars, however, she stresses that the advisor is not an expert on every topic. Similarly, Angie believes that a lot can be achieved, but it all depends on the advisor's educational action and attitude.

To sum up, according to the advisors' interviewed, the following are the main points that set the frame of in-service training:

1. Apart from ΠΕΚ, which is organised and mandatory, the rest of the in-service training offered is neither systematic nor compulsory.

2. Organising distance training is difficult as not all teachers have a personal e-mail address.

3. Some experienced teachers are not interested in in-service training.

4. Experienced teachers have different work and training experiences and must operate within various teaching environments and apply all current educational policies.

5. The good will of the advisor plays an important role in in-service training.

This last point, about the advisor's good will, raised the issue of what is the exact role of the advisor. What is missing, in Agatha and Anna's point of view, is an official framework according to which an advisor can act. “Unfortunately, the advisors' role is not recognised to such a degree so that they have the absolute responsibility for the experienced state school teachers' training. … There is no set framework within which the advisor can act” (Anna, IW). Angie agrees and explains that what is available is only a brief task description which is part of the general task description for all education officials. “It links the advisors' duties with various bodies, teachers, directors, mentors, educational district directors, parents etc. It creates general educational orientations and does not provide
more detail, like what form should training take?” (Angie, IW). She concludes by saying that the advisors' task focuses “on the teachers' pedagogical and scientific support” and the ministry of education does not provide any details on specific ways of in-service training.

In sum, the advisor's main task is to organise seminars and day conferences, deliver sample lessons, run projects and take innovative initiatives. Alex explains that advisors do not know everything, so they are allowed to organise a seminar and have an invited speaker who is an expert on the topic the seminar is about. She also adds that their job is to read widely, so to stay up to date with any reforms and laws introduced by the Ministry of Education, but also to keep in touch with the developments in teaching to be able to communicate this type of information to the teachers. Angie's words sum up what their job includes:

“Advisors try through training courses to meet the teachers' potential needs by providing the teachers with pedagogical and scientific support either individually ….or in groups through interscholastic meetings” (Angie, IW).

Moving on, the advisors criticise negatively the current guidelines for the one day in-service seminars, as what these guidelines dictate is that each advisor must organise two meetings yearly from 12:00 to 14:00 o'clock at the local Directory of Secondary Education. These meetings usually take place one at the beginning of the school year and the other towards the end. All advisors say that two meetings are not enough, but above all, teachers can attend only if the headmaster allows them to, since these meetings are conducted during school hours. Agatha and Anna explain that organising such meetings during weekends, for example, has also implications. First of all, there is an extra cost included in booking an air-conditioned room, but there are also practical implications, since not all teachers work near their place of residence, so they may be away at weekends. Secondly, organising meetings at weekends is not always the best solution: “In the existing atmosphere of the crisis, where people experience pressure and oppression, it
would be inhuman to ask them to attend a meeting in the evenings or on Saturdays” (Anna, IW).

Apart from the missing framework and the organising implications, the advisors list further problems of in-service training. To begin with, Agatha says that she is lucky because she is responsible for only one prefecture. However, there are advisors who are responsible for two or three prefectures and visiting all the schools is quite impossible. Angie explains that at the end of every school year the advisors submit a report to the ministry of education and there they mention any difficulties they have faced. A problem often mentioned is lack of financial resources which has a negative impact on the way seminars are organised, especially in relation to facilities, the availability of computers etc. According to Angie, a further problem has to do with the holistic organisation of in-service seminars. She highlights that in-service training is not systematic, but rather inconsistent and fragmentary and also lacks continuity:

“Formal in-service training … is neither systematic nor permanent. It is based on a variety of topics, on subsidised programmes … usually linked with European programmes. In-service training programmes are not repeated and not assessed for their effectiveness” (Angie, IW)

A further problem detected by advisors is the fact that in-service training fails to cover all the needs of the teachers, as it is not always linked with the actual school reality and what is more, the teachers' training needs are not systematically detected. Angie gives a possible practical reason for why in-service training does not meet the teachers' needs, namely the advisors lack expertise in fields that interest teachers, like the psychopathology of teenagers, teaching students with special educational needs, or managing classrooms with cultural heterogeneity. She also tries to explain why some seminars do not reflect the reality teachers face in their classrooms; to her view the reason is that “many in-service seminars fail to achieve the much desired reinforcement of reflective teaching, because the
limited time available for training is consumed in theoretical descriptive discussions” (Angie, IW). So this goes back to the time problem mentioned earlier; conducting the seminars within the time-limit 12:00 – 14:00 results in poorly organised presentations that do not allow the teachers to engage in fruitful discussions or reflect on their teaching.

Another problem Angie mentions is the fact that the teachers' needs are not systematically detected. She explains that this results in a huge gap between what the advisor aims to achieve through in-service training and what the teachers actually expect. She explains that the teachers who come to attend a seminar differ in their knowledge, their skills, their interests, their aims, their beliefs and their teaching. However, all these differences are not officially recorded or considered when an in-service seminar is planned. Alex briefly mentions that she tries to make a needs analysis at the beginning of the school year, but this is for her own personal use; it is not official. Anna underlines this problem as well and explains that unfortunately there is not a standard official questionnaire available that advisors can use (either as it is, or adapt it). She explains that it depends on the advisor whether s/he makes a needs analysis, as there are no fixed and detailed guidelines on the advisor's job, as mentioned earlier.

Two further problems are mentioned by the advisors. Agatha finds that in-service seminars are not highly attended: “Some say I can't come. OK, they may be tired, they may have family commitments, they may be commuting to school” (Agatha, IW). Finally, Alice believes that the problem is that in-service training is not immediately linked with the teachers' appraisal. She believes that since the teachers are not officially appraised they are all as a result considered adequately qualified and all receive the same salary. She goes on to say that there is no such thing as an official teachers' portfolio to keep a record of a teachers' work. In sum, she believes that in-service training should be immediately
linked with the teachers' appraisal and organised around the areas in which teachers have difficulties, so to help them improve, and this should also be reflected in their salaries (as a positive or negative bonus).

The teachers' appraisal is currently an important issue in Greek schools, as its conduct is under construction and it might take place in the future, so the notion of appraisal was also discussed with the advisors. Their beliefs can be arranged around two categories:

a) There is no evaluation culture in Greece.

“Appraisal must take place, because in Greece we are all in the same boat, those who work effectively and those who don't.... On the other hand they [teachers] are afraid of it because there is no evaluation culture.... People see how things work in the selection of officials or directors. I can't say that the selection is meritocratic....” (Agatha, IW)

b) The teachers' appraisal cannot be conducted unless teachers are trained first.

“First you offer in-service training and then you appraise. No, you will not punish. You will try to correct what went wrong. And it goes without saying that you will not dismiss a teacher. The teachers' appraisal can be linked with something external, like the salary, but again it must be conducted carefully.” (Agatha, IW)

5.6 Summary

The results of the study have provided support for the claim that teachers have formed a set of beliefs about teaching and learning as a result of their own experiences as learners and of their studies. Nevertheless, this set of beliefs is enhanced as a result of their teaching experiences and the attendance of in-service training seminars. Experienced teachers really value their teaching experience and rate it quite high, however, they express their need to develop and learn something new through qualitative in-service training. Experienced teachers express strong critique towards in-service training and trainers. They are not negative towards change but they request for support and guidance. The advisors agree with the beliefs expressed by the teachers and pinpoint the teachers'
eagerness to improve regardless of the sometimes harsh realities they face. In-service training in Greece is an area in need of improvement and mainly relies on the advisors' and teachers' will for learning. It is unfortunately not ongoing or consistent, but there are seminars that have inspired teachers to try out new techniques, to learn, to reflect and to change. The quantitative and qualitative findings are combined in the next chapter, chapter 6, in order to provide clear answers to the three research questions of the study (see 1.2).
Chapter 6
Discussion

6.1 Overview

The purpose of the present chapter is to interpret the findings and to explain any implications they may have on improving in-service teacher training in Greece. The main function is to answer the research questions posed in 4.3 and explain how the results support the answers and how the answers fit in with the existing knowledge from research on teacher beliefs. The chapter is therefore organised around the three research questions which are answered by combining the quantitative and qualitative data in an attempt to see how the data generated by the present study are situated in the field of belief studies.

6.2 Research Question 1: “What beliefs do experienced foreign language teachers have about language, language learning, and language teaching?”

The first research question sought to identify the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers hold about language, language learning, and language teaching. The findings are now discussed following the categories of the questionnaire. The analysis of the quantitative data led to the following conclusions:

1. Foreign Language Aptitude

There was agreement that everyone can learn a foreign language, but also that some people are born with the ability to learn foreign languages. Although these two beliefs may at first seem controversial, they are in fact not so, if we think of them as referring to the degree of proficiency rather than to the actual learning ability. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) define foreign language aptitude as a relatively stable talent for learning a foreign language that differs between individuals. Wen (2012) supports this finding and explains that some people learn a foreign language with greater ease, more quickly, or with
apparently better results than others. Sparks and Ganschow (2001) in an attempt to explain this innate ability reconsider foreign language aptitude in terms of the 'linguistic differences hypothesis', which stresses the importance of analysing L1 skills for predicting foreign language aptitude. Wen and Skehan (2011) highlight a different perspective of foreign language aptitude and suggest the construct of 'Working Memory', i.e. the cognitive capacity to simultaneously store and process information in real time (Harrington and Sawyer, 1992). Wen and Skehan (2011) support that 'Working Memory' should be a main component of foreign language aptitude by considering, however, the following three prerequisites:

1. There are individual differences in Working Memory among L2 learners
2. These individual differences in Working Memory can be reliably and validly measured
3. Working Memory plays a significant role in second language acquisition processes.

Wen and Skehan (2011) conclude that Working Memory is of importance in the chunking process and thus influences vocabulary acquisition and grammar learning. The findings support all the above, as the experienced teachers seem to be aware that all their students can learn a foreign language but they are also aware that each learner follows a different learning path based on his/her ability to process and store information. Such differences may also have to do with the learners' different learning styles. In-service training should therefore train teachers how to cater for the different learning needs of all their students within a teaching hour.

2. Difficulty of Language Learning

There was overall agreement that English is an easy foreign language to teach and to learn, a belief also held by the teachers in Diab's (2009) study (see 3.2.2). The teachers in the present study may hold this belief because students in Greece are exposed to English from
a very young age, i.e. the age of 6 (see 1.3.1). Moreover, Greek and English are both 'alphabetic languages' which makes them easier to learn. English follows the Subject-Verb-Object order and Greek, although it exhibits a rather freer word order, follows the same word order to a large extent. As for the teaching part, teachers have access to a lot of material, either online or from publishing houses, which enriches and aids their preparation.

A further belief supported by the majority of the teachers in this study, but also in Diab's (2009) study, was that if someone already speaks a foreign language, then they can learn other foreign languages with more ease, as they have developed the ability to learn foreign languages. This is also the case with students who start learning English when they are already bilingual to a certain degree of proficiency. There is support for this finding in the research study conducted by Psaltou-Joycey and Kantaridou (2009) who investigated the plurilingual competence of Greek university students, in order to find out (a) degrees of plurilingualism, i.e. between bilingual and trilingual students and, (b) the level of proficiency among trilingual students. The results indicated that trilingual students used more strategies than bilinguals, especially strategies that promote metalinguistic awareness. In addition, advanced trilingual students made frequent use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and they were significantly less concrete-sequential compared to bilinguals, irrespective of proficiency level in the target language. Bialystok (2001) also supports that bilinguals show metalinguistic abilities when learning a new language, which facilitates further language learning. This ability was defined by McLaughlin and Nayak (1989) as the 'positive transfer hypothesis', meaning that multilinguals can transfer successful strategy use from previous language learning to the new language learning environment. Talking about the Greek reality, Πρόσκολλη (2006)
explained that multilingualism is among the main aims of Greek education, mainly due to the needs of the market, where knowing foreign languages at a high level is an asset.

3. Nature of Language Learning

Although there is overall agreement that learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects, the teachers were not certain whether knowing the culture is necessary when learning a foreign language. This uncertainty was also evident in Diab's (2009) study (see 3.2.2). This belief may be interpreted that teachers are inclined towards teaching English as an international language. This means that the teachers may not necessarily link the English language with the country where it is spoken, but have started to accept the fact that English is an international language spoken all over the world with a variety of pronunciations. This conclusion is in contrast with Sifakis and Sougari’s (2005) study (see 3.2.4) with Greek EFL teachers which revealed that the teachers had little awareness of the international spread of English, identified English with its native speakers, and believed that learners should acquire native-like pronunciation and accent. Kazamia and Joycey (2016) support the finding of the present study, as they found that English Language teachers in Greek state schools seem to adopt strategies that are positive towards teaching English as an international language (e.g. they are more tolerant with students' mistakes, use synonyms, gestures or mime to identify meaning, allow students to take risks), however, they do not seem to be aware of why they are adopting such strategies. On the other hand, they are clear about the reasons they adopt strategies that are negative towards teaching English as an international language (e.g. teaching the culture, imitating native speaker pronunciation, identifying similarities between Greek and English). Thus, Kazamia and Joycey (2016) conclude that they agree with Sifakis and

26 The teachers' belief about the necessity to achieve native-like accent is discussed later in the section on beliefs about language learning strategies.
Sougari’s (2005) suggestion for training and seminars to be delivered to teachers to increase awareness of English as a Lingua Franca.

The majority of the teachers express the belief that learning a foreign language is not just learning grammar, vocabulary or translating from one's mother tongue, it is rather a more complex process. Relating this belief to the previously discussed beliefs, it can be supported that the teachers are not tied to traditional forms of teaching. This finding is consistent with Kern\(^{27}\) (1995), Peacock (2001), and Diab (2009) who got similar results from experienced foreign language teachers (see 3.2.2). An interesting point is made in Loch's (n.d.) study (see 3.2.1), where the teachers stated that when they were novice they believed that knowing a language meant grammatical correctness. But with experience this belief changed and they believe that being able to communicate the message is more important than being accurate. On the other hand, in Richards' \(et al\) (2001) study (see 3.2.1) the role of grammar and grammar teaching was an issue of special interest among the participants, who experienced disappointment from using the communicative approach, since some of their students had relatively poor accuracy in speaking and writing. However, comparing this belief with the belief expressed by the teachers in the present study is challenging, since both the context and the culture of the participants in the two studies differ.

Finally, there is agreement that the receptive skills of reading and listening are easier than the productive skill of speaking, a belief also supported by the teachers in Kern's (1995) study. As for writing, it is considered easier when compared to speaking. This may be so, because writing is done in isolation, there is time to think, reformulate or correct, and it may involve less stress, since students usually write for the teacher. On the other hand,

\(^{27}\) Kern (1995) used the BALLI to compare students’ and teachers’ beliefs about language learning and examined how teachers’ beliefs influence students’ beliefs.
when they have to speak, they do so in front of the class, so the recipients of their language production are many more. Goldova and Hubackova (2014) explain that writing, although an active skill, may be easier in the foreign language classroom because it involves pre-writing tasks, brainstorming activities, generating word banks, drafting and many other activities that provide support to the students and increase their confidence to write.

4. Language Learning Strategies

The teachers seem to agree that living in the country where the foreign language is spoken makes learning the language easier. This agrees with Littlewood (1991) who explains that this is so because in the country the language has a social function within the community where it is learned and used.

Revision and practice are considered of major importance by nearly all teachers when learning a foreign language, a belief also expressed in Richards et al. (2001) study (see 3.2.1). A good way of practising and revising is through the language learner's portfolio (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/elp/), whose philosophy agrees with the majority of the beliefs expressed by the teachers in this study, who seem to take an approach towards more communicative and learner-friendly teaching methods. Καγκά (2006) states that the Language Portfolio gives the learners the opportunity to detect and manage their linguistic and communication needs, by actively involving them in the learning process, leading them to qualitative language learning and helping them take full advantage of their multilingual and multicultural experiences. The Language Portfolio helps improve the relationship between the learner and the teacher and through self-evaluation activities it gives learners the opportunity to detect their weaknesses at regular intervals, to organise their learning strategies and to plan their learning. Καγκά (2006) concludes that this
method of planning and revising gives a boost even to weak learners who gain self-confidence through the self-awareness tasks of the portfolio.

A further belief that is again in total agreement with the philosophy of beliefs expressed so far is that the teachers do not think that it is important for the learners to achieve a native-like pronunciation. Tarone (2005) describes the goal of achieving native-like accent as problematic and says that it has been questioned both by researchers and educators. Thinking of English as an international language, as mentioned earlier, when teaching pronunciation it may be more realistic to aim for mutual intelligibility rather than a native speaker model (Jenkins, 2000). This finding corroborates the findings in Kern's (1995) and Loch's (n.d.) studies. Kern (1995) found that teachers had the tendency to disagree with the belief that achieving an excellent accent is important in speaking a foreign language. Loch (n.d.) concluded that nowadays learners hear both native and non-native speakers of English and they are aware that pronunciation and accent are not the most important features, especially since English is spoken by nearly everyone all around the world.

The final belief expressed by the majority of teachers is that the students should be given opportunities to guess meaning from context, a belief that again indicates that teachers are in favour of a more communicative approach to teaching and learning. So far, the teachers in this study, in agreement with Diab's (2009) findings, have emphasised the importance of communicative fluency as opposed to a focus on accuracy.

5. The Teacher's Role

When asked about their roles the majority of the participants viewed themselves as facilitators of knowledge who encourage learner autonomy. This finding contrasts with the finding from Karavas-Doukas (1998) in whose study the teachers viewed themselves
as the language experts who had the knowledge and skills to transmit information about the language to the students. Karavas-Doukas (1998) underlines that the roles of facilitator, guide, or monitor were never mentioned by the teachers in her study. One reason for this contrast in findings may be that there have been a lot of training seminars in Greece since 1998 on more communicative methods of language teaching. A lot of teachers continue their studies at postgraduate level, so they are more informed and have experimented with various teaching techniques. Therefore, in view of changes in teacher training and in educational policies, such changes in teachers' perceptions of their role as educators - as expressed in the present study- are welcomed. The beliefs about the teacher's role expressed by the teachers in Richards et al. (2001) agree with the beliefs of the teachers in the present study. More specifically, the teachers in Richards et al. (2001) stressed that their role involves i) creating a supportive relationship with the students, ii) acting as a facilitator, guide and trainer, iii) being flexible, motivated and willing to experiment, iv) being motivated to train and keep up to date with educational advancements, and v) adapting lesson plans to students' needs. Similar beliefs were also expressed by teachers in Diaz et al. (2015), who viewed themselves as role models, facilitators, mediators, and prompters. They also stressed that their role as educators is more important than their role as language teachers.

6. Beliefs about Teaching

The teachers believe that good teaching is achieved through planning, organisation and variety, e.g. by adding authentic material and encouraging self-/peer-correction. Again their beliefs are in harmony with the beliefs expressed so far, namely the teachers appear to opt for more communicative and learner-friendly methods. These findings agree with the findings of the case study carried out by Evrim et al. (2009) who found support for the belief that the teacher should not stand as an authoritative figure; the teacher should be
humanistic, a guide and a facilitator rather than a ruler and a director. Similar beliefs were expressed by the teachers in Diaz et al's (2015) study, who supported using a variety of materials and activities in order to build a comfortable classroom atmosphere and foster learning. They were also positive towards adopting a communicative approach in their classrooms, but felt intimidated by the high number of students and the material shortage. However, this is an area that calls for further research, especially longitudinal observational research to see if these beliefs are actually reflected in the teachers' actions. Karavas-Doukas (1998) found in her study that the teachers' attitudes towards communicative teaching were unfavourable and they thought that what it involved was teaching the oral skill, excluding grammar and ignoring students' errors. Nevertheless, as has already been mentioned above, state school teachers are nowadays more informed and therefore further research will shed light to the new reality.

7. Beliefs about Classroom Management

Classroom management is a somewhat neglected area in teacher education maybe because the term has mainly negative connotations, like maintaining order and discipline (Evertson and Weinstein, 2013). Various classroom management techniques can be found in the literature ranging from suspension, punishment to rewards and displaying kindness, sincerity, patience and fairness (Brophy, 2013).

In the present study the findings indicate that the tendency seems to be away from traditionally strict methods of classroom management, like punishment or shouting. The teachers prefer to manage their class by avoiding being authoritative and by using gestures or eye-contact. If linking this belief with all the aforementioned beliefs, it feels logical that the teachers opt for more student-friendly methods. A similar belief is held by the teachers in Richards et al. (2001) study, who say that the first step to classroom
management is to create a funny, motivating, and secure learning environment. Evrim et al (2009) also reach the same conclusion and state that teachers support the belief that what is important is the creation of a comfortable and cooperative learning environment, in which the students do not feel threatened.

In sum, the general beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching held by the experienced teachers who participated in the present study can be argued to reflect high levels of awareness regarding what constitutes effective teaching and learning, the teacher's role, and classroom management. Their beliefs relate to the whole concept of communicative teaching and emphasis is placed on using supportive and learner-friendly methods to help students achieve good communication skills and depth of knowledge in the foreign language.

6.3 Research Question 2: “What is the role of teaching experience in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and teaching?”

The second research question sought to identify the role of teaching experience in shaping experienced foreign language teachers' beliefs about language learning and language teaching. The research question is now answered by combining the findings from the quantitative and qualitative data.

The results from the quantitative data (see 5.2.2) indicated that the teachers really value their teaching experience, but also feel that experience alone is not enough. They also really value any opportunities they get to exchange ideas and experiences with colleagues. Also, when asked to rate the order of importance of the four influential belief factors (teaching experience, studies, own experience as learners, seminars) (see 5.6), teaching
Experience was rated higher as the teachers consider it to be the most important factor in shaping their beliefs (see Figure 5.4). They commented positively on the role of experience when asked to justify their ranking, and supported that because of their teaching experience they engage in reflection and self-criticism and proceed to making changes in their actions. In Loch's (n.d.) study, the experienced teachers also rated their teaching experience higher than in-service training and their own experience as learners, and the researcher comments that the latter has the tendency to fade in time. The value of teaching experience has been targeted by research, especially in relation to student achievement. Findings indicate that experience matters and it can sometimes be an indicator for quality; therefore, it is advisable to take advantage of experienced teachers' knowledge through mentorship between experienced and novice teachers or by giving experienced teachers the opportunity to share their practices (Carpenter, 2011).

Experience was also found to matter in a study carried out by Ηλιοπούλου & Σουγάρη (2014) who looked into the lesson plans teachers submitted as part of a long-distance training course for teachers of Greek as a second/foreign language. It was found that the more teaching experience a teacher has the better she can deal with practical issues of lesson planning and time management. On the other hand, the less experienced teachers did better at providing theoretical justification for their lesson plans.

Research findings also indicate that the impact of experience is deeper during the first few years of teaching, after which the teachers' performance tends to level off (King Rice, 2010). Interestingly, Ladd (2008) found that teachers with more than 20 years of experience were more effective when compared to their novice colleagues, but were not more effective than teachers with five years of experience. Indeed, teaching experience and its effects should be further researched (see 7.4).
In the present study, the qualitative findings shed more light onto how experienced teachers view the role of teaching experience. In the questionnaire the teachers agreed that they have made changes in their teaching due to experience (see 5.3.2). The top three areas they have observed changes are:

- **Classroom Management**: They feel they are better at managing their classes now compared to when they were novices. They have learned through experience that classroom management becomes easier if they make their expectations clear to the students at the very beginning. Also, now they feel more confident and therefore have become less authoritative.

- **Lesson Organisation**: They feel that now they can come up with better lesson plans, are more resourceful, design and use better activities and have improved with time management.

- **Students' Needs**: They can now adapt their activities and their teaching to their students' needs.

There is also support in the qualitative interview data for the importance of teaching experience in inducing changes. The teachers stated that they have changed and improved because of their experience in five areas:

i) They have made changes in their pedagogical approach, as they feel more skilled in adopting new techniques.

ii) They feel they have improved as teachers in general, as they are better at time management and can adapt to their students' needs.

iii) They have improved as all these years they have experimented with a variety of techniques and methods and have learned to adjust because of this trial and error experience.
iv) They feel they have gained in self-awareness and are able to evaluate their work through reflection.

v) They admit that experience is indeed an important factor, but if combined with effective in-service training, then the benefits are of paramount importance.

The experienced teachers in Richards et al. (2001) and Kunzman (2003) (see 3.2.1), in line with the experienced teachers in the present study, stated that they have made similar changes as a result of their teaching experience. In the present study the changes involved caring for students' needs, applying more communicative teaching methods, feeling more confident and describing their role as facilitators and counselors. The teachers described their teaching experience around three areas: Trial and error, contact with colleagues, and focus on self-discovery. Thus, the findings offer support for the fact that teaching experience seems to play a pivotal role on teachers' beliefs (Woods, 1996, Richards, 1998, Borg, 2006c) and it affects change through giving teachers the opportunity to test out their beliefs (Fullan, 2001). However, as in other studies (Johnston, 1994, Ur, 1997, Tom, 1999, Kunzman, 2003), the teachers agree that experience alone is not enough. Therefore, in-service training must take the teachers' experiences into consideration, work on them and design seminars around these experiences (Karavas-Doukas, 1998, see 2.7).

The findings so far indicate that case knowledge and strategic knowledge (see 2.3) have an active role in shaping teachers' beliefs. Also, there is evidence on the role of reflection as a catalyst for change or for increasing awareness (Pennington, 1996, Ur, 1997, William and Burden, 1997) (see 2.6). Batten (1991) (see 2.6) explained that reflection brings about positive change, therefore teachers should be encouraged and helped to reflect on their teaching to gain clear insight into the nature of teaching. The question to be asked is "helped by whom"? Fullan (2001) agrees that experienced teachers need support due to
the special reality of their daily lives, but can advisors, for example, organise seminars and meetings that often? A lot of advisors are pedagogically responsible for schools in more than one prefecture and there are a lot of practical implications involved in scheduling meetings with the teachers. An effective solution would be the operation of the mentor system, as this has been described by Καραβά (2006) (see 2.7) and as it was suggested by one of the advisors interviewed for the purposes of the present study. Anna provided an enthusiastic description of the mentor system. The mentors will be teachers who will be specially trained by the advisors and will be selected on the basis of some pre-determined criteria. These teachers will teach fewer hours, will be appointed in central, fully-equipped schools all over Greece, and will be responsible to mentor the teachers working in neighbouring schools. The teachers will observe the mentors when teaching and then they will have to implement the practices they were presented with in their class. As a follow-up, they will meet with the mentor to reflect on the results of their teaching. This type of in-service training will be successful, according to Anna, because it will be personalised. Each teacher will have the chance to reflect on their own teaching and work on developing their weaknesses.

So far it has been found that the teachers rate their teaching experience quite high. However, when trying to identify differences between teachers with experience from 5-8 years and teachers with a teaching experience of more than eight years, it was interesting to observe that actually more teaching experience does not seem to have a great impact on teachers' beliefs, apart from their beliefs on the nature of language learning (see 5.2.4). However, when observing the weakest and strongest beliefs of each group (see Table 5.12), the findings support the fact that with experience teachers improve their classroom management techniques, a belief the experienced teachers expressed both in the questionnaire and in the interviews.
The findings from the interviews with the advisors present teaching experience from a different angle (see 5.5.1). Although there is agreement with the teachers' findings, the advisors explain that experience should not be viewed as something countable; what counts is not how many years experience someone has but what type of experience, i.e. experience in different educational settings and contexts that would allow teachers to become more flexible. Next, they also support that experience can lead to change, but under three conditions:

i) The teachers' beliefs must be challenged. The teachers must first be given opportunities to become fully aware of their beliefs and then they will be able to evaluate them and adapt or change beliefs that conflict with the teaching reality each teacher faces.

ii) Experience must be linked with high quality in-service training and with opportunities for reflection, like follow-up sessions from in-service seminars.

iii) The teachers must be motivated to attend in-service seminars and to reflect on their beliefs, because if they are indifferent, then experience may lead to stagnation.

To conclude, as already mentioned earlier, research has shown that experienced teachers are ideal mentors for novice teachers who seek for advice, encouragement and guidance (Strauss, 2010). However, it is interesting that although experience was rated high by the teachers in the present study, it did not seem to have great impact when less experienced teachers' beliefs were compared with those of more experienced teachers. This might be so because the returns of experience are strongest in the first years of teaching; then the rate of improvement starts to level-off quickly, usually stagnating within the first 4-5 years of teaching (Strauss, 2010). Therefore, in-service training for experienced teachers can only become interesting if these factors are considered, if their experience is challenged, and if experienced teachers are asked to have a more active and participatory role in in-service seminars. Giving experienced teachers the opportunity to share their
acquired wisdom can help other teachers find answers to their questions regarding their day to day classroom realities. The example found in Karagianni (2012) with the exchange of teachers' electronic diaries about their concerns of their everyday teaching practices, could also be utilised in in-service training.

6.4 Research Question 3a: “What is the role of in-service training in shaping the beliefs experienced foreign language teachers have about language learning and teaching?”

The third research question sought to identify the role of in-service training in shaping experienced foreign language teachers beliefs about language learning and language teaching. The research question is now answered by combining the findings from the quantitative and qualitative data.

The results from the quantitative findings (see 5.2.3) showed that experienced teachers view in-service training as helpful and valuable, but they feel that some seminars must be more practical and present more applicable ideas. This means that they value seminars when workshops are included and they do not appreciate seminars that are too theoretical. The majority stated that they have made changes in their teaching as a result of in-service training, but the number of teachers who admitted making changes as a result of experience was higher. When asked to rate the order of importance among teaching experience, seminars, own learner experience and studies, in-service training (see Figure 5.4), in agreement with Loch's (n.d.) findings, was third in order of importance. The majority of the teachers, in the current study, explained that in-service seminars are usually disappointing as they are either too theoretical or fail to have an immediate link with their actual needs. There were some positive comments, though these were scarce. There were few teachers who commented that in-service seminars are extra boosters to
their teaching and sometimes help them enrich their teaching. Χατζηγιάννη (2008) explained that there seem to be two trends among teachers: There are those who feel in-service training has affected them positively and there are those who are critical towards in-service training, and this second group is the majority. The qualitative findings from the questionnaire and the interviews will help clarify the role of in-service training (see 5.3.3). In the open questions of the questionnaire the teachers listed changes they made in their teaching following in-service training (see 5.3.1). The top three changes have to do with:

1. The application of new teaching techniques. More specifically, they stated that in-service seminars have helped them adopt more learner-friendly methods, like group/pairwork, apply more appealing lesson designs, by using authentic material for example, have even helped them try various testing techniques, and some teachers have started using the learner portfolio.

2. Becoming more flexible and creative by being given new ideas to implement.

3. Using technology and feeling more focused and aware of what is happening in the classroom.

This last point of feeling more aware agrees with findings from other studies (Freeman 1996b, Kunzman, 2003, Borg, 2011) where it was observed that through in-service training teachers gain more control of their tacitly held beliefs and develop the ability to articulate them.

The interview findings were also mixed but mainly comprised of negative comments (see 5.4.2). The teachers were critical towards their initial training (ΠΕΚ) due to lack of organisation, poor content, and ineffective trainers. Regarding in-service training the teachers were again critical. First of all, they felt there is a lack of internal and external motivation towards training in state schools, mainly due to the fact that seminars fail to
reflect the realities of state school teachers. They also underlined their dissatisfaction for most trainers because they are usually not active teachers. The teachers in Gravani (2005) also complained regarding the different mentality of the trainers and felt that there was lack of collaboration between them and their university trainers. There are also practical issues involved, as the time in-service training takes place is usually during school hours and as a result not all teachers can attend. However, they have mixed feelings concerning the attendance of seminars at weekends. Finally, the facts that attendance is optional and seminars have no consistency or follow-up sessions are inhibiting factors for experienced teachers. The majority of the teachers also expressed their dissatisfaction from their advisors due to lack or complete absence of communication. Most teachers complained that they have never been asked about their training needs and the seminars organised are usually of poor and uninteresting content. This gap in the area of identifying the teachers' training needs in Greece has also been identified by Χατζηγιάννη (2008). The few teachers who expressed their satisfaction from the cooperation they have with the advisor explained that the advisor organises seminars of high quality that cover interesting topics. They described the interaction between them and the advisor excellent and value the fact that the advisor asks them for their needs and tries to meet them through the seminars and meetings she organises.

Going through the findings from the interviews with the advisors, the teachers' dissatisfaction can be explained (see 5.5.3). The advisors sadly admit that ΠΕΚ is the only organised and compulsory training available for state school teachers. In-service training is unfortunately optional and not systematic. The fact that there is no official framework that clearly outlines what the advisor's job involves and the lack of specific guidelines, leave much of the initiatives to the advisors depending on their personality and their will to help. The advisors also explained that there is a lack of financial resources and they
really struggle to organise effective in-service sessions, especially when some of them are responsible for schools that are located in more than one prefecture. The advisors agreed with the teachers that planning meetings during school hours is not the best option, but planning them at weekends has also implications that are practical (not all teachers work near their place of residence which means they travel away at weekends) but also financial (heating schools at weekends costs but it also costs to book a private venue). Another aspect on which the advisors agreed with the teachers is that in-service training fails to meet experienced teachers' needs and their actual training needs are not officially recorded and considered. They explained that in-service seminars usually fail because of the limited time available or because the advisor lacks in expertise in areas that interest teachers, like the psychopathology of teenagers' special needs etc. Some of the advisors also expressed their dissatisfaction with those experienced teachers who show poor interest in training, although they do admit that state school teachers face a complex reality.

However, regardless of the obvious dissatisfaction expressed, the teachers admitted that they have made changes in their teaching as a result of in-service training (see 5.4.3). They have adopted new techniques and have become familiar with new pedagogical practices. More specifically, they have learned how to use songs, how to use dictionaries, how to make the lesson less theoretical, how to meet students' needs, how to use group-/pairwork. One teacher gave a specific example of a mnemonic strategy she has developed as a follow-up of attending a seminar and realising that lessons need to be more practical. She uses the acronym SVOMPT (Subject-Verb-Object-Manner-Place-Time) which she has turned into a rap song to help students remember word order and syntax. In the literature mnemonic strategies are defined as systematic procedures for enhancing memory (Mastropieri and Scruggs, 1998) and are used in developing better ways to
encode information so that it can be retrieved more easily. Using acronyms is one of many mnemonic techniques teachers can use to help students connect new learning to prior knowledge (ibid.). Finally, the teachers mention three aspects they really value in in-service training and which support the value of the social aspect of professionalism, namely the getting together, the sharing of common interests and problems, the feeling of solidarity:

- Attending in-service seminars gives them the opportunity to meet colleagues and exchange ideas. Sometimes these discussions are more fruitful than the seminar itself.
- Taking part actively through presenting examples of activities and practices they have used in their classrooms has helped the teachers who did it because preparing the presentation involved engaging in detailed and focused reading and furthermore the discussion that followed the presentation was really constructive.
- Attending in-service seminars creates a feeling of belonging in a group of professionals that share the same interests and needs. This feeling of importance triggers the will to learn and develop.

Although the experienced teachers expressed themselves strongly against in-service training and the positive comments were only few, when comparing the effects of in-service training on their beliefs by dividing the participants in two groups (those attending seminars up to twice a year and those attending seminars more than 3 times a year) some effects were observed. More specifically, differences were observed in their beliefs about teaching and about classroom management (see Table 5.17). It was noticed that teachers who attend frequent in-service training seminars illustrate greater awareness about teaching and classroom management. In the other areas (foreign language aptitude, language learning difficulties, nature of language learning, language learning strategies,
training, teacher's role, teaching experience), however, in-service training did not seem to have great impact on experienced teachers' beliefs.

Slightly different, however, were the findings regarding the effects of having a postgraduate degree (see Table 5.14). Continuing their education is a way more and more experienced teachers choose in order to update their knowledge about teaching. When rating the effects of studies, the teachers considered their undergraduate studies as being the least influential in relation to teaching experience, training, and their own experience as learners (see Figure 5.4). However, when asked to justify their rating, they were explicit about the fact that although their undergraduate studies did not have great impact on them, their postgraduate studies were of paramount importance since they were more focused on teaching methodology. Differences were identified in beliefs about the nature of language learning, language learning strategies, and teaching. The teachers with a postgraduate degree seemed to present greater awareness regarding their beliefs in those three areas.

To conclude, the findings of the present study add to the findings of previous studies, as there is evidence that in-service training is a main source of change, especially regarding the adoption of new teaching methodologies and practices. However, in-service training is also an area that receives a lot of critical comments from experienced teachers that have mainly to do with the topics covered, the presentation methods used, the lack of consistency, and the personality of the trainers.
6.5 Research Question 3b: “What expectations do experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training?”

The second part of the third research question sought to identify the expectations experienced foreign language teachers have from in-service training. The analysis of the qualitative questionnaire and interview data led to the conclusions that are outlined and discussed in this section.

The teachers were quite critical towards in-service training, however, they expressed the will to train and develop as they have expectations from training seminars. In the questionnaire the teachers expressed a number of expectations and the most popular were the following four (see 5.3.1):

i) The majority of the experienced teachers stated that they want to learn something new. They want to be presented with novel ideas, methods and techniques that are, however, practical. This finding indicates that experienced teachers do not wish to rely on their experience only. They seem to be eager to constantly learn something new, to develop, and to try to apply the new knowledge in their lessons.

ii) Many teachers placed emphasis on the need for in-service seminars to be more practical and less theoretical by presenting more applicable content. They also want to be given the opportunity to implement the new ideas in real life situations, and they underline the need for seminars to have continuity rather than being short one day presentations.

iii) It was stressed by some teachers that in-service seminars must have a problem-solving aim attached to them. They expect in-service training to help them deal effectively with the problems they face in their classrooms. To do this efficiently, however, the problems teachers face need to be tracked in advance to help trainers design seminars that fulfill the teachers’ needs.
iv) The teachers again placed emphasis on the benefits of sharing and exchanging ideas with colleagues they meet in seminars. Collegiality was defined by Little (1982) as a concept that refers to teachers interacting in a reciprocal manner in order to talk about general classroom practices; it also involves teachers mutually observing one another and sharing practices with the aim to improve. This idea of collegiality is also stressed by Hargreaves (1994, p.187) who says that “collegiality and collaboration are important for the improvement of morale and satisfaction … Collegiality and collaboration are also needed to ensure that teachers benefit from their experiences and continue to grow during their careers”. The positive effect of sharing was again stressed by the participants in this study when they said that one aspect of experience they value is discussing with colleagues (see 6.3). Researchers have also observed that in-service training programmes are likely to have a greater impact in those schools in which teachers engage in higher levels of collegiality (Little, 1982, Ayling, 1989). This is so because when teachers try to implement new teaching practices they may face difficulties and may think of withdrawing to their customary practices; at such times it is crucial to have colleagues who are willing to provide support because it is this collegial backing that can give teachers the energy and will to persist until the new strategy is successfully adopted (Karagianni, 2012, McLaughlin, 1991, Fennessy, 1998).

The least mentioned topics for in-service training had to do with psychology, technology, and classroom management.

The focal points that resulted from the teacher interviews regarding their expectations from in-service training have been divided in two categories: general expectations and specific topic suggestions (see 5.4.4). The general expectations they mentioned extend on the points the teachers raised in the questionnaire. They stressed the importance of running a needs analysis prior to training as this will help improve the overall organisation
of seminars. The need to have trainers who are active teachers and in touch with the reality of the classroom was again mentioned. They also placed emphasis on organising seminars whose content is applicable, practical and less theoretical. The experienced teachers are also in want of change in training, as they demand more dynamic topics and methods of presentation. Finally, they reiterate the importance of having in-service training that is systematic and mandatory. They believe that seminars fail because they lack in clear aims and objectives and there is no follow-up, no opportunities for reflection and evaluation. Regarding the specific suggestions for topics seminars should cover, seven areas were mentioned:

i) Techniques on teaching effectively mixed-ability classrooms

ii) Offering support groups that provide psychological support to teachers

iii) Organising seminars on novel teaching methodologies

iv) Organising practical seminars and workshops on the application of modern teaching concepts and tools

v) Organising seminars on how teachers can create their own interactive electronic material

vi) Techniques on effective classroom management

vii) Seminars on how to prevent bullying and how to handle the various types of bullying.

There are similarities with the training needs identified by Χατζηγιάννη (2008) (see 3.2.4) in the areas of new teaching methodologies, the use of teaching aids, educational innovations, bullying, and help with everyday problems. The teachers in the present study, however, taking under consideration their own needs and their teaching contexts added the few more areas, mentioned above, on which they would like to be trained.
The training needs of experienced teachers were also raised in the interviews with the advisors so to see what teachers ask when they contact their advisors (see 5.5.2). In other words, the aim was to gain knowledge about the questions, difficulties and needs experienced teachers express when they get in touch with their advisors either in seminars, on telephone or via e-mail. According to what the advisors said, experienced teachers' questions can be grouped around four categories:

i) An area that causes confusion among all teachers is that of educational legislation. Experienced teachers very often contact their advisors to help them clarify the parameters of laws brought out by the Ministry of Education.

ii) Some teachers have questions regarding whether and how they should link their teaching with the exams for the State Certificate of Foreign Languages.

iii) Most questions teachers ask have to do with teaching methodology. They have questions about how to teach grammar and syntax, but sometimes this uncertainty is just their perception. They also have questions about practical methodological issues, like the division of students in groups according to their level, how they can overcome any impediments in their teaching due to lack of facilities, and they also complain about the book in Lower Secondary Schools as being poor and inappropriate and therefore ask for ideas on how to enhance the book.

iv) The teachers, finally, have questions regarding pedagogy. They ask for advice on how to treat indifferent students, how to manage their classrooms more effectively, and what approach to take to support students with learning difficulties.
6.6 Summary

It is undeniable that teachers hold a variety of beliefs and these beliefs are reflected in their teaching and shape their decisions. What is more, these beliefs do not present great differences as teachers gain more teaching experience or attend in-service seminars. Although experienced teachers are critical towards in-service training, they value learning and seem willing to change as long as they have support. Ermeling (2010) identified this lack of support as the main reason why traditional professional development is ineffective. Experienced teachers are willing to learn new approaches but struggle with implementing them, therefore they need support and guidance. Truesdale (2003) found that with coaching and support nearly all teachers can transfer the new skills they are presented in in-service training. On the other hand, without coaching only 10% can manage to transfer new knowledge into their teaching. Mattheoudakis and Nicolaidis (2005) explain that teachers show an eagerness to adopt the ideas they are presented with in seminars, but it has been observed that after some time they tend to go back to their own ways of teaching, which are based on their beliefs and past experiences. Therefore, if our aim is to change the overall effectiveness of foreign language education in Greek state schools, then we should focus on the design and implementation of effective in-service training seminars and care should be taken to provide teachers with enough support so that the ideas presented are implemented effectively by the teachers. In other words, the emphasis is again on designing seminars that have continuity and consistency.

Another important aspect highlighted throughout the findings in the present study has to do with the fact that in order for experienced teachers to truly change, professional development should occur over time and preferably be ongoing, consistent, and designed taking under consideration the teachers’ current beliefs and practices.
In the next chapter the practical implications of the findings are raised and the main points are summarised.
Chapter 7

Conclusion

7.1 Overview

This final chapter of the thesis consists of some concluding remarks, the strengths and limitations of the study and some suggestions for future research on beliefs and in-service training. The chapter starts with a summary of what was researched and how, what was discovered and what views were challenged. Next, follows an overview of the significance of the research along with the limitations of the study. Finally, areas for future research and development are provided.

7.2 Summary of the study and implications for practice

The study was set out to explore the concept of beliefs and to identify the nature and form of influence teaching experience and in-service training have on experienced EFL state school teachers' beliefs (see 1.2). The research gap this study set out to bridge is first of all lack of belief studies in Greece focusing on the interrelations among beliefs - change - experience - in-service training, and second the fact that most belief studies have been carried out in native contexts (Borg, 2006b), so we have minimal insights into non-native contexts. The form of in-service training available for EFL state school teachers appointed in lower and higher secondary schools in Greece was examined along with the teachers' needs and motivation for further development. The general theoretical literature on teacher cognition specifically in the context of experienced EFL teachers in Greece, is inconclusive on several vital questions, which the study sought to answer:

1. What beliefs do experienced EFL teachers hold about language, language learning and language teaching?
2. What is the role of teaching experience in shaping or challenging and changing these beliefs?

3. What is the role of in-service training in shaping or challenging and changing these beliefs?

4. What expectations and needs do experienced EFL teachers have from in-service training?

The main empirical findings to these questions are chapter specific and were discussed within the results and discussion chapters (chapters 5 and 6). This section will serve as a synthesis of the empirical findings. The study has offered an evaluative perspective on teacher cognition and on in-service training for experienced EFL state school teachers in Greece. It was conducted mainly in Central Macedonia, but the sampling was later extended all over Greece (see 4.4). The data was collected using the BALLI questionnaire for teachers, which was enhanced by adding further Likert-scale items and a few open-ended questions (see 4.5.1). Interviews were also taken from some of the experienced teachers who filled in the questionnaire and from state school advisors operating mainly in Northern Greece but also in other parts of the country (see 4.5.2).

As mentioned above, research on teacher cognition has not focused widely on experienced teachers and this research gap triggered the present study (see 3.2.1). If experienced teachers are to gain from in-service training, then their beliefs and needs must be clarified and considered. The analysis of the data revealed that experienced teachers have similar beliefs about teaching, learning and in-service training, as in nearly all Likert scale questions the majority of the participants presented the same tendency, i.e. there was either a general tendency to agree or to disagree with a statement. This led to the conclusion that teachers have firm and clear beliefs of what constitutes teaching and
learning a foreign language (see 5.2.1), what defines their role as teachers (see 5.2.1), and how their teaching experience (see 5.2.2) and their participation in in-service seminars have affected their beliefs (see 5.2.3, 6.6).

It was found that experienced teachers respect the knowledge they gained during their studies, but are quite critical to what regards their undergraduate studies, while appreciating more the contribution of their postgraduate studies. They felt that their undergraduate studies failed to prepare them for the challenges they later faced in the classroom, a gap some decided to fill by pursuing postgraduate studies, which they described as more focused (see 5.6). The majority of the participants stated that they attend in-service training, but are quite critical towards the content of such seminars but also towards the status of the trainers (see 5.2.3, 5.6, 5.4.2). The teachers admitted that as time passes they change and this change is a result of their teaching experience (see Figure 5.2) but also because of their participation in in-service seminars (see Figure 5.3).

Nevertheless, the findings indicated that the teachers feel that in-service training is an area that calls for improvement on mainly three levels (see 5.4.2, 5.4.4):

i) Organisational issues, i.e. the time and place in-service training takes place, the number of participants, and the necessity for in-service training to be ongoing and not an one-day random seminar.

ii) Content issues: Experienced teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with in-service training mainly because they do not find the topics presented interesting anymore. They feel that now they have different needs, different interests, and feel that the majority of seminars is a repetition of the same topics.
iii) The trainer's personality: There were many comments on the importance of having trainers who are active teachers, and who are in touch with the reality of Greek secondary state schools.

However, the experienced teachers did not express only complaints, and they were not against in-service training. On the contrary, the experienced teachers did not seem to be afraid to adopt new ideas. They expressed an eagerness to learn and a willingness to change, though under certain preconditions. The following suggestions for improving in-service training and making it fit for experienced teachers were revealed through the analysis of the data (see 5.3.1, 5.4.4):

i) It is of preliminary importance that a needs analysis takes place at regular intervals, e.g. once a year. Ideally, the needs analysis could be conducted at about two months after the beginning of the school year, when the teachers will have identified their needs based on the reality they are facing. Identifying the teachers' needs will help the stakeholders and the advisors to organise seminars that target the teachers' real needs. This can be easily done either with the aid of a small questionnaire or by asking the teachers to e-mail their needs, their suggestions, their problems to the advisor, who can then evaluate the information collected and organise training sessions accordingly.

ii) An aspect experienced teachers really seemed to value and acknowledge are the gains they earn through exchanging ideas with colleagues. They also value their experience and rate it high. It was, however interesting, that no great differences were traced when comparing the beliefs of teachers with more and with less experience. This provides support for the conclusion that beliefs are formed early in a teacher's career and that after the first 4-5 years in the classroom teachers have shaped their teaching. After that, they remain stable and follow the robust set of beliefs they have developed (see 2.4.1, 2.4.3). These notions of collegiality and of valuing their own experience should be highly
considered by those designing in-service seminars. Experienced teachers should be given the opportunity to participate actively in in-service seminars. They can present examples of good practices, of practices that failed, or of practices that they have difficulty in implementing. Such presentations can raise discussions among the trainers and the trainees that may lead to solutions (Haritos, 2004, see 1.2).

The study is important because first of all it provides insights into in-service teacher training, i.e. it gives a clear picture of how in-service training is conducted in Greece and it highlights the needs experienced Greek EFL secondary school teachers have. The findings can be used by stakeholders to improve in-service training in Greece. More specifically, the findings can have practical implications for the following aspects of in-service training:

- The topics around which in-service training should focus
- The profiles of effective teacher trainers
- The structure and organisation of in-service training.

In other words, the findings made it clear that for in-service training to be effective there should be a balance between theory and practice, the needs of experienced teachers should be identified in advance, and most importantly in-service training should make the most out of the teachers' experiences by giving them the opportunity to share their experiences and reflect on them.

### 7.3 Limitations of the Study

The study has shed light on the effects of teaching experience and in-service training in inducing change on the beliefs of experienced EFL secondary school teachers in Greece using as sampling method questionnaires and interviews. As a direct consequence of this methodology, the study encountered a number of limitations which need to be considered.
The questionnaire was distributed online (see 4.5.1) and although this method is one of low cost and allows for flexibility (i.e. the system was programmed to accept all questionnaires regardless of the number of unanswered questions), it does have some disadvantages. Not all the target population may feel comfortable with completing an electronic questionnaire. So, the replies received were only of those teachers who were skilled at filling in e-questionnaires, regardless of the fact that the questionnaire itself had a user-friendly design. In addition, the drop out rate was quite high, as not everyone who accessed the questionnaire completed it. Nevertheless, to overcome these limitations, interviews were added and a mixed methods design was adopted. The researcher was also aware of the fact that experienced teachers are an intriguing population to engage in research. They are occupied with and engaged in their every day teaching obligations and they do not always have enough time to invest on research (see 1.2).

Regarding the interviews, the fact that all teachers who were interviewed volunteered to do so (see 4.5.2) might be considered a limitation. In addition, nearly all had a postgraduate degree, so the sample consisted mainly of teachers who were internally motivated to participate. On the other hand, 'forcing' someone to participate in a study might also affect negatively the results, whereas having a large sample of teachers who volunteered to participate makes it easier for the study to reach conclusions and make generalisations that reflect the reality.

Finally, the sample did not cover proportionally the whole population of experienced EFL teachers in the Greek lower and higher secondary schools. Besides shortage of time availability and travel expenses required in order to cover a larger population, the main reason was that the researcher worked full time in secondary education, and thus, she could not travel long distance for data collection and conduct of interviews.
7.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The scale of the debate whether teachers' beliefs change or not as a result of teaching experience or in-service training is extensive and multifaceted. To generate achievable in-service strategies and development targets with regards to qualitative in-service training for experienced teachers there is need for more research to allow for further assessment of the effects of experience and training.

Our understanding of how beliefs operate and develop as a result of experience and in-service training will grow through longitudinal observational case studies. Observation will help identify whether experienced teachers' beliefs are reflected in their teaching. In addition, in order to help make suggestions for improved in-service training, case studies in this area are also useful. More specifically, it would help both teacher trainers and policy makers to have studies that look into the effects of specific in-service seminars. An analysis of how such seminars are designed and implemented along with how they are assessed both by the trainer and the trainees will result into improved suggestions for more effective in-service training programmes. These studies should take the form of qualitative case studies. As suggested by Papadopoulou (2000), the model followed in teacher training needs to view participant teachers as active participators in the training process and great emphasis should be placed on trainees' previous beliefs. Furthermore, as teaching is mainly a thinking activity, reflection on behalf of the trainees is of great importance (Papadopoulou, 2000). What is more, Παπαδοπούλου (2001) highlights the positive effects of using diaries, since it has been proven that diaries add to the development of critical reflection. Finally, an issue research should deepen into is the effect of experience on beliefs (see 6.3). It has been proven that experience plays a crucial role, but it must be researched in contrast to expertise and with regard to the time when teachers reach their peak and experience stops inducing change.
7.5 Summary

Reflecting on the whole process of designing and carrying out the study and of analysing the data, and by keeping the above stated limitations in mind, this study fits into the field of teacher cognition studies and it can be concluded that it met its main objective, namely to examine the type of influence teaching experience and participation in in-service seminars exceed on experienced teachers. Studies targeting experienced EFL teachers in Greece have been few and this study comes to fill in the need of research to examine experienced teachers' needs.

To sum up, experienced teachers were found to be aware of their beliefs and they were also positive towards change. They also presented the internal will to attend in-service training seminars as long as these meet their needs, are well organised and their experiences into account.
References


Debreli, E. (2016). Pre-Service Teachers' Belief Change and Practical Knowledge Development during the Course of Practicum.


Γεωργιάδου, Α., Παναγιώτης, Π., Βαλμάς, Θ., Σκιά, Κ., Σαλαγιάννη, Μ., Σαλίχος, Μ. (2011). Συζητήσεις Μελών της Ομάδας Εργασίας του Ο.Ε.Π.Ε.Κ. την Τρέχουσα Σχολική Χρονιά με τις Διευθύνσεις του Π.Ε.Κ., με Επιμορφωτές και Επιμορφούμενους. Στο: Εισαγωγική Επιμόρφωση: Ανάδειξη καλών Πρακτικών, Διερεύνηση Προβλημάτων και Ανίχνευση Προοπτικής. Μπαγάκης, Γ. (Επιμέλεια). Αθήνα: Ο.Ε.Π.Ε.Κ. Υπουργείο Παιδείας Δια Βίου Μάθησης και Θρησκευμάτων


Greek Ministry of Education. www.ypepth.gr


Καγκά, Ε. (2006). Διευρύνοντας τους Ορίζοντες μέσα από τη Διαδικασία των Ξένων Γλωσσών στη Δημόσια Υποχρεωτική Εκπαίδευση. Πρακτικά Πανελλήνιου Συνεδρίου του Παιδαγωγικού Ινστιτούτου σε συνεργασία με το Εθνικό και Καποδιστριακό Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών. Οι Ξένες Γλώσσες στην Δημόσια Υποχρεωτική Εκπαίδευση, 31-35.


Καραβά, Ε. (2006). Ο Εκπαιδευτικός της Δευτεροβάθμιας ως Εκπαιδευτής. Πρακτικά Πανελλήνιου Συνεδρίου του Παιδαγωγικού Ινστιτούτου σε συνεργασία με το Εθνικό και


Χατζηγιάννη, Α. (2008). Ανίχνευση Επιμορφωτικών Αναγκών στη Δευτεροβάθμια Εκπαίδευση. Εθνικό Κέντρο Κοινωνικών Ερευνών. [http://hdl.handle.net/10795/1158](http://hdl.handle.net/10795/1158), [http://repository.edulll.gr/1158](http://repository.edulll.gr/1158)

ΑΠΕΝΔΙΧ Α
FORMAL REQUEST TO THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

ΙΔΙΑΣ

ΠΡΟΣ

Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Θρησκευμάτων

Διεύθυνση Προσωπικού

Τμήμα Α'

Θα επιθυμούσα κάποια περίοδο στα-πιατικά στοιχεία για τον σκοπό της έρευνας που διεξάγω στα πλαίσια της διδασκαλικής μου διστάσεως. Η έρευνα αφορά εκπαιδευτικούς Αγγλικών στη Δυτική-Θράκη εκπαιδευτές με διδακτική εμπειρία 5 (πέντε) χρόνια και άνω. Θα επιθυμούσα λοιπόν τον αριθμό των συγκεκριμένων εκπαιδευτικών κατά το έτος 2012-2013 στις εξής περιφέρειες:

α) Ανατολικής Μακεδονίας
β) Δυτικής Μακεδονίας
γ) Κεντρικής Μακεδονίας

Επιπλέον, θα ήθελα να γνωρίζω πόσοι από αυτούς των εκπαιδευτικών είναι κάτοχοι μεταπτυχιακών και διδακτορικών πτυχίων σπουδών.

Ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων.

Η Αιτούσα

Στεργιοπούλου Ευδοκία

Θεσσαλονίκη, 21-10-2013

e-mail: evdsterigopoulou@yahoo.gr
ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ
ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ & ΘΡΗΣΚΕΥΜΑΤΩΝ
ΠΟΛΙΤΙΣΜΟΥ & ΑΘΛΗΤΙΣΜΟΥ

ΓΕΝΙΚΗ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΔΙΟΙΚΗΣΗΣ
Α/ΘΜΙΑΣ & Β/ΘΜΙΑΣ ΕΚΠ/ΣΗΣ
ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ ΠΡΟΣ/ΚΟΥ Δ.Ε.
ΤΜΗΜΑ Α΄ (ΔΙΟΙΚΗΣΗ)

Ταχ. Δ/νται: Α. Παπανδρέου 37
Τ.Κ.-Πόλη: 151 80 ΜΑΡΟΥΣΙ
Ιστοσελίδα: www.minedu.gov.gr
Email: 109pde1@minedu.gov.gr
Πληροφορίες: Διακοπολού Φ., Συμπάντης Κ., Αθανασικολού Ε.
Τηλέφωνα: 210 3443084, 3443117
Fax: 210 3442867

ΘΕΜΑ: «Διαβίβαση Αίτησης Μονήμου Εκπαιδευτικού»
Σχετ.: Η υπ’ αριθ. 146415/72/21.11.2012 αίτηση που διαβιβάστηκε στην υπηρεσία μας
με ημερομηνία εισερχομένου την 4η-12-2012

Σας διαβιβάζουμε την από 12-11-2012 αίτηση της κου Σταυροπούλου Ευδοκίας, μόνιμης
εκπαιδευτικού, κλάδου ΠΕ07 Γερμανικής Γλώσσας, με την οποία αιτείται, για στατιστικούς λόγους,
να της χορηγηθούν στοιχεία που αφορούν εκπαιδευτικούς κλάδου ΠΕ06 Αγγλικής Γλώσσας που
είναι τοποθετημένοι στα σχολεία Διατεροβάθμιας Εκπαίδευσης της Περιφέρειας Κεντρικής
Μακεδονίας.

Παρακαλούμε για τις δικές σας ενέργειες λόγω αρμοδιότητας.

Συν.: 2 σελίδες

Η ΑΝΑΠΛΗΡΩΤΙΑ ΠΡΟΪΣΤΑΜΕΝΗ
ΤΗΣ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗΣ

Λ. ΣΙΝΑΝΟΓΛΟΥ

Ευχαριστώ για την επικοινωνία!
Δ/νται Προσ/κού Β/Θμίας Εκπ/ς - Τμήμα Α’
APPENDIX B
PERMISSION TO USE THE BALLI

3/1/2016

Evdoxia Stergiopoulou
Eυδόκια Στέργιοπούλου

Σήμερα 7:36 μ.μ. Δευτέρα, 22 Ιουλίου 2013, ο/η "Horwitz, Elaine K"<horwitz@austin.utexas.edu> είχε μάθει:

I can't think of any studies with in-service teachers off the top of my head. Why don't you try googlescholar? BTW, the book listed below includes a new version of the BALLI. I am attaching it to this e-mail. Best, elkh

In terms of the BALLI, here is my permission note to use it in your research:

Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the BALLI in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings. Some scoring information about the BALLI can be found in my book Becoming a Language Teacher: A Practical Guide to Second Language Learning and Teaching, 2nd edition, Allyn & Bacon, 2013.

Best wishes,
Elaine Horwitz

2 συμμετέχοντες προβολή όλων απόψεις BALLI25.pdf

ATT00081.htm

Απάντηση
Απάντηση σε όλους
Προώθηση
Περισσότερα

https://gr-mig42.mail.yahoo.com/mbox-launch?rand=1507326522&hms=1507322212
APPENDIX C

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

249

249

A P P E N D I X  C

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Evdokia Stergiopoulou - Teacher Beliefs, Experience & In-service Training
PhD, 2016
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

SECTION A

A. Years of teaching experience in the state school sector:

- [ ] 5-7
- [ ] 8-10
- [ ] More than 11
- [ ] More than 11

B. Postgraduate studies (if applicable):

- [ ] MA
- [ ] PhD

Please give details (e.g., MA in TEFL, Aristotle University):

C. Do you work in a school in the Prefecture of:

D. Do you attend training seminars/conferences/one day events etc.?

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No
- [ ] Not Anymore

(If 'Yes', move to question C1. If 'No' or 'Not Anymore', do not answer question C1 and move to Section B).

D1. How often do you attend training seminars/conferences etc.?

- [ ] Once a year
- [ ] Twice a year
- [ ] 3-4 times a year
- [ ] More than 5 times a year
- [ ] Other

Save and Go to Section B1

http://evdokia.foupae.eu/questionnaire_a.php
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

To ερωτηματολόγιο είναι απόδειξη και σας ενημερώνει εκ των προτύπων για το χρόνο σας.

SECTION B1

For questions 1 to 44 tick the appropriate box:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

B1

1. Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.

2. English is a difficult language to learn.

3. English is a difficult language to teach.

4. It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent.

5. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.

6. You shouldn’t say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly.

7. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.

8. It is better to learn a foreign language when living in the foreign country.

9. It’s OK to guess if you don’t know a word in the foreign language.

10. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary.

11. It is important to revise and practice a lot.

12. If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.

13. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar.

14. It is easier to understand than speak a foreign language.

15. Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.

16. Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Greek.

17. It is easier to read and write a foreign language than to speak it.

18. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

Save and Go to Section B2
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

Το ερωτηματολόγιο είναι σχεδιασμένο και σας εξισχύει εκ του προηγούμενου για το χρόνο σας.

SECTION B2

For questions 1 to 44 tick the appropriate box:
1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

B2 Training (Skip questions 19-25 if you answered No in question C in section A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Training seminars/conferences etc. help me to remember the various teaching theories and methods.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Training seminars/conferences etc. are helpful when they combine theory and workshops.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Training seminars/conferences etc. help me to address my classroom problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Training seminars/conferences give me new ideas about teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The ideas presented in training seminars/conferences are not applicable in my classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I have made changes in my teaching as a result of attending training seminars/conferences etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Attending training seminars/conferences etc. has affected my beliefs about foreign language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Training seminars are too theoretical.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Save and Go to Section B3
I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

To fill in the questionnaire please skim the questions and choose the answer that best describes your beliefs.

**SECTION B3**

For questions 1 to 44 tick the appropriate box:

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B3 The teacher’s primary role is to ...</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27. provide useful learning experiences.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. provide a model of correct language use.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. answer learners’ questions.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. correct learners’ errors.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. help learners discover effective approaches to learning.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. pass on knowledge and skills to their learners.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. adapt teaching approaches to match their learners’ needs.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Save and Go to Section B4
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

To ερωτηματολόγιο είναι σχεδιασμένο και σας ευχαριστώ εάν το προσέχετε για το χρόνο σας.

SECTION B4

For questions 1 to 44 tick the appropriate box:
1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34. The more teaching experience a teacher has the less flexible she is in adopting new ideas. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
35. My teaching experience has affected my beliefs about foreign language teaching. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
36. I have made changes in my teaching as a result of my teaching experience. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
37. I learn by sharing classroom experiences with colleagues. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
38. Teaching experience alone is not enough in learning to teach. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Save and Go to Section B5
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

To ερωτηματολογίο είναι σχεδιασμένο και σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προσώπων για το χρόνο σας.

SECTION B5

For questions 39 to 44 tick the appropriate box:
1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39. It is important to use authentic material when teaching a foreign language.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. It is important to encourage self-peer correction.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. It is important to have a lesson plan.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. It is important to employ a variety of teaching methods.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. It is important to use a variety of different activities in the classroom.</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Save and Go to Section B6
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

SECTION B6

For questions 1 to 44 tick the appropriate box:
1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

44. To manage a class I try to be strict and authoritative.
45. To manage a class I shout.
46. To manage a class I use gestures and eye-contact to avoid shouting.
47. To manage a class I use punishment (i.e. send students out of the classroom, send them to the director’s office).

Save and Go to Section B7
QUESTIONNAIRE

I would appreciate it if you could fill in the following questionnaire which I have designed as part of my doctoral research study undertaken in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The study aims to investigate the beliefs experienced teachers hold about teaching and learning and the effects of teaching experience and in-service training on these beliefs.

SECTION B7

B7

48. What expectations do you have from training seminars?

49. What changes (if any) have you observed in your teaching as a result of participating in training seminars?

50. What changes (if any) have you observed in your teaching as a result of your teaching experience in the classroom?

51. Which of the following factors would you say have played a major role in shaping your beliefs about teaching and learning? Rank them in order of importance (from 1 to 4) by putting the most important first (1 = most important and 4 = least important):

- my own experience as learner
- my studies
- attending seminars
- my teaching experience

Can you briefly justify your ranking decision?

Save and Finish
APPENDIX D
EXTRACT FROM AN INTERVIEW WITH A TEACHER
Appendix D

Extract from an Interview with a teacher

Interviewer: Μετά λές ότι έχες κάνει αλλαγές ως αποτέλεσμα του ότι έχες παρακολουθήσει σεμινάρια, τι είδους αλλαγές;

Teacher: ναι προσπάθησα να εφαρμόζω μερικά πράγματα, να εφαρμόζω την ομαδοσυνεργατική με περισσότερη πίστη ας αυξημένη και θόρος και να το επιβάλλο με έναν τρόπο στα παιδιά γιατί είμαι και σε γενικό λόγο που τα παιδιά ήταν αυτά κυρία τι θα κάνουμε τώρα. Δεν είναι όλοι εξαιρετικά ακόμα αυτά ούτε οι διευθυντές ούτε οι συνάδελφοι ούτε τα παιδιά τα έκανα όμως ή προσπάθησα να τους χορήγησα εμπιστοσύνη σε ομάδες και να κάνεις μια άλλη δραστηριότητα, ένα παραγό μια δραστηριότητα μέσα στην τάξη κατά κανονικό προσπάθησα να τα κάνω

I: λές ότι σημαντικός είναι το ότι έχες παρακολουθήσει σεμινάρια έχει επηρεάσει στις πιστολές σου σε σχέση με τη διδασκαλία. Τι σου έχει προσφέρει η επιμόρφωση; Και τι προσδιορίσεις έχες επιπλέον;

T: Η επιμόρφωση αρχικά σου δίνει μια αίσθηση ότι ανήκεις και εσύ σε έναν επιστημονικό κλάδο το οποίο το ξεκινάει το σχολείο που είσαι θρησκευτικής πολλές φορές, διοικητικός επιλέγοντας κτλ. ότι ναι αυτό που κάνεις είναι μια σοβαρή δουλειά και ενέχει ένα θεωρητικό υπόβαθρο και αποτελεί έναν επιστημονικό κλάδο αρχικά σου δίνει αυτή την αίσθηση. Κατά τον ίδιο τρόπο με άλλους αντίπροας σε μία ομάδα ανθρώπων και αυτοί με τον τρόπο τους για το ίδιο πράγμα. Πέρα από αυτό σου δίνει νέες ιδέες, άλλες ιδέες, τεχνικές κάποια βιβλιογραφία άλλες, δε δίνει πάνω πολλά και δε μπορεί να δώσει πολλά μια επιμόρφωση 2 ημερών από 5 άρες. Η άσφαλε μου είναι ότι οι επιμορφώσεις πρέπει να γίνονται το καλοκαίρι όπου είναι ο καθένας να δηλώνει δεν είναι η αναρτιτική γιατί εμείς που μένουμε μακριά σε διασκολία μέρη μακριά με τόν τόπο μα φέρουμε μα καλοκαίρι να γίνει νεα εκεί που έμαχτε να δηλώνουμε και να υπάρχει χώρος να κάνουμε επιμορφώσεις και ας υποχρεώσουμε να τις κάνουμε το καλοκαίρι είναι όπως είναι η άσφαλε μου γιατί όλοι γερνάντας με μία μεγάλη χώρο που μην έχει στη σχολική και όμως σε ύψος διδασκαλίας άλλες 12 με 14 ούτε μετά τις 14 που εντάσσεις καθάρες και από το χαμηλό της καθήμερη να υπάρχει όλος μίας μήνας το όλον μίας μήνας και άλλοι δύο να είναι υποχρεωτικά επιμορφώσεις για όλους 8 με 14 θεωρώντας αυτή θα περιπλανούμε σχολείο και σκοπός πληρούμε στο μέρος που έχει η μείωση της αύξησης με επιμορφώσεις και εξάπλωση στο τέλος αλλά μικρή εξάπλωση αλλά να υπάρχει μια διαδικασία όπου υπάρχει στο μένοι μια μειώνονται σανα σε κάποιο εντός. Αυτό για μένα θα έκρεια να είναι πάντα τακτική για κάθε καθηγητή να έχει ο ή άλλος ότι πρέπει να κάνει αυτό μέχρι αυτό 15 Ιουλίου ή όλο τον Ιούλιο και μετά να έχουμε τον Αύγουστο διακοπές. Αυτό εκεί και πέρα να μπορούμε να τα χρησιμοποιήσουμε τον κανόνα χρόνο για να υπάρχει μετά συσκευή και μία εξουσίαν τότε και αξιολόγηση τον ίδιο να μήνας και αυτή τη μεταφορά της εξουσίας να δεν υπάρξει μια ελέγχομενη με τη μεταφορά της εξουσίας με τη διαδικασία, οι αξιόλογες ή πρέπει να υπάρχον τα εξελέγη και κτλ. και οι υπόλοιποι να επιμορφώθουν τέλος χάρη που έχουν κάνει αυτό για την μείωση να επιμορφωθούν παρά τον τρόπο που έχουμε κάνει το πράγμα tου αυτό που δίνει η επιμόρφωση ότι έχουμε μια σημαντική δουλειά ας παρατηρήσουμε ο ένας τον άλλον ας γίνει μέρος της καθημερινότητας μας ο αναρρήτη που χρειάζεται να χρειάζεται να κάνουμε και είναι καλή καθήκοντα

I: χαθήκατε δεν το έχουμε συνηθίσει κάλας

T: ναι επίσης η επιμόρφωση σου δίνει ότι να πάω καλά είμαι OK ή πρέπει να αλλάξω κάτι σου
δίνει ένα κίνητρο νάθεσις καλύτερα είναι απαραίτητο να υπάρχει

Ι: και το γεγονός ότι είναι πολύ θεωρητική η επιμόρφωση αυτό πώς θα μπορούσε να αλλάξει;

Τ: Η θεωρία πρέπει να υπάρχει. Σαφώς δεν μπορεί να μεταδοθεί σε 5 ώρες θα δόσεις και βιβλιογραφία ούτως ή άλλως θα πρέπει να υπάρχει μια συνέχεια γιατί αλλάξει δεν θα το κάνει ή πρέπει να τον εκπαιδεύσεις για να μάθει να διαβάζει μόνον τον. Λοιπόν μετά τη θεωρία λοιπόν πρέπει να υπάρχει πρακτική όπου γίνεται και στα μαθηματικά και στη διδακτική τα μαθηματικά της διδακτικής είναι συγκεκριμένα η πράξη εργασία είναι στη θεωρία και από εκεί και πέρα είναι μια αξιολόγηση ενός μαθήματος και το τρίτο είναι φτάσει μόνον μου ένα μάθημα και το αξιολόγηση. Αυτή είναι η διδασκαλία σε όλα τα μαθηματικά διδακτικά παντού έτσι πρέπει να υπάρχει να γίνεται και στο δημόσιο σου δίνει τη θεωρία ορατά τα μελέτα μετά έρχονται αξιολογούμε ένα μάθημα και μετά φτάνεις εσύ μόνος σου μικρόδιασκελίς τέλος πάντων οι σύμβουλοι οι σχολεία θα μπορούσαν να κλείσουν Ράντεμο με τα σχολεία να κάνουν επιπτώσεις μαθημάτων και αξιολογήσεις τη συγκεκριμένα μαθημάτων καθώς και συγκεκριμένα ράντεμο το. Ως να μεταφέρατε ο άλλος μπαίνει σε μια διδασκαλία και εφόσον μπαίνει σε μια διδασκαλία κάτι ότι θα μοιάζει

Ι: θα αναγκαστεί να ψάξει κατά τη μάθει και σε σχέση με τις προσδοκίες από την επιμόρφωση

Τ: άκριβες

I: έχεις γράψει για μεθόδους βοήθεια με την διοίκηση της τάξης

Τ: Τι ναι γιατί στον δεν είσαι μέσα στο πανεπιστήμιο όσο και να παρακολουθείς μόνος σου εντάξει λίγο άσχημο. Χρειάζεται κάποιον άλλο στον κάνει αυτή τη δουλειά ο οποίος είναι σε επιφάνεια με το διεθνή κύκλο ας πούμε δουλειάς και έρευνας πάνω στην παιδαγωγική και διδακτική είναι η δουλειά που πανεπιστημιακός να σου φέρει αυτή τη γνώση κοντά μέσω της επιμόρφωσης είσαι σε λέει στο πανεπιστήμιο είσαι μέσα του δημόσιου πολιτικά ήνεκερικά αυτο για το και τα κανονισμούς νέα ή για να κάνεις τα μελέτη κατά αυτό τη διαδικασία. Και στο classroom management φυσικά ότα έχουμε σοβαρά θέματα όχι γιατί εμείς δεν είμαστε κατά διαχρονικής πλευράς της αλλά λόγω της όλης κατάστασης της κοινωνικής την οποία εμείς την πληροφορία πάνω στην τάξη γιατί έχουμε μας 25 οικογένειες τους αντιπροσώπους τους εκεί βασικά δασκάλα που τα προβλήματα και βλέπουμε υποστήριξη σε αυτό. Είναι γνωστό ότι οι καθηγητές χρειάζονται υποστήριξη γιατί παίδανουν Brownout αυτό το έχει δείξει η έρευνα δεν να τόλμε να γράψει και οι καθηγητές παίδανουν Brownout. Έχουμε 25 οικογένειες κάθε όρα και πρακτικά υπάρχουν όρες που κάθομαι και λες δεν έχεις την ώρα για παιδικά. Δεν αισθάνομαι άμεσα ότι το έχεις δεκαέξαφροι αυτό παλιά έλεγα έρευνε κάποιους άλλους δεν νομίζω ότι έρευνε κάποιους άλλους οι μαθήτες λέγει τα έρευνε ακόμα και εγώ άλλα δεν νομίζω ότι στην τάξη που είμαι εγώ κάθε μέρα με τα 25 αυτά παιδιά με τα προβλήματα θα μπορούσε να κάνει κάποιους άλλους κάτι καλύτερο από μένα. Θα μπορούσα παρότρυχα να υπάρξει κάποιος άλλος κάτι καλύτερο από μένα. Θα μπορούσα εκτός ταξης εγώ δεν δούμαι
Extract from an Interview with an Advisor

Interviewer: Να ξεκινήσουμε με λίγες πληροφορίες για το πώς γίνεται η επιμόρφωση στους έμμεσους εκπαιδευτικούς αφού έχουν ολοκληρώσει τα ΠΕΚ, είναι 5-6 χρόνια στην εκπαίδευσή, πώς επιμορφώνονται;

Advisor: Να ξεκινήσουμε με μια μικρή εισαγωγή για να βοηθήσω το πλαίσιο. Έχουμε ότι η εκπαιδευτική πραγματικότητα παί δε χαρακτηρίζεται από στατικότητα, έτσι Ας οι εκπαιδευτικοί μπαίνουν στο περιβάλλον εργασίας τους με διαφορετικούς ειδώς, βάθους και εύρους καταρτισμένοι. Και έτσι αντιμετωπίζουν προβλήματα. Από τη μια πλευρά πρέπει να εργαστούν σε περιβάλλον που ίσως δεν τα έχουν επιλέξει ή δεν θα ήθαν την πρώτη τους επιλογή αν μπορούσαν αν τα καθορίζουν αυτά αρα δεν είναι (δεν ακούγονται) ιδιαίτερα και καθαρισματικά να διατηρήσουν αυτές οι ιδιαιτερότητες όπως είναι οι χαρακτηριστικές της επαγγελματικής εκπαίδευσης, ή η προπολίτιδα και η δενευρογίκη κτλ και από την άλλη καλύτερα να εφαρμόσουν την εκάστοτε εκπαιδευτική πολιτική, να ενσωματώσουν τη διδακτική τους στις μεταρρυθμίσεις, στις εξελίξεις, οι οποίες βέβαια συνδέονται και με τα προγράμματα σπουδών αλλά και με την τεχνολογία, τη διδακτική της ξένης γλώσσας στην πρώτη παιδική ηλικία κτλ. Αυτές τις μεταρρυθμίσεις είτε τις υποθέτουν προορισμικά είτε αναγκάζονται να τις ακολουθήσουν ἄρα η επιμόρφωση για τους εκπαιδευτικούς και μάλιστα για τους έμμεσους που με 5 χρόνια και πάνω ας πούμε αποτελεί μια διαχρονική αναγκαίατη. Είτε αυτή αποκεφαλίστηκε στην επακολούθηση κάποιων συγκεκριμένων πειθών της διδακτικής είτε αποκοπεί σε μια ολική ανάλυση της διδακτικής συμπεριφορά του εκπαιδευτικού. Τότε, στη χάρα μας η επιμόρφωση να είναι λεγόμενη κατ’ακολουθίας καταλήγει μόνον στο επαγγελματικό τους κοιμάται στην επαγγελματική δηλαδή κατάρτιση των εκπαιδευτικών, έτσι η επιμόρφωση προαναγκάζονται να ακολουθήσουν στην πρώτη παιδική ηλικία κατάρτιση και αυτό αποτελεί σημαντικό πρόσωπο του εκπαιδευτικού. Προορίζουν δηλαδή με αυτές τις επιμορφωτικές δράσεις να αποδειχτούν στις ανάγκες πάντα δυνατά μάλιστα των εκπαιδευτικών είτε εξοικομεικρά υποτιμώντας τον καθένα στο χώρο του παιδαγωγικού και επιστηματικού με τον τρόπο που εκείνος επιθυμεί ή που έχει ανάγκη είτε συλλογικά με διαχειριστικές συναντήσεις μικρής ή μεγάλης ακτίνας ή και εκπαιδευτικού και με δεδομένου ότι δεν καταγράφεται στατιστικά στο επάγγελμα ενδείκνυται να επιμορφώνεται και μάλιστα με πιστοποιημένες σε προγράμματα πιστοποιημένης επιμόρφωσης και μάλιστα σε μεταπτυχιακό επίπεδο κυρίως από το ελληνικό ανοιχτό πανεπιστήμιο ή από προγράμματα σπουδών του εξοτερικού. Επίσημα όμως στην πολιτεία αυτό δεν έχει σημαντική μορφή.

I: Αρα στην ιστορία είναι ό,τι προσφέρει είτε μέσω των συμβολάων είτε μέσω κατηγορίας άλλων;

A: επιδοτούμενων προγραμμάτων με ποικίλη θεματολογία και με αποτελεσματικά χαρακτήρα.

I: όσον αφορά στους συμβολους υπάρχει κάποιο πλαίσιο σύμφωνα με το οποίο όλοι εργάζονται ή εφαρμόζεται στην καθηγητή του καθεδρός;

A: Υπάρχει το καθηγητικόλόγο των σχ. Συμβολών το οποίο εντάσσεται στο γενικότερο καθηγητικόλογο των στελεχών της εκπαίδευσης. Συνδέει το καθήκοντά τους με ποικίλους φορείς,
με εκπαιδευτικούς, διευθυντές σχολείων, προϊσταμένους επιστημονικής καθοδήγησης, διευθυντές εκπαίδευσης, περιφερειακούς διευθυντές εκπαίδευσης, γιατί κ.κ.κ. Αυτό το καθήκοντολόγιο προβλέπει δημιουργήσεις μάλλον ένα γενικό προσανατολισμό στην επιμόρφωση. Δεν μπαίνει σε περισσότερες λεπτομέρειες όπως τη μορφή του αυτή τη επιμόρφωση, προτείνει. Το έργο του σε συμβούλιο επιμελείται στην παιδαγωγική και επιστημονική στήριξη των εκπαιδευτικών με γενικής άξονας. Δεν υπενθυμίζεται σε λεπτομέρειες ότι το υποτελέσμα δεν σκοπεύει συγκεκριμένα πρόγραμμα ή τρόπος επιμόρφωσης.

Ι: Τι προβλήματα θεωρείτε ότι υπάρχουν στην επιμόρφωση που θα μπορούσαν να ξεπεραστούν;

Α: Τα κύρια προβλήματα στην προσπάθεια των σχολικών συμβούλων αυτό εκείνον καταγράφονται και από την προσωπική μου εικονιά άλλα και από συζήτησης με άλλους συναδέλφους και από την αποτύπωση αυτής της προσπάθειας στην τελική έκθεση που υποβάλλουν οι σχολικοί συμβούλοι στην υποτελέσμα παιδείας στο τέλος της χρονιάς είναι η ανυσχυριστή η πατησία για τον εκπαιδευτή στην κατάρτιση, σας στόχους και στις ανάγκες του επιμορφωμένου κοινού. Η ανυπακοή κάλυψης όλων των τμημάτων των ενδιαφερόντων των εκπαιδευτικών από τους σχολικούς συμβούλους είτε για πρακτικούς λόγους, είτε για τον ξένοι έχουν ελλείψει ειδίκευσης σε συγκεκριμένα πεδία όπως είναι η νοημοσύνη των εφηβών μαθητών, η διδασκαλία σε μαθητές με ειδικές εκπαιδευτικές ανάγκες, τη διαχείριση της πολιτισμικής ανυσχυριστής των μαθητών, η έλλειψη πόρων για τη διοργάνωση καθώς επαγγελματικών δράσεων άρων δηλαδή υλικοτεχνικά και σύγχρονων δράσεων, το συμπέρασμα σχολικό πρόγραμμα που δύσκολα επηρεάζει την απελευθέρωση των εκπαιδευτικών από τα διδακτικά κάθετα για τη συμμετοχή τους στα εκπαιδευτικά σεμινάρια άλλα προσπάθειες της διαχείρισης της επιμόρφωσης σε δράσεις όπως είναι η συμμετοχή σε θεωρητικές περιγραφικές συζήτησης μεταξύ των εκπαιδευτικών και μεταξύ των εκπαιδευτικών με το επιμορφωτικό σχολικό συμβούλου. Από την άλλη πλευρά πρόβλημα είναι ότι δεν γίνεται συστηματική ανάγνωση των εκπαιδευτικών ανάγκες των εκπαιδευτικών και αυτό έχει σαν αποτέλεσμα συγχάρει και μεταξύ των εκπαιδευτικών και αυτό έχει σαν αποτέλεσμα χάθηκαν και συμμετοχή τους στα εκπαιδευτικά διαδικασία. Και αυτό το συγκεκριμένο κοινό παρουσιάζει πολύ έντονες διαφοροποιήσεις ως προς την κλιματική του, τα κίνητρα του, τα ενδιαφέροντα τούς, τους στόχους τους και τις προσωπικές τους αντιλήψεις κάθε για τη διδακτική. Αυτά είναι τα κύρια διακλαδισμού που καθοδηγούν και τον σχολικό συμβούλο στα σχόλια στο το θα είναι το επομένο επαγγελματικό κόμβων. Τέλος, οι εκπαιδευτικοί καταφέρουν στο σχολικό συμβούλο πολύ συγχάρει εν μέρες της προσωπικής διαμόρφωσης, διαμορφώνουν τους προαναφερθέντες προτύπους και εκεί κάποια σημαντικά σημεία. Όπως π.χ. η ικανοποίηση τους ενδιαφέρει να επιμορφωθεί σε κοινά θέματα, όπως η διαχείριση της ανυσχυριστής τάξης, η εφαρμογή της διαφοροποιημένης διδασκαλίας, η αντιμετώπιση της αποκλίνουσας ή μη αποκλίνουσας συμπεριφορά των μαθητών, πράγματα δηλαδή που δεν συμπεριλαμβάνονταν από την προαναφερθέντα διδασκαλία και που αφήνονται λέγει και στην ευγένεια του συμβούλου να τα θέσει ή όχι.