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Exploring the Effect of Self-reflection through Awareness Raising on Novice and Experienced Iranian EFL Teachers' Pedagogical Beliefs Enactment

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As the second phase of a larger-scale study, the present study attempted to explore the effect of self-reflection through an awareness raising technique on novice and experienced Iranian EFL teachers' pedagogical beliefs enactment. To this end, a personal practical theorizing process was employed both as a method to make teachers' practical beliefs explicit and as a consciousness-raising technique to increase teachers' awareness of their beliefs, thereby stimulating the teachers to convert their beliefs into actual classroom practice. In the first phase of the study, the pedagogical beliefs and practices of the participants were examined and discrepancies were found in novice teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices. Within the domain of the qualitative research, a multi-case study design was utilized, employing eight novice and experienced teachers who were selected based on purposive sampling. The data were analyzed using a constant comparative method around common themes and categories, which were identified as distinctive features of teachers' personal practical theories; these same categories were then compared with teachers' practices. The results showed that, except for teachers' content knowledge, the pedagogical beliefs of novice and experienced teachers were represented differently in their practices. However, after the theorizing technique, the teachers' practices became more in line with their pedagogical beliefs. With respect to teachers' professional development, the novice teachers who were initially concerned with maintaining order went through self-assessment and reflection, adopted new identities as real teachers, and entered into a state of maturity.

Keywords: personal practical theories; teachers' pedagogical beliefs; teachers' practices; novice and experienced teachers' knowledge

Introduction

Over the recent years, teacher development has substituted the tradition of teacher training as a concept that, as Keiny (1994) postulated, involves teachers exploring their practice to construct their own theories of teaching. Teacher development with a focus on teacher reflectivity, introspection, self-analysis, and inquiry is viewed by Bell and Gilbert (1994) as teacher learning in the form of a longitudinal process of teachers' behavioral change.

According to Johnson (2009), over the passage of time, the conceptualization of teacher learning or in a more general sense, teacher education, has undergone shifting epistemologies in line with the changing conceptualizations of human learning. Initially, positivism, with a focus on scientific method, posited that

knowledge about teaching and learning can be transmitted to teachers in the form of theoretical readings, lectures and workshops in a depersonalized and decontextualized way. The second strand, the interpretive epistemological perspective, appreciates what teachers know and explores the complexities of teachers' mental lives (Johnson, 2009, p. 9). Finally, the third view, the sociocultural perspective on teacher education, as Johnson (2009) discussed, is based on the point that teacher learning is "growing out of [teachers'] participation in social practices in classroom" and that teachers' knowledge is dependent on "knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum and community" (p. 13).

Along with these new trends in teacher education with changing foci, language teaching underwent a change from the notion of method to that of post method. Kumaravadivelu's (2001, 2006a, 2006b) macrostrategic framework as one of the post method frameworks, is shaped by three parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility. While the first parameter, particularity, deals with a shift to localization as discussed by Howatt and Widdowson (2004), practicality deals with the relationship between theory and practice. According to Kumaravadivelu, the theory/practice dichotomy is harmful. The third parameter, possibility, focuses on relations of power and dominance with a look at sociopolitical awareness as well as language learner identity.

Accordingly, he cites O'Hanlon (1993) distinction between professional theories and personal theories. Professional theories are those that are produced by experts. In contrast, personal theories as Kumaravadivelu (2001) noted, are generated by teachers "by interpreting and applying professional theories in practical situations" (p. 540). He believed that professional theories are often valued, while personal theories are often ignored. Rejecting the distinction between theorists' theory and teachers' theory, Kumaravadivelu (2006b) emphasized that postmethod teacher should have the ability to "theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize" (p. 173). Likewise, Ur (1996) suggests that postmethod has changed the relationship between the teachers as practitioners and theorizers.

According to Feryok (2004), the word "theory" is used to refer to several different kinds of knowledge in the literature on language pedagogy, while it is typically contrasted with practice. Mostly this dichotomization is regarded as a problem. In this vein, Clarke (1994) attributed this problem to devaluing the role and expertise of teachers as practitioners. As Feryok (2004) noted, while the word "practice" remains a relatively unproblematic term referring to classroom procedures and activities throughout the literature, a distinction can be made between the source theories, local theories and personal practical theories.

Source theories, as explained by Feryok, are the product of research-based inquiries by experts whose work needs interpretation to be used by practitioners. Examples of this type of theory are theories in applied linguistics, and second language acquisition theories. Local theory is viewed as the type of theories located in language pedagogy. Feryok assumed a narrower conception of local theory equivalent to 'method' in language teaching and learning, which is again distant from and contrasted with classroom practice. Local theories or methods recommend classroom practices in light of information from source theories.

Although the second interpretation of theory by Feryok has pedagogical aims which were not available in source theories, the third type of theory in language pedagogy imbues a more pedagogical sense. Reviewing the literature, some terms with more practical sense such as 'professional knowing' (Ur, 1992), 'theory of action' (Schon, 1983), 'practical theory' (Handel & Lauvas, 1987), 'theory of practice' (Van Lier 1996) can be found. Feryok called this use of theory for organized knowledge of practices *personal practical theory*.

Kleinsasser (1992), and Ross (1992) defined personal theorizing as a systematic reflection process, within which teachers attempt to recognize and use personal understanding as part of instructional improvement. Personal practical theories (PPTs) were defined by Cornett (1987) as teachers' beliefs or theories, which are developed based on personal and practical experiences in and out of the classroom situations. According to Cornett (1990a), teachers' PPTs "persistently change and progress as personal and practical experiences change and are influenced by external factors such as legislation, economics, administrators, and media" (p. 189). Researchers such as Clandinin (1986), Cornett (1990a), Pape (1992),

Cornett, Elliot, Chant, and Stern (1994) and Chant (2002) suggested that teachers can utilize a personal guiding theory to improve instructional actions and classroom decision making. Cornett (1990a) maintained that personal theory emerges as a result of teachers' personal and professional experiences and it can be utilized as a basis for the improvement of teaching practices.

As mentioned earlier, the nexus between theory and practice is highly debated; however, Carr (1986) argued that the assumptions that practice is non-theoretical and theory is non-practical underestimate the "extent to which those who engage in educational practices have to reflect upon, and hence theorize about, what, in general, they are trying to do" (p. 162). Carr and Kemmis (1986) explicated the link between theory and practice in the way that theory is "grounded" in practice and practice is not "thoughtless behaviour which exists separately from theory" (p. 113). Usher and Bryant (1989) contended that the teachers develop a type of knowledge they called practical knowledge, which stems from reflection on practice by making sense of what a teacher does. This type of knowledge bridges the gap between theory and practice. Brookfield (1993) believed that this type of "informal theory" is often taken for granted and seen "as simple common sense and is private and unique to the practitioner" (p. 75). Therefore, there is a need to make explicit the implicit nature of this theory and analyze it thereafter, because if this knowledge is not made explicit and if it is not critically analyzed, there may be the risk of "remaining at the level of anecdotal, idiosyncratic reminiscence" (p. 75). The critical reflection, according to Hillier (2005), is necessary for the theory–practice connections.

Background of the Study

Sze (1999) explored reflective teaching in second language teacher education and summarized different conceptions of reflective teaching as thoughtful practice, as a model of teacher preparation, as organized professional development, as classroom inquiry, and as a means to social justice. As a model of teacher preparation, Wallace (1991) contended that reflective teaching must be employed to reciprocate the relationship between the received knowledge, which consists of the methodological prescriptions obtained from the influential writers in second language teaching, and experiential learning. Consequently, Wallace proposed a reflective model of teacher preparation which emphasizes the link between theory and practice.

While Wallace (1991) was more concerned with the training of preservice and novice teachers, Parrott (1993) recommended reflective teaching for the continuing and lifelong professional development of in-service teachers by "developing professional competence through identifying teachers' own assumptions about the nature of language and of learning and teaching" (p. 1). To this end, Ur (1996) argued for "enriched reflection" by incorporating "(a) vicarious experience, (b) other people's observations, (c) other people's experiments, and (d) input from professional research, and teachers' theorizing, into the various stages of the reflective cycle" (p. 6).

With regard to empirical studies done on PPTs, Cornett (1990a) focused on the participant's involvement in the identification and analysis of the development of PPTs, their manifestation in practice, and influence on teaching. It was found that there was a strong relationship between the teachers' PPTs and practice, and that the teachers' beliefs influenced their instructional decision making. In another study, Cornett (1990b) explored the personal theorizing of a first-year science teacher. It was shown that the teacher used and benefited from an operational set of PPTs.

The two studies completed by Cornett and subsequent researches (Cornett, Elliot, Chant, & Stern, 1994; Stern, 1995) supported the idea that teachers rely on their personal theories to guide their classroom actions. These studies help support the assumption that knowing one's personal theories would not only be beneficial but would be essential to the completion of quality action research, since action research essentially involves teachers within a highly focused, self-study of practice.

In a personal theorizing study, Feryok (2004) explored the role of teacher experiences and beliefs from the perspective of six EFL teachers in Armenia. He investigated how EFL teachers developed personal

practical theories, determined the influences that shape personal practical theories, and elaborated on the extent personal practical theories were reflected in classroom practices. Interpretive analysis of e-mail interviews, classroom observations, and in-person interviews showed that a variety of experiences and beliefs inform personal practical theories, including formal pedagogical education, personal experiences of language learning and teaching, personal beliefs and values, and the sociocultural context. It was shown that classroom practices often, but not always, reflect personal practical theories and that more experienced and more articulate teachers appeared to have more coherent personal practical theories that were more consistently reflected in classroom practices.

Alongside the discussion presented, the present study as the second phase of a larger scale research attempted to explore the effect of self-reflection through awareness raising on novice and experienced Iranian EFL teachers' pedagogical beliefs enactment. To this end, it attempted to implement personal practical theorizing process both as a means to make teachers' practical beliefs explicit and as a consciousness-raising technique to increase teachers' awareness of their beliefs and stimulate them to convert their beliefs into actual classroom practice. In the first phase of the study, the pedagogical beliefs and practices of the participants were observed and examined and discrepancies were found in novice teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices concerning classroom management and organization, motivation, language assessment and teachers' knowledge. Based on the aforementioned objectives, the following research questions were posed.

1. How do the teachers' pedagogical beliefs compare before and after awareness-raising through a personal practical theorizing technique?
2. What are the main components and the sources of the novice and experienced teachers' personal practical theories?
3. How do the novice and experienced teachers' professional developments compare through personal practical theorizing technique?

Method

Participants

This research is a case study employing eight language teachers, both female and male. Since it was thought that this sample of participants can provide the relevant information to gain sufficient insights into and understanding of the topic, they were purposively chosen based on ease of access for holding training workshops, interviews, and observation sessions. All of the participants were teachers of English who had graduated from English language majors, including English Translation, TEFL, and English Literature, and had completed training courses; therefore, their proficiency level in English was at least upper intermediate or above. Their teaching experience varied from one to more than 20 years. Some of them taught English at university level, public schools, and institutes, while some solely taught in language institutes. They worked in Fasa University Language Center under the supervision of the lead researcher. Their native language was Persian, and they ranged in age from 28 to 45.

To categorize the participants as novice and expert, Yazdanmehr, Akbari, Kiani, and Ghafar Samar's (2016) model was implemented. The proposed model by Yazdanmehr et al. (2016) revealed how an expert becomes what he/she is through revealing the underlying relationship between the factors. These eight factors which were taken from the recent studies include: "teacher's language proficiency, pedagogical content knowledge, social recognition, cognitive skills, experience, professional development, contextual knowledge, and learner-centered teaching" (p. 631). These factors are regarded as the main components of teaching expertise in language teaching.

Based on the scant literature review, the subcomponents of each of these constituents are enumerated by Yazdanmehr et al. and the specifications are discussed in detail. Based on these subcomponents, a

checklist of teachers' expertise was made by the present researchers and used in classroom observations to determine the participants' level of expertise and categorize them into the novice and expert groups.

The Context of the Study

To investigate teachers' beliefs, Fasa University Language Center (FULC) was purposively chosen as the site of the study. FULC was established in 2014 as a language learning institute, teaching English, Arabic, French and German. Adult language learning applicants, above 18 years old, and of both genders, can register in different levels of the language learning classes based on the oral placement tests given at the beginning of each term. The purpose of choosing this context as the site of research is twofold. Firstly, the lead researcher was the administrator of the institute and was able to hold workshops, seminars, interview sessions, and class observations whenever needed. Secondly, he was familiar with the teaching behavior of teachers and their socioeconomic statuses. All in all, the research was carried out in a natural setting, and there was no attempt by the investigators to control extraneous influences.

The role of the researcher was that of a participant as the observer in the first phase of the study, which was characterized by a period of intense social interaction with the participants. During this period of interaction data were collected in the form of field notes, questionnaire items, and a verbatim transcription of the interviews recorded from the participants. In the second phase of the research, when the researcher was involved with overt observation of the teachers' actual practices, the researcher's role was that of the observer as a participant. During the theorizing process and the follow-up discussions and meetings, the lead researcher assumed the role of coordinator and counselor, introducing and maintaining the focus of each session, encouraging and stimulating interaction among the teachers, and providing counseling when it was requested.

Procedure

For the present study, firstly, teachers were exposed to the PPT process. PPTs, as a proxy for teachers' beliefs, were used because they appropriately highlighted reflection on the theory-practice connection and helped teachers think about and articulate their tacit beliefs and make them explicit. Through the process teachers were allowed to choose what they wanted to reveal about their beliefs in their own words. As a result of this highly reflective personal theorizing process, teachers' beliefs were made available for examination. The PPT process was applied in three steps.

In the first step, teachers attended a three-session workshop presented by the lead researcher on reflective practices, and specifically personal practical theorizing. PPTs were defined and several examples of different teachers' PPTs were presented based on the articles about PPTs by Cornett (1990). In between, the discussion sessions were held.

After the presentation, teachers were asked to reflect on and list their personal beliefs and to describe them in detail, including how they see each of their beliefs actualized in practice in the classroom.

Next, they were asked to identify the source(s) of each of their PPTs and were told that there may be more than one source for each PPT. Novice teachers were also asked to create a concept map to represent any connections among their PPTs in a visual manner. This process typically yielded between four and seven belief statements, and the details were illuminated through the discussion sessions.

The second stage included data gathering and self-analysis. Therefore, teachers could evaluate whether they felt they had good evidence of actually enacting their PPTs in their teaching. Specifically, teachers were asked to provide evidence of whether they carried out their PPTs in their practices, which might be evidenced in observation feedback provided by the researcher.

The third and final stage of the personal theorizing process required the teachers to plan and carry out action research related to one of their PPTs. In this stage, both novice and expert teachers were asked to find both empirical research and practical information related to one of their PPTs. It was suggested they could choose a PPT for which they did not have good evidence of being enacted but still believed in

strongly, or a PPT they really wanted to learn more about, especially for those where the researcher found discrepancy in implementing them in practice in the first study phase.

After completing the theorizing process, the teachers' practices were observed based on the observation checklist prepared and utilized in the first phase of the study, and the pedagogical practices were compared to those in the first phase.

Throughout the theorizing process, semi-structured in-depth interviews were used, and the teachers were allowed sufficient time and opportunity to think and respond to the questions in detail fully and freely. Through this the researchers could go beyond their viewpoints and learn about the teachers' typical practices.

In addition, the extensive notes taken during the theorizing process and class observations, the data obtained from the checklist, and the recorded videos were used to stimulate teachers' recall of the classroom events and explain their related beliefs. This was used to help cross-check the in-depth interview data and to remind the teachers of the different aspects of their beliefs and practices. To check the validity of the data and to prevent any misinterpretation because of the shortcomings of measurement through using a single tool, triangulation of the data was employed using multiple sources of data.

Data Analysis

The content of the interview sessions was recorded and transcribed for further analysis. The transcriptions were analyzed through a six-phase thematic analysis. According to Braun, Virginia and Clarke (2006), these phases are: familiarization with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes among codes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report. The generated themes corresponded to the main categories extracted from the questionnaire items and explained under those categories.

The data obtained from the interviews and classroom observations and the contents of teachers' PPTs were coded and condensed into categories through several iterations, as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). The process of data analysis began from the very first interview session between the lead researcher and the participants. Data generated in each phase through interviews, observations, or notes taken during the discussion sessions resulted in tentative findings, caused some minor changes to the subsequent observations and data generation. Therefore, the obtained data were adjusted as the new data were generated and tested against the emerging themes.

The study used the constant comparative technique, which is a major technique used in grounded theory. Charmaz (2000) describes this method in the following manner: The constant comparative technique means (a) comparing different people (such as their views, situations, actions, accounts, and experiences); (b) comparing data from the same individuals with themselves at different points in time; (c) comparing incident with incident; (d) comparing data with category; and (e) comparing a category with other categories (p. 515). Following Charmaz, in each interview session, the focus was on one participant at a time, comparing data taken from the questionnaire with the participants' statements in the interview, and their observed practices in the classroom. The participants' beliefs and practices were compared around the emerging themes and also between the expert and novice teachers. Finally, the emerging themes were compared to the final categories, which were comprised of classroom management and organization, motivation, assessment and teachers' knowledge.

Results and Discussion

Teachers' Initial Pedagogical Beliefs and Practices

Based on the conclusions obtained in the first phase of the study, there were discrepancies between novice teachers' beliefs and practices considering classroom management and organization, language

assessment, motivation and teachers' knowledge. However, the expert teachers showed a different pattern of beliefs and practices in light of the above mentioned components.

In the previous phase of the study, it was concluded that while both novice and expert teachers believed in classroom management and organization as a very important teaching component (novices=79% and experts=91%), the novice teachers could actualize 47% of their beliefs, while for the expert teachers, there seemed to be no discrepancy between their beliefs and practices. As far as classroom management is concerned, 85% (out of 90%) of the teachers' beliefs was actualized. The main differences between the expert and novice teachers' beliefs and practices about classroom management and organization were as follows:

- Contrary to the expert teachers' practices, there seemed to be no variety in classroom management techniques and approaches for the novice teachers.
- Expert teachers were more flexible in managing and engaging the learners.
- Expert and novice teachers conceptualized classroom management differently. For the novices, management equaled maintaining discipline, therefore causing insecure conditions for the learners, while for the expert teachers classroom management included, but was not limited to, discipline. For them the qualities of learners' engagement, the way they respond to the teachers' prompts which improve their learning were of utmost importance.

The other pedagogical component which was taken into account was language assessment. In the previous phase of the study, it was inferred that knowledge of assessment was perceived as a very important body of knowledge for language teachers, and the novice teachers believed strongly in language assessment (77%), though they could actualize a small portion of their beliefs (25%) in this regard. However, for the expert teachers, there seemed to be no discrepancy between their beliefs and practices. The main differences between the expert and novice teachers in terms of language assessment were the following:

- For the novice teachers, learners' evaluation was done through learners' responses to the grammatical exercises, their answers to questions posed on various topics, and their performance in final examinations, while the expert teachers made use of various assessment practices in accordance with learners' instructional levels.
- Novice teachers evaluated the learners' language skills discretely, while the experts evaluated learners' proficiency in a holistic manner.

With regard to novice and expert teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices on employing motivational strategies, it was concluded that there was no relationship between TB in motivating the learners and their practices. Although the novice and expert teachers strongly believed in motivation, the novices could put 33% of their beliefs into practice, and the expert teachers could put their beliefs into practice more successfully, though not yet at an acceptable level. Novices focused on motivating the learners explicitly and verbally, while the experienced teachers tried to do so through learning tasks by creating a learning environment, promoting autonomy among learners, and adjusting the motivational strategies to learners' characteristics.

Teachers' knowledge was another component which was taken into account in the first study phase. Based on the organizational framework described by Shulman (1986), teachers' knowledge was examined in terms of content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and pedagogical knowledge.

In the previous phase of the study, it was concluded that all the novice and expert teachers believed in the importance of content knowledge for a language teacher, and through the observations it was seen that all the teachers presented their expertise in the content they taught, and that no discrepancy was observed in novice and expert TB and practices in light of this aspect of knowledge.

However, the novice and expert teachers strongly believed in PCK (novices= 74%, experts= 91%), while in practice it was found that there was a discrepancy between the novice TB and practices. The novice teachers could actualize 36% of their beliefs, while for the expert teachers there seemed to be no discrepancy between their beliefs and practices. The main differences in their beliefs and practices regarding PCK for the expert and novice teachers were as follows:

- Expert teachers were able to employ practical instructional strategies in accordance with the specific content areas.
- Experts had elaborate knowledge of classroom events and situations to interpret the complexities of the events and choose the suitable instructional strategies, in comparison to novice teachers.
- Experts were more aware of affective factors, psychological traits, learners' learning styles, and learners' socio-cultural, economic and personal backgrounds.
- Expert teachers were aware of teaching and learning strategies, teaching methodologies and educational theories.

Although all the teachers, both novices and experts, believed in the importance of the pedagogical knowledge, the novice teachers did not have the necessary capability and experience in putting their beliefs into practice. The novices could actualize 52 % of their beliefs, while the experts were able to put almost all their beliefs into practice and actualized 96% of their beliefs. The main differences in their beliefs and practices regarding pedagogical knowledge for the expert and novice teachers were as follows:

- Experts made use of a variety of techniques in teaching new words and grammatical points in comparison to the novice teachers.
- Experts adjusted the teaching approaches to the learners' individual differences and matched them to their needs.
- Experts perceived the class as comprised of unique individuals.

In summary, as shown in Table 1, there were discrepancies between novice and experienced TB and their teaching practices in classroom management and organization, language assessment, employing motivational strategies, pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. However, there was almost no mismatch between TB and practices considering their content knowledge.

TABLE 1
Summary of Discrepancies between TB and Practices

	Management		Assessment		Motivation		Content knowledge		PCK		Pedagogical knowledge	
	Nov.	Exp.	Nov.	Exp.	Nov.	Exp.	Nov.	Exp.	Nov.	Exp.	Nov.	Exp.
TB	79	90.7	77	80	85.5	93.7	74	89.5	74.5	91.5	83.5	93.7
Practice	46.7	85.2	25	83.7	33	72	80	96.2	36.2	85.5	46.2	94.2

Features and Sources of Teachers' PPTs

Through the teachers' personal practical theorizing processes, the tentative categories underlying the participants' beliefs system which were made explicit in the form of PPTs were extracted. These categories include: disciplined and organized teaching, scientific thinking, developmental growth, the concept of language teaching, emphasis on learners' characteristics, the role of context, fostering communicative competence, and developing learners' autonomy.

During the theorizing process the teachers were asked to define the sources of each of the PPTs they theorized. The novice teachers referred to their experience as learners and the training sessions they

participated as the common sources of their pedagogical beliefs. For example, TA mentioned techniques used by his teachers during his experience of language learning and referred to them as his role models. DI and IZ referred to the materials presented in the training workshops at the beginning of their teaching practices. However, Tarone and Allwright (2005) believe that the content of teachers' education programs cannot be much helpful when novice teachers confront real classroom conditions.

However, in addition to their past experience, the expert teachers pointed to their own readings of the reliable materials, their own experiences in different classroom contexts, and their own deliberation over classroom events as being much more helpful than the training programs. Similarly, Shi and Cumming (1995) asserted that the knowledge guiding experienced teachers is mostly based on personal beliefs formed upon experience, reflection, and information. Richards and Lochhart (1994) enumerated four sources of beliefs of expert teachers, including teachers' past experience as students, experience with what works best in their classes, established practices within a school, personality factors of teachers, education based or research-based principles, and finally, the method-based sources of beliefs.

Teachers' Beliefs and Practices after Personal Practical Theorizing

Classroom management and organization

Considering the classroom management, the novice teachers attributed their inability to actualize their beliefs to two reasons, i.e., lack of experience and the content of the training courses. As observed, they tend to apply the "tried and true" strategies, as Allen (2009) stated, they acquired during their own schooling to manage the classroom. Moreover, in line with Putman (2009), the contents of the training course did not provide them with sufficient information about classroom management.

To decrease this discrepancy, four challenges must be taken into account (Wright, 2005). According to Wright, to enter into the professional development path, novice teachers must oppose the classroom management models they internalized due to their experience as learners. Later they have to learn classroom management strategies to know how to control the students. Thirdly, after gaining confidence to form their self-image and teaching style, they have to cling to routines to manage and organize the classroom. To this end, after determining the teachers' PPTs on classroom management, novice teachers referred to different sources in the reflective practice and the follow-up action research. Leaner-centered approaches, student-oriented model introduced by Gordon (1975), and group-oriented models proposed by Dreikurs, Grunwalk, and Pepper (1982) and Lewis (2001) were discussed.

In comparison to the initial phase of the study, the novice teachers' classroom management practices improved in the following ways:

- They managed classrooms in a way that their learners felt safe and comfortable in fulfilling the task within an appropriate time span.
- They valued learners' engagement and managed the task sequence based on learners' needs and, contextual differences, in line with Zuckerman's (2007) management strategies and Deaton's (2013) student-centered classroom management approach.
- They established a management system, maintained order and discipline in the classroom, and encouraged group work, while, defining learners' roles in groups, which were indicative of group management or teacher influence models proposed by Lewis (2001).
- They defined responsibility for learners to place the burden of classroom management on learners' shoulders. This is in line with the definition of effective classroom management suggested by Froyen and Iverson (1999) and Marzano (2011).

Furthermore, in their PPTs and classroom practices, the expert teachers were found to

- value the teachers' authority, as represented in the form of teachers' knowledge and the presentation of instructional activities based on a well-designed curriculum. Similarly, Bransford et al. (2005) referred to "solid and meaningful curriculum" as the starting point for effective classroom management (p. 37).

- provide opportunities for students' negotiations to have a voice in classroom interactions and decision making. Pace (2003) stated that "accommodation and friendly relations that acknowledge students' autonomy offset the tacit traditional authority manifested in teachers' approach to curriculum (p. 1579).

- provide a "respectful, welcoming and comfortable" environment, as Deaton (2013) explained, where the students feel ownership in the classroom.

Motivation

According to Dörnyei (2007), Rosenshine and Furst (1971) and Cruickshank (1980), one of the most important motivational strategies teachers can employ is showing enthusiasm through their behavior. In exploring the teachers' PPTs, it was seen that BAZ as an expert teacher believed that 'teachers must be devoted to the profession'. He maintained that 'when teachers are eager to teach and share their knowledge', they can be effective and serve as a role model for their students to be motivated. The other expert teachers such as PA and SH also stated that teachers can be inspiring and motivating through how they present the learning tasks.

Carpenter (2011) concluded that the teachers can be motivating when they have expertise in the subject area, support learner autonomy, show empathy, demonstrate enthusiasm, and provide instructional clarity. From examining teachers' beliefs through their PPTs, it can be concluded that teachers such as BAZ, GH and SH showed empathy through their awareness of the learners' needs and how they designed the tasks to satisfy their needs. Similarly, PA declared that learners become motivated through the structure of the learning tasks and the activities which are designed based on their specific personal characteristics and needs. Moreover, the main concepts of PA's theories such as 'well designed activities, total engagement, multiple formats of the activities', as well as GH's theories involving 'appropriate communicative tasks', and BAZ's theories concerning 'meaningful input relevant to the context', all are instances of instructional clarity discussed by Carpenter (2011).

Also, the novice teachers frequently referred to motivation as a determining factor. TA theorized that 'learning is a function of motivation', DI valued learners' motivation and satisfaction in his PPTs, and IZ believed in 'motivating the learners as the responsibility of the teacher'. Therefore, all the teachers believed in the role of motivation in their PPTs; however, as seen in the first study phase, the novice teachers were not very adroit in putting their beliefs into practice. As a result, it was concluded that teachers must reflect on their PPTs and foster their ideas through action research, as mentioned in the study design.

After the theorizing process, the teachers were guided to conduct action research on the motivational strategies frameworks presented by Dörnyei (1994, 2001), Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), Ruesch, Bown, and Dewey (2012), and Guilloteaux (2013), and their findings were discussed in a meeting. After the discussion sessions their practices were observed based on Dörnyei's (2001) framework for motivational strategies. Dörnyei categorizes motivational strategies in the language classroom into four groups: "creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive self-evaluation" (p. 21).

To create the basic motivational conditions, in the discussion sessions the teachers became aware of the importance of their behavior and relationships with the students, a supportive classroom atmosphere and cohesive group activities. Both the novice and expert teachers tried to show enthusiasm and commitment in learning. They interacted with their students based on mutual respect, cared for their learning, and showed positive attitudes toward them. The novice teachers were found to manage the classroom in a manner to lower students' anxiety. IZ, DI and BA were seen explicitly recommending that the students be

confident and supported them in adopting risk taking behavior. They made use of humor to provide a comfortable learning atmosphere. Moreover, group activities were seen more frequently in novice teachers' classes. To do so, they defined the goal of each activity, set the time and specified the students' role in each group, and monitored their activities to foster their cooperation. As they mentioned, the cooperative activities increased learners' self-confidence. Through group activities it was observed that the students developed more friendly relationships by having enough contact and interaction, and they could know about each other, which in turn led to lower anxiety and a more comfortable learning environment.

Based on the framework presented by Dörnyei (2001), after establishing the motivational conditions, the teachers were required to motivate their learners through interesting contents and appealing activities. Through classroom observations, it was seen that the novice teachers made use of activities adjusted to learners' proficiency level to ensure their confidence and success in doing the activities and to help them attain intrinsic motivation. Also, the warm-up and pre-task activities were designed in an interesting manner, employing the topics relevant to learners' interests and personal backgrounds. Furthermore, the teachers were aware of the learners' needs in learning English; therefore, the contents were prepared in line with their expectations.

Once motivation is generated in the classroom, the teachers must maintain and protect it. According to Sekulić (2014), teachers have to make use of stimulating and enjoyable tasks, "break the monotony of learning in the sense of varying linguistic focus of tasks, channels of communication, and organizational format of learning" (p. 2). After the theorizing process, the novice teachers were seen making use of challenging, interesting and relevant tasks. The contents of the textbook were not presented in a fixed and routine manner as was done in the initial study phase; however, they related the contents to the students' interests through asking about their ideas and encouraging them to write about their personal memories. Moreover, the supplementary contents were not too difficult but adjusted to their age, interest and level, and were presented in a competitive manner. In addition, the teachers were seen to present these contents in a motivating manner by explaining the objectives of each lesson and the functions they have in real-life contexts. Overall, the use of related videos, Internet sites, and authentic clips were observed more in novice teachers' classrooms.

The last stage of the motivational process is the learners' self-evaluation of their own practices. According to Sekulić (2014), learners have to assess their performance in a particular activity and determine their success and failure as a prerequisite for future actions. The novice teachers made use of the teachers' feedback to encourage learners to become aware of their improvements in language learning. TA and BA were seen preparing a portfolio for each student to make them cognizant of their potentials, achievements and progress. IZ and DI talked to each student individually, and prepared self-assessment sheets for them based on the objectives of each lesson. The expert teachers, in addition to these activities, used the tests results in a more sophisticated manner to encourage the learners and make them aware of their success or failure. They reminded the learners that their success is attributed to their abilities and their failure is due to lack of sufficent effort. BAZ also made use of grades and rewards to motivate the learners.

Teachers' knowledge

In the first phase, no discrepancy was seen in teachers' beliefs about content knowledge and their respective practices. Therefore, the teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), as an essential component of teachers' knowledge, as discussed by Deng, Feng, Ying and Chen (2014), and pedagogical knowledge (PK) were taken into account.

Through the process of theorizing and the follow-up reflection and action research, the participants were found learning about teachers' knowledge and the essential components of PCK, according to Shulman (1986, 1987), the characteristics of effective teachers considering teachers' PCK based on König et al. (2011, 2014), and the development of teachers' pedagogical knowledge, according to Lundeberg and

Scheurman (1997), Lewis et al. (2012), Dudley (2013), Saito and Atencio (2013), and Xu (2015). Moreover, in the meetings and seminars the different representations of PK and PCK in teaching practices were discussed according to the following procedure. Firstly, the basic steps of lesson planning, task phases (for example, warm-up, pre-task, task and post-task cycle), teachers' types of interactions and questioning techniques, the Presentation-Practice-Production cycle and its variations, Ethe ngagement-Study-Activate (ESA) cycle of teaching, and the structure of text books were discussed. Secondly, knowledge of practical techniques, variety in classroom activities, and adjusting the instructional design to real contexts were discussed. Finally, a holistic view of teaching practices, the role of context and individual variations, and the effects of learners' cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds were also explicated.

In comparison to the initial study phase, the novice teachers were seen making use of a variety of teaching techniques in teaching specific contents such as grammatical points and vocabulary items, adjusting their teaching method to a variety of learners, and gaining knowledge of instructional practices in presenting specific teaching contents. After the discussion sessions, BA attested that 'through this process, besides learning about different techniques, I figured out, I have to find a reason for employing a specific technique'. Also, TA talked about the 'mental quest he engaged in before presenting an activity'. It can be concluded that they learnt "why's behind the how's" as mentioned by Xu (2015) (p. 186). Moreover, the novice teachers were seen becoming aware that teaching is not "a simple delivery of information or transmitting knowledge" as mentioned by DI. They found how to present learning activities such that they could facilitate learning and increase the learners' comprehension. Hsu (2015) emphasized that for the teachers to be effective, they have to structure and facilitate the learning opportunities in comprehensible ways for their learners. Moreover, Carlsen, Sullivan, and Schneider (1989) and Hashweh (1986) maintained that the teacher's important area of PCK is choosing different methods for better comprehension of the learners.

The novice teachers made much progress in not teaching in a formulaic manner based on textbook procedures and improved in employing learning strategies. They were found to be aware of the linguistic and communicative objectives of each lesson and aligned all teaching techniques with the lesson objectives to meet learners' needs and increase their academic achievements.

Also, BA and DI believed in the "kind of cohesion" between the learning activities in the textbook and they emphasized that the teachers' duty must be determining the task objectives. For instance, DI stated:

> We mostly focused on the various components of a lesson and, more importantly, how they're related to each other. … However, we also need to learn how each component should specifically be addressed.

This is in line with Xu's (2015) study according to which the novice teachers' awareness of concrete objectives was raised after reflective practices employed in the form of a lesson activity. They knew how to localize the textbook structure with the learners' needs and preferences.

However, the expert teachers, in addition to employing all these techniques, paid more attention to learners' socio-economic backgrounds, preferences and characteristics. They were aware of the individual differences and the contextual variability. They designed the learning tasks based upon the context where the learners were expected to use their language. Moreover, the expert teachers paid attention to the psychological factors and the typical psychological development of the learners. Sellars (2012) believed that to be effective teachers need to recognize more than their learners' background and learning preferences; however, they need to "take effective, positive action in the classroom context to improve the educational outcomes for their students" (p. 461).

The higher-level thinking and reflective practices observed in experts' practices were due to their experience because PCK comes with experience. The experts were seen to be more adroit in stepping forward and criticizing the textbook structure, adding some parts and deleting others, and creating supplementary activities to meet learners' needs. Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (1989) emphasized the

expert teachers' ability to "critique textbooks, select material to teach, structure the courses and the way to conduct instruction" (p. 28). The expert teachers tried to foster high levels of academic and intellectual potentials in learners and provide teaching techniques for lifelong learning.

Overall, comparing the teachers' practices in the second study phasewith those in the first phase, it was seen that the novice teachers progressed in actualizing their pedagogical beliefs. For more illumination, teachers' practices in both the first and second phase of the study are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Novice Teachers' Observed Practices Before and After the Theorizing Process

	Management		Motivation		PCK		Pedagogical knowledge	
	Pre.	Post	Pre.	Post	Pre.	Post	Pre.	Post
Practice	46.7	82.5	33	89	36.2	85	46.2	91

Teachers' Professional Development

To explore the path of teachers' professional development, the starting point is the teachers' problem awareness, as Fuller (1969) and Fuller and Bown (1975) stated. Secondly, their pedagogical concerns must be detected, and their development must be evaluated based on the changes in their teaching concerns. Therefore, firstly, the participants of this study became aware of the discrepancies between their beliefs and practices through the procedures conducted in the first phase of the study. They became aware that they could not actualize all their beliefs into practice and that their practices were much different from those of the experts. Then their concerns changed during the theorizing process, as their practices were explicated regarding different aspects of their pedagogical practices in the second study phase, after the theorizing process.

Fuller (1969) suggested a four-stage model of teacher development that focused on teachers' concerns. The focus of the first stage is on classroom management as awareness of the need to control a class of students. The second stage regards concerns for survival, which include class control, mastery of content to be taught, and the teachers' own adequacy in fulfilling his/her role. According to Fuller (1969) and Kagan (1992), the third stage comprises a turn in teachers' concerns in teaching performance and the limitations and frustrations of teaching situations. Later, Fuller and Bown (1975) considered adding a fourth stage. In this stage, as the teacher becomes more competent, the emphasis shifts to more serious concerns related to teaching and learning. They argued that the teachers' concerns concentrate on the students, their social, academic and emotional needs and, as Kagan (1992) stated, the teachers' ability to relate to learners as individuals appears in the fourth stage. As can be seen, in this model the nature of teachers' concerns changes from concerns about the self to concerns about the learners. Katz (1972) identified the stages suggested by Fuller as survival, consolidation, renewal, and maturity.

Considering the novice teachers' beliefs system and practices, in the initial phase, it was seen that the novice teachers did not possess the requisite knowledge of classroom procedurse and the relationship between management and learning tasks. For them, as Britt (1997) mentioned, time management and discipline were of priority. Examining the contents of the theories produced by the novice teachers revealed that they attempted to establish classroom organization in terms of an acceptable degree of discipline, covering the required materials on time, maintaining the flow of activity, and ensuring learners' achievements. In line with the results obtained in studies such as Woods (1991), Richards (1996) and Akyel (1997), the novice teachers lacked the practical knowledge to deal with the realities of the classroom; therefore, they were more concerned with maintaining order and the flow of activities. The novice teachers' practices in this phase of the study were in line with the first and second phases proposed by Fuller (1969).

However, gradually, the novice teachers were engaged in learning, which caused a change in their belief systems and practices, as explained regarding the different aspects of their pedagogical beliefs. According to Freeman (1989), novice teachers' beliefs change gradually over time, and this necessitates

teachers' self-assessment and reflection over their beliefs and practice. Erkmen (2014) emphasized the role of workshops in raising awareness among novice teachers of their beliefs and practices. This reflection and deliberation were done through the theorizing process. At this point, similar to the third phase of development mentioned by Fuller (1969), the novice teachers became aware of the discrepancies between their beliefs and practices and their frustration compared to expert teachers' practices.

Being socialized to the profession, the novice teachers start forming the "self-as-teacher" as referred to by Farrell (2003), by which they make an attempt to adopt a new identity as a real teacher within the classroom environment. Because of their prior knowledge in the form of apprenticeship observation and other sources of beliefs, they held assumptions, beliefs and knowledge about teaching and learning. Developing their PPTs in this study and pondering on them caused the novice teachers to make progress in converging their beliefs and practices, become more competent in teaching practices, and enter into a state of maturity in teaching, as identified by Katz (1972).

Conclusion

In response to the first research question, in the initial study phase it was concluded that compared to the expert teachers, there were discrepancies between novice TB and their practices in classroom management and organization, language assessment, employing motivational strategies, PCK and pedagogical knowledge. However, after the theorizing process it was observed that the novice teachers' practices in classroom management, motivation, PCK and pedagogical knowledge became more in line with their pedagogical beliefs. Therefore, in response to the second research question, it can be stated that the personal practical theorizing technique was a useful method in improving novice teachers' pedagogical beliefs enactment.

For the third research question, which addressed the differences between novice and expert teachers' professional development, it was concluded that the novice teachers were initially concerned with maintaining order and flow of activities. Through self-assessment and reflection, novice teachers were engaged in the theorizing process and became aware of their frustration in actualizing their beliefs compared to the expert teachers. Then the novice teachers, being oriented to the profession, made an attempt to adopt new identities as real teachers within the classroom environment, which enabled them to converge their beliefs and practices, become more competent in teaching practices, and enter into a state of maturity in teaching. Finally, the novice teachers were overwhelmed with a feeling of confidence and security, possessing a good command of teaching activities and focusing more on student-cantered practice.

Based on the results of the study, several implications for language teacher education programs can be inferred. Teachers need to become aware of their beliefs system and their abilities in enacting their beliefs. Personal practical theorizing techniques can be a useful method in raising teachers' awareness and their pedagogical beliefs enactment. A professional community must support teachers in developing their theories and helping them practice their theories instead of being the practitioners of others' theories. These implications are linked through a view of the teacher as an autonomous individual able to understand theory and practice, as evidenced by the ability to articulate and integrate them in a personal practical theory reflected in effective classroom practices. Moreover, reports of teachers' classroom thinking and their personal practical theories might help other teachers and especially student teachers identify possibilities for action in their own classroom contexts.

Acknowledgements

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