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YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI

MOTIVATION LEVELS OF IN-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS: FROM TRADITION TO CHANGE

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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ÖZET

HİZMET-İÇİ EĞİTİM ALMIŞ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN MOTİVASYON DÜZEYLERİ: GELENEKSELDEN DEĞİŞİME

YILMAZ, Hande
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Literatürde, hizmet-içi öğretmen eğitimi programlarına yönelik pek çok araştırma bulunmaktadır. Ancak, hizmet-içi eğitim alan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin motivasyonları ile ilgili çalışmaların sayısı oldukça sınırlıdır. Bu çalışma, yaş, cinsiyet, mezun olunan en yüksek kademe, mezuniyet alanı, mesleki deneyim, hizmet-içi eğitimin türü, çalışılan okul türü ve kademesi, hizmet-içi eğitim konuları, hizmet-içi eğitimin alındığı ülke ve hizmet-içi eğitimden haberdar oluş biçimi gibi bazı değişkenlerin etkisi altında yurt içinde ya da dışında hizmet-içi eğitim alan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin çalışma motivasyonlarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmada, Türkiyedeki 130 hizmet-içi eğitim almış İngilizce öğretmeni katılımcı olarak yer almıştır. Çalışmada, hizmet-içi kurs katılım ölçeği ve öğretme motivasyonu ölçeğinin harmanlanmış hali olan bir anket, veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır. Veri analizinde, değişkenler ve anketin maddeleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek üzere, bağımsız örneklem t-testi ve ANOVA kullanılmıştır. Bulgular, öğretmenlerin hizmet-içi eğitim şekillerinden kısa eğitim kursları ve öğretmenlik uygulaması gibi en pratik versiyonlarını tercih etmesinin yanı sıra, öğretim becerileri, yaratıcılık, çocuklara yabancı dil öğretimi ve kelime öğretimi gibi alanlardan en fazla yararlandıklarını göstermektedir. Ayrıca, yüksek maliyet ve sınırlı okul desteği kurs katılımında önemli engeller olarak değerlendirilirken, devlet okullarında çalışan ve kadın öğretmenlerin öğretmeye daha motive olduğu bulunmuştur. Sonuç olarak, kursları kendi okulunda ya da Türkiyede alan öğretmenler, katılımcılar ve kursiyer-kurs veren arası iletişimin yetersiz olduğu, İngilizce yeterlilikleri ve çevrelerini geliştirememe ve yeterince izleme desteği

alamama gibi konulardan yakınsalar da, hizmet-içi eğitim kursları genelde öğretmenlerin, özellikle özel okulda çalışan öğretmenlerin beklentilerini karşılamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı Dil, Motivasyon, İngilizce Öğretmenleri, Hizmet-içi Eğitim, Öğretmenler.

ABSTRACT

MOTIVATION LEVELS OF IN-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS: FROM TRADITION TO CHANGE

YILMAZ, Hande

Master's Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching

Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fatih YAVUZ

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Many studies are available in terms of in-service teaching training programmes in the literature, but studies on the motivation levels of in-service English teachers are quite limited. This study aims to find out the motivation levels of in-service English teachers taking trainings in Turkey and abroad under the effect of variables such as age, gender, the highest degree held by teachers, the subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, in-service training course forms, school degrees and school types where teachers work, in-service training course topics, countries where in-service training courses are held and ways of finding in-service training courses. 130 in-service EFL teachers in Turkey took part in the study as participants. A questionnaire that was a blended version of two scales; an INSET course participation survey and a motivation to teach scale was used to collect data. T-test and ANOVA were used to determine the relationship between the variables and questionnaire items in the data analysis process. The findings demonstrate that while teachers pick the practical forms of in-service training courses such as short training courses and teaching practice more, they utilize the subject areas directly related to ELT, such as teaching skills, creativity, teaching young learners and teaching vocabulary the most. It is also found that female and public school teachers are more motivated to teach, while high cost and limited school support are evaluated as the major obstacles for participation in the courses. As a result, in-service training courses meet the expectations of teachers, especially private school teachers in general, although teachers taking courses in their own school and Turkey complain about insufficient peer interaction, little trainer-participant communication, not being able to improve their English proficiencies and enlarge their networks and getting follow-up support.

Key Words: Foreign Language, Motivation, English Teachers, In-service Training, Teachers.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents who are ready to support me
whenever I need…

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMTB   **:** Attitude and Motivation Test Battery

ANOVA   **:** Analysis of Variance

ARCS   **:** Attention Relevance Confidence and Satisfaction

AUCOE   **:** Assiut University College of Education

BA   **:** Bachelor

CALL   **:** Computer-assisted Language Learning

CET   **:** Cognitive Evaluation Theory

DIME   **:** Diagnostic Instrument for the measurement of English

EFL   **:** English as a Foreign Language

ELT   **:** English Language Teaching

ELTR   **:** English Language Teaching Reforms

FSVL   **:** Five Step Vocabulary Learning

HEC   **:** Higher Education Commission

IAPE   **:** Inter- American Partnership for Education

ICT   **:** Information and Communications Technologies

IMT   **:** Intrinsic Motivation Inventory

INSET   **:** In-service training

IT   **:** Information Technology

L1   **:** First Language

L2   **:** Second Language

PD   **:** Professional Development

PET   : Preliminary English Test

PhD   : Philosophy of Doctorate

SDT   : Self Determination Theory

SPSS   : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TTC   : Teacher Training Course

TPB   : Theory of Planned Behavior

WTC   : Willingness to Communicate

1. INTRODUCTION

This section is composed of the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study and research questions. Problems are examined under three titles as problems in Turkish EFL context, problems related to EFL teachers' motivation levels and problems related to in-service teacher training programmes in EFL context.

1.1. Problem

Problems will be addressed under three titles, as problems in Turkish EFL context, problems related to EFL teachers' motivation levels and problems related to in-service teacher training programmes in EFL context.

1.1.1. Problems in Turkish EFL Context

A relationship exists in the triangle of EFL elements. These elements are learners, teachers and curricular concepts which compose the cornerstones of ELT. There are various problems related to learners, teachers and curriculum in EFL in Turkish context. The problems related to learners have a direct relationship with their motivation for learning English, their readiness and backgrounds. As Genc and Aydin (2017) state, learners' attitudes towards the language itself, the teacher, the course in general, one's classmates, the course materials, and extra-curricular activities associated with the course shape their motivation. Second, the problems related to teachers are caused by their motivation levels to teach English, working conditions, institutional factors and needs for professional development roughly. In other words, factors such as teaching profession, curriculum, working conditions, students and their parents, colleagues and school administrators, and physical conditions may lead demotivation of EFL teachers in Turkey (Aydın, 2012). Besides these, problems related to curriculum include changing education policies, constraints of coursebook and coursebook usage, lacking sides of English teaching programme and inadequacy of English lessons.

1.1.2. Problems Related to EFL Teachers' Motivation Levels

Teachers are motivated by the factors related to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. While intrinsic motivation refers to inner psychological motives such as loving the job for its joy, considering teaching as its own reward and feeling a personal commitment and satisfaction towards teaching, extrinsic motivation refers to external elements such as requirements of job, choosing a job for its career opportunities or loving a job for its benefits in terms of salary, status or respect. While teachers have general problems concerning motivation such as working conditions related to their institutions, working in an advantaged or disadvantaged region, the readiness of their students to learn, salaries and professional development opportunities, English teachers have other problems. The problems of English teachers can be counted as problems related to their institution, problems related to their region, problems related to teaching English and problems related to their professional development opportunities. First, they encounter problems related to their own instution opportunities such as having a special language classroom, their relationship with their colleagues and school principal, the integrity of the classes with technological equipment and the readiness and eagerness of their students. Second, they face problems related to their region depending on a developed or underdeveloped region especially in countries like Turkey, where there are huge differences between urban and rural areas. According to Gao and Yu (2014), there are gaps between actual and ideal selves of teachers. Teachers working in underdeveloped regions cannot attain opportunities they wish, which damages their motivation to teach. Third, they face problems related to teaching English such as lacking English lessons, inadequate authentic English materials, the differences in learners' proficiency level of English and limited opportunity for exposing their learners to the target language. Last, they face problems related to professional development such as finding in-service teacher training courses, the cost of those in-service teacher training courses, the contents of in-service teacher training courses and getting follow up support from those in-service courses. Teachers may feel especially demotivated when they face reluctant colleagues and administrators in the implementation of what they learn from in-service training courses considering the time spent and the effort made (Dede et al., 2009).

1.1.3. Problems Related to In-service Teacher Training Programmes in EFL Context

The problems of in-service teacher training courses are presented in four categories as general problems, the problems in the design of in-service training courses, the problems in the implementation of in-service teacher training programmes and the problems which in-service course trainers face. Osamwonyi (2016) presents a frame for the general problems of in-service teacher training programmes as follows: First, in-service training courses are extremely intense and teachers have difficulty in affording those courses. Second, inadequate time is one of the crucial problems in designing the activities and including the teachers. Third, poor planning in the organization of the activities exists as a problem. Fourth, there are insufficient facilities to accommodate many teachers. Fifth, there are variations between institutions in terms of approaches and techniques applied. In addition, there are also problems in the design of in-service training courses as Güngör (2017) states that in-service teacher training programmes suffer from insufficient collaboration and reflection of teachers. Traditional methods used for in-service training programmes such as "one-shot", "top-down" and "transmission-based" or methods including video conferences are not rich enough to meet the needs of many EFL teachers with different backgrounds. Moreover, insufficient professional staff, no provision for feedback and no systematic in-service training model present further problems in designing in-service training courses (Bayrakci,2009). Third, problems are faced in the implementation of in-service training programmes on teaching environment. These problems include physical deficiencies such as classroom space and inadequate materials and cultural deficiencies like lack of interest and insufficient collaboration between teachers. Last, in-service trainers also face problems such as catering for affective needs, coaching a broad range of participants, interpreting contextual variables and providing follow up support to teachers (O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2015).

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study has several purposes. First, it aims to explore the effect of in-service teacher training programmes taken by Turkish EFL teachers. Second, it aims

to find out what factors influence their motivation. For that reason, possible factors are examined as age, gender, the highest degree held by teachers, the subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, in-service training course forms, school degrees, school types, in-service training course topics, countries where in-service teacher training courses are held and ways of finding in-service training courses. Finally, it explores the relationships between these variables and the motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey. The significance of the study is also discussed.

1.3. Significance of the Study

There are several factors that make the current study significant. Firstly, it contributes to the related literature in terms of revealing the motivation of in-service English teachers in Turkey and enlightening the factors affecting their motivation levels such as age, gender, the highest degree held by teachers, the subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, in-service training course forms, school degrees, school types, in-service training course topics, countries where in-service teacher training courses are held and ways of finding in-service training courses. Second, this study is significant as it also contributes to the related literature in Turkish EFL context in terms of examining rare factors such as countries where in-service training courses take place, ways of finding those courses and making a comparison of public and state school teachers in a detailed way. In addition, such studies making a deep analysis of many factors in terms of revealing motivation of in-service English teachers in Turkey are inadequate. Third, it is significant as it makes practical recommendations for policy makers and curriculum developers who are responsible for organizing in-service teacher training courses.

1.4. Research Questions

As explained above, there are various problems affecting the motivation of EFL teachers. These are listed as problems related to their institution, problems related to their region, problems related to teaching English and problems related to their professional development opportunities. In addition, there are problems related to in-service teacher training programmes in EFL context such as general problems, the problems in the design of in-service training courses, the problems in the implementation of in-service teacher training programmes and the problems which

in-service course trainers face. Combining both motivation of EFL teachers in Turkey and in-service teacher training programmes, two research questions were asked in this study. These are:

1. Do in-service teacher training programmes affect the motivation of English teachers in Turkey?

2. What factors affect the motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey in terms of age, gender, the highest degree held by teachers, the subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, in-service training course forms, school degrees, school types, in-service training course topics, countries where in-service teacher training courses are held and ways of finding in-service training courses?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of this study. First, the sample includes only 130 English teachers working in İstanbul and some other cities of Turkey. Second, a dominance of female English teachers exists in the population of the participants, which reflects the general frame of gender distribution among EFL teachers in Turkey. Third, the focus of the research is confined to dependent variables. Last, the data collected is limited to an INSET course participation survey (Yan and He, 2015) and a motivation to teach scale (Kauffman, Soylu and Duke, 2011).

1.6. Definitions of the Study

Adaptive Motivation: The type of motivation based on the feeling of adaptivity.

Amotivation: The state of showing no motivation towards something.

Attribution Theory: The theory based on the attributions of individuals to the outcomes in the cases of failure and success

Cognitive Evaluation theory: The theory affecting the factors of intrinsic motivation.

Demotivation: Loss of motivation after a period of time.

English as a Foreign Language: The use or study of English in countries where English is not native language or one of the official languages.

English Language Teaching: The practice of learning and teaching English.

Expectancy-value Theory: The theory explaining the effects of choice, persistence and performance on motivation.

Extrinsic Motivation: The type of motivation which is under the effect of external factors.

Follow-up support: Being followed by an institution over a period of time after taking a service or a training.

Goal Theory: The theory focusing the goals on motivation

In-service teacher trainining: A form of training targeting the teachers.

Instrumental motivation: The type of motivation based on pragmatic issues.

Integrative motivation: Learning a language with the wish of being integrated into the culture of the target language.

Intrinsic motivation: The type of motivation whose source is based on inner attributions.

Keller's ARCS Model: A model organizing strategies for motivation based on attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction.

Maslow's need Theory: The motivation theory based on the needs of individuals in a hierarchy.

Motivation: A sense, desire to take an action and start doing something.

Off-work Training: Being trained in any other place apart from work.

On-the-job Training: Being trained at the place of work.

Outdoor Learning: Learning taking place outdoors.

Personal Causation Theory: The theory based on the components of freedom, choice and commitment.

Self-determination theory: The theory emphasizing human development through self-potential.

Self-efficacy beliefs: Beliefs based on someone's own capacity to learn.

Socio-educational model: The model which is a combination of learning situation attitudes along with instrumental and integrative abilities.

Statistical Package for Social Sciences: Computer software used for statistical analysis.

Teaching motivation: Motivation concerning the motives of teachers.

The Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: A motivation model based on global motivation, life context and situational motivation.

The Socio-educational Model: A model developed for second language acquisition and its components.

The Theory of Planned Behavior: The theory based on intentions and beliefs behid the behaviors.

The Time Continuum Model: A model on the motivation of learners for lessons regarding a period of time.

The trans-Contextual Model: An integrated model of self-determination theory, theory of planned behavior and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

2. RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of two sections as "Theoretical Framework" and "Literature Review". The first section firstly introduces motivation and theories in relation to motivation. Then, it presents teaching motivation and explains the relationship between motivation and foreign language learning and teaching. The second section-literature review- puts forward detailed information about research on motivation in foreign language learning, research on motivation in foreign language teaching, research on the relationship between motivation and in-service teacher training programs and lastly research on the relationship between motivation and in-service teacher training programs in the ELT settings in Turkey.

2.1. Theoretical Framework / Background

In this part of related literature, after reviewing motivation in general, motivation types will be explained as amotivation, demotivation, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation and adaptive motivation. In addition, theories in relation to motivation will be examined in details under the titles of self-determination theory, cognitive evaluation theory, Maslow's need theory, attribution theory, personal causation theory, theory of planned behavior, the trans-contextual model, expectancy-value theory, goal theory, socio-educational model, Keller's ARCS model, time continuum model and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Last, it deals with teaching motivation along with the relationship between motivation and foreign language learning and teaching.

2.1.1. Motivation

In a general sense, motivation can be defined as a sense of motion which makes us take an action. Either it can be a daily urge to do something or it can be a powerful stimulus such as enabling to learn a language. As Wlodkowski (1984: 12) says:

> Most psychologists and educators use motivation as a word to describe those processes that can a) arouse and instigate behavior; b)

give direction and purpose to behavior; c) continue to allow the behavior to persist; d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behavior.

Ames (1990) also adds that motivation is the intensity, direction and duration of behavior. Thus, motivation is not only the urge to start a behavior but it also comprises the frequency of repetitions and the period of time during which the behavior is observed. However, a distinction should be made about the term "motivation" between general psychology and L2 motivation. Motivational psychologists focus on the 'motors' of human behaviors such as instinct, drive, arousal and need, rather than 'the individual'. On the other hand, L2 motivation deals with several complex factors such as different personality traits and social components (Dörnyei, 1994). Even some other concepts like intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, classroom climate, self-confidence, group cohesion and feedback are related with L2 motivation.

According to Kober and Usher (2012), there are four major factors inseparable from motivation. These are (a) competence, (b) autonomy/control, (c) interest / value and d) relatedness. Competence means the belief that we can manage to do something. In other words, learners should believe that they have the capacity to complete the task, which allows them to develop self-confidence. We need to see a direct link between the actions and the outcome along with the autonomy of choosing whether to complete the task or how to complete it. Autonomy refers to the right of learners to engage in the task and finish it. They engage in an activity only by seeing a direct link between the task and the outcome; this is known as "control". Interest and value refer to learners finding the task sufficiently enjoyable and valuable to make an effort. We cannot definitely finish a task without having any interest and finding it "valuable" to finish. In other words, we should know that the task is worth completing. Lastly, relatedness refers to the notion that completing the task will bring us a reward, such as an approval from a social context or belonging to a social group.

2.1.2. Types of Motivation

Motivation can be thought as intrinsic and extrinsic along with a mode of amotivation, which means having no kind of feelings toward an activity either in a positive or negative sense. Other types of motivation such as integrative, instrumental and adaptive are somehow blended forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations at different levels (Yilmaz and Yavuz, 2017).

2.1.2.1. Amotivation

Amotivation is defined as the absence of motivation and is mostly observed when an individual lacks willingness or intention to engage in a specific activity (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Ntoumanis, 2005). Amotivation results from four types of behaviors. The first one is the lack of ability to perform an activity and the second one is the belief that the adopted strategies will not lead to the aimed outcomes. Others are the beliefs that the activity is too difficult to finish and revealing the best potential of oneself is not enough to gain competence in an activity (Barkoukis et al, 2008). According to Ntoumanis et al. (2004), helplessness beliefs, personal concerns and contextual factors play a major role in amotivation. First, helplessness beliefs refer to low effort beliefs, low strategy beliefs and low capacity beliefs. In low effort beliefs, one thinks that the activity is not worth making an effort for due to its not being attractive. Low strategy belief refers to the belief that one cannot reach the desired outcome. In low capacity beliefs, individuals do not believe that they have the potential power to be able to finish the activity. Second, personal concerns are about individual factors depending on the psychology of them such as getting on well with other team members in an activity, feeling positive about the teacher who leads the activity or revising the role of oneself in an activity in a positive or negative way. Last, contextual factors are concerned with general climate and rules of the activity. Individuals can be affected by teaching and learning climate or issues about curriculum because of these factors.

2.1.2.2. Demotivation

Demotivation is identified as a decline or drop in the level of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). It is not the loss of interest over a period of time like amotivation

indeed; it is not based on any kind of internal factors, but is directly connected with external triggers at the beginning of the process (Falout et al., 2009). According to Falout et al, demotivating factors are divided into three categories as external conditions of the learning, internal conditions of the learner and reactive behaviors. First, external factors are some experiences about the teacher and all factors related to teachers. Second, internal conditions represent inner processes causing demotivation such as self-blame and loss of confidence. Last, reactive behaviors include strategies used to prevent demotivation such as self-regulated learning strategies or seeking help to avoid demotivation. Similarly, Trang and Baldauf (2007) categorize demotivation under two main headings as internal and external attributions. For them, learners' attitudes towards learning, their experiences of success or failure and factors related to their self-esteem belong to internal attributions. On the other hand, factors related to teachers, learning environment and curriculum pertain to external attributions. Learners can remotivate themselves either by removing their past demotivation and putting blame on factors apart from themselves, which keeps their self-esteem high or by using self-regulated strategies such as setting goals, finding resources and making themselves more adapted towards the activities (Falout et al, 2009).

2.1.2.3. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation can be defined as an individual's motivation and engagement in an activity for its own sake without the effect of any kind of external factors (Deci, 1975). Interest, curiosity, freedom from any kind of control and pressure, self-esteem, lack of worry are among the factors directly shaping intrinsic motivation. Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura (1989) state that intrinsic motivation is closely related to deep concentration, lack of worry and growth. They claim that individuals become more intrinsically motivated if they engage in the activities enabling their growth because such activities will give them a chance for personal development. According to Vallerand (1997), there are three types of intrinsic motivation: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation towards accomplishments, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. First, intrinsic motivation to know can be identified as being engaged in an activity while one explores and enjoys the pleasure of the activity and satisfaction. It is connected to the

constructs such as exploration, learning goals, intrinsic intellectuality, intrinsic motivation to learn and intrinsic curiosity. The emphasis here is exploring an activity with fun such as chess players trying to find out more about chess. Intrinsic motivation towards accomplishments: in this type of intrinsic motivation, one accomplishes or creates something engaging in an activity feeling pleasure and satisfaction. It focuses on the process of the action rather than the outcome of it. Intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation: this refers to being engaged in an activity to have sensory or aesthetic pleasure through one's senses. Swimmers who enjoy the act of swimming can be examples of this type of motivation. In addition, there are several factors influencing increase and decrease of intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1981). Giving choice about the activity and positive competence feedback are factors which foster intrinsic motivation. Learners getting positive feedback about an activity are known to be more intrinsically motivated compared to those who do not have any feedback at all. Furthermore, if they are given the feedback or rewarded in an informative rather than controlling manner it further facilitates intrinsic motivation.

Conversely, extrinsic rewards, externally imposed controls and negative feedback decrease intrinsic motivation as Deci and Ryan (1981) express. For them, people become accustomed to getting external rewards such as money, food or avoiding an unpleasant exposure soon after completing an activity. In that way, the quality of the activity falls down just to reach the goal and get these external rewards. As intrinsic motivation evolves naturally and enthusiastically based on interests of humans, imposed controls such as a task with deadline or frames to follow will prevent them from creating their own. For example, if learners are given a task within time limits and a specific frame, they are more likely to lose intrinsic motivation.

2.1.2.4. Extrinsic Motivation

While intrinsic motivation pertains more to inner processes and interests of humans free from external conditions, extrinsic motivation deals more with the outcomes or factors surrounding them. Deci and Ryan (2000) state that extrinsic

motivation occurs when an activity is done to get some separable outcomes. According to them, there is a continuum of stages in motivation ranging from amotivation to personal commitment. It evolves from extrinsic motives to internal motivation. Amotivation follows one of the primitive types of extrinsic motivation called external regulation, as there are four types of it. That stage is the only one accepted by operant theorists such as Skinner because individuals are controlled more under the influence of external demands or mechanisms, which contrasts starkly with intrinsic motivation. The second type is introjected regulation describing cases in which individuals perform the activities just to avoid punishment or disturbing outcomes. Another type of extrinsic motivation is identification, which allows more autonomy and choice along with some regulations coming from outside. If the individuals believe that the activity performed is valuable enough as a life goal, they prefer to confront with its results and constraints. The last type of extrinsic motivation is that of integrated regulation, which pertains to autonomy more than the others do. It is the integration of identified regulations to the self nearly totally and can be confused easily with intrinsic motivation. The most prominent distinction between them is the existence of any regulation gained later out of self instead of a pure interest. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are not interesting alone, so factors such as a teacher or belonging to a social group or talents and relevant skills to perform the activity make the activity interesting and meaningful. Apart from those factors, Deci and his colleagues (1994) also underline that having a strong and meaningful rationale for an activity leads to a closer intrinsically motivated behavior and the most preferred one among types of extrinsic motivation.

Rewards are no doubt inseparable parts of extrinsic motivation. According to Deci et al (2001), rewards can be examined in categories as informational ones and controlling ones. Informational rewards or other aspects reinforce self-determined competence giving meaningful information to people while controlling rewards rather support being stick to external factors by pressuring them to some outcomes (Theodotou, 2014). Deci also makes a distinction between verbal and tangible rewards. Verbal rewards refer to positive feedback; conversely, tangible rewards make people engage in a specific activity. Moreover, while expected tangible rewards would decrease intrinsic motivation, unexpected tangible rewards would not have the same effect. Báez Dueñas and Chacón Vargas (2013) add that rewards

cannot be sufficient alone to encourage intrinsically motivated learners, but they can answer to extrinsically motivated learners, thus extrinsic motivation can be a way of making learners more confident to achieve the learning goals.

2.1.2.5. Integrative Motivation

The term "integrative motivation" actually has roots in Gardner and Lambert's socio-educational theory of motivation (1972). They state that individuals can learn a language easily if they have positive attitudes towards the country and the group of people living there or if they are willing to communicate with the people living in the target country. In other words, the more sympathy and interest they feel about the culture of the language learned, the more successful they become academically. Mclntyre (2002) also introduces the conception of social milieu, which proposes that modeling a teacher representative of the target people of that language can foster positive attitudes and adaption to the language. However, there are still exceptions, which may not support integrative motivation. Learners not having some familiarity with the culture and the country of the language may not have any impact on the academic success of language acquisition (Nikitina and Furuoka, 2006). Despite these exceptions, search done about integrative motivation shows that as the learners get closer to the integrative motivation, they are more likely to be successful in the target language (Shaver, 2012) and initiate their responses more quickly and correctly. What is more, interactively motivated students do not have to spend a huge amount of time studying compared to those who are less motivated (Gardner et al., 1992).

2.1.2.6. Instrumental Motivation

While integrative motivation means doing an activity just for the pleasure of doing it, instrumental motivation is more about pragmatic purposes of doing it (Xiao, 2014). An integrative motivation reflects interests towards a culture or a group of learners speaking a language. On the contrary, instrumental motivation highlights practical value and advantages (Gardner and Maclntyre, 1991). Research indicates that intrinsic motivation and its forms including integrative motivation are more effective and valuable in achieving something rather than extrinsic motivation and its various forms including instrumental motivation. However, integrative motivation

and instrumental motivation seem to be correlated with each other and even contribute to the same dimension. In other words, someone who is motivated integratively can easily recognize the instrumental value of the activity. Both integrative and instrumental motivation can facilitate learning (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991).

According to Lens at al. (2009), "the motivation for present actions that result from already anticipated future goals (e.g. to do one's best in school to become a teacher) is called instrumental motivation" (p.23 and 24). They claim that although the instrumental motivation is a type of extrinsic motivation, it does not have to be maladaptive. It does not mean that all types of extrinsic motivation undermine intrinsic motivation such as integrated regulation, which is the most autonomous type of extrinsic motivation embedded with core values and sense of self. Future goals are other emphasized parts in instrumental motivation as most of the future goals are instrumental. In other words, the future motivates the present. People having long and well-developed FTP (Future Time Perspective) enhance the motivation of the present. Long FTP is the predictor of work satisfaction.

There are four different types of instrumental motivation depending on people's present learning tasks and future goals. There are two crucial dimensions in these four types as control (externally or internally) and capacity needed to complete an activity (during their training as a trainee or working as a professional). The first type of instrumentality occurs when the present task and the future task require the same capacities. The second one occurs when the future goal controls the present task externally or internally. The third one is observed when the present and future tasks are different or the same in terms of capacities of people (such as someone who wants to be a nurse taking a nurse training instead of taking fashion training). The last one occurs when the future goals affect the present activities internally or externally (Lens at al., 2009; Lens et al., 2002).

2.1.2.7. Adaptive Motivation

Adaptive motivation comes from learners' motivational decisions as a part of their adaptivity to situational demands (Middleton and Toluk, 1999). It accepts human beings as adaptive systems including both anticipatory and evaluative

purposes. Anticipatory purposes are about the probability of success in an activity, thus shape behaviors and foresee the outcomes of behaviors. On the other hand, evaluative purposes help to decide to engage in the activity by monitoring arousals during an experience. By the help of evaluative structures, learners continue to engage in the activity or give it up. Adaptive motivation states that the basic drive of humans is to increase their adaptivity. Moreover, motivation is subjective as every human is unique in terms of his or her decisions in adaptivity. Because of this, learners' adaptivities are based on their prior knowledge and experiences of social contexts. It also indicates that learners in the same social context affect each other in terms of their reactions and feelings towards an activity. For example, when students see others glad during an activity, they tend to feel in the same way. Similarly, people of similar social contexts mostly make adaptive decisions that are alike. This is called "the principle of identical elements" in adaptive motivation. Goal structure is another emphasized key point in this theory. Goals are divided as mastery goals or ego goals according to Middleton and Toluk (1999). Mastery goals refer to intrinsic goals, which will lead learners to engage in the activity while ego goals refer to extrinsic goals such as doing the activity for the sake of social recognition or avoiding social sanctions. Dweck and Heyman (1992) also make an emphasis on the importance of goals in adaptive motivation. They categorize goals as performance goals and learning goals. Performance goals involve proving one's ability engaging in the activities as long as he or she is successful. In a case opposite of that, learners tend to avoid activities. Learning goals, on the other hand, involve developing new abilities and enhancing one's capacity. Consequently, activities are seen as natural parts of the learning process. The model of adaptive motivation shows that when learners face an activity similar to what they have experienced, they go through their extrinsic system. In the extrinsic system, they give the activity up as not having positive feelings before or they do it for the sake of some constraints for a while. If they face an activity unlike what they experience they decide to check it out through the intrinsic system. If they experience positive feelings, then they continue engaging in the activity. Lastly, it is seen that people's interests serve as memory stores coded in their minds as experiences.

2.1.3. Theories in Relation to Motivation

Theories and models in relation to motivation are presented in this section under the titles of self-determination theory, cognitive evaluation theory, Maslow's need theory, attribution theory, personal causation theory, theory of planned behavior, the trans-contextual model, expectancy-value theory, goal theory, socio-educational model, Keller's ARCS model, time continuum model and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

2.1.3.1. Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory examines human motivation, human needs and goals emphasizing human development through the potential of self. The theory was first introduced by Deci and Ryan in 1985. For them, there exist three needs in the core of self-determination theory: needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy. First, the theory explains that social-contextual events such as feedback, rewards and communication lead to competence with feelings of intrinsic motivation. Relatedness, which is another important need for self-determination theory has a strong relationship with the feelings of security and attachment. In other words, learners can be motivated intrinsically when they are with someone as a leader or a group of people making them feel relaxed, secure and inspired. Lastly, it suggests that intrinsic motivation occurs when there are opportunities for autonomy. Allowing people to have their own choices in the activity and diminishing deadlines, threats and directives give a way to enhance intrinsic motivation. According to this theory, motivation comes from energy and persistence because of pure interest. People can be motivated either by themselves, which is intrinsic motivation or by external contingencies (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

2.1.3.2. Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive Evaluation theory (CET) is a theory developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) as a theory within SDT, which explains the factors affecting intrinsic motivation such as the effects of rewards, deadlines, other motivational inputs and needs for competence and self-determination. According to the theory, intrinsically motivated people have an "internal locus of causality", which means intrinsically

motivated people attribute their motivation to internal needs, intrinsic rewards and satisfaction (Rummel and Feinberg, 1988). The emphasis in the theory is on rewards and the aspects of rewards being divided into two categories as controlling and informational aspects. Controlling aspects cause a shift from internal to external in the perceived locus of causality leading to undermining in intrinsic motivation, while informational aspects make the opposite impact as from external to internal change in the perceived locus of causality leading a rise in intrinsic motivation of individuals. CET also makes a distinction between verbal and tangible rewards. Verbal rewards can simply be explained as positive feedback taken because of an activity, thus enhance intrinsic motivation. However, they can also have a controlling aspect on people causing an effort just to get praise. It depends on the interpersonal context and climate of the activities applied to decide which aspect is effective either controlling or informational in verbal rewards. If individuals are offered alternatives and not pressured to think and behave in a certain way, verbal rewards can be supporting intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, tangible rewards refer to rewards coming after an engagement in a task and are known when to come most of the time. In spite of the fact that unexpected ones help to enhance intrinsic motivation, expected tangible rewards cause a decline in intrinsic motivation as they compose expectancy for a reward after specific activities.

CET explains three types of reward contingencies: task-non-contingent rewards, task-contingent rewards (completion-contingent rewards and engagement-contingent rewards) and performance-contingent rewards. Firstly, task-non-contingent rewards do not require finishing an activity to get a reward, whereas task-contingent type does. Second, task-contingent rewards are also examined in two groups as completion-contingent rewards, which require people finishing the activity and engagement-contingent rewards, which do not require completing the activity but at least taking part in it. Finally, performance-contingent rewards refer to rewards that make people perform matching with a standard of excellence. To sum up all types of rewards' effects on intrinsic motivation, it is explained that while verbal rewards have a tendency to increase intrinsic motivation, (except children, but for college students) all tangible rewards undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci et al, 2001).

2.1.3.3. Maslow's Need Theory

Maslow (1943) offers a human motivation theory composed of a hierarchy of needs that individuals should fulfill starting from the lowest to the highest. It is a human-centered theory taking into account humans' features separating them from animals. For that reason, motivation is based on goals rather than drives. It can be stated that the theory is a mixture of James and Devey's functionalist tradition, Wertheimer's holism, Goldstein and Gestalt psychology and dynamics of Freud and Adler. According to the theory, there exist five sets of goals called basic needs, physiological needs, safety, love, esteem and self-actualization needs in order. These needs are dominated just after they are satisfied by the higher ones. Thus, all the needs are in relation to each other and not isolated. Apart from some exceptions, if the need belonging to the bottom step is not fulfilled, individuals will not care for other needs of higher steps.

Physiological needs are the bases of all needs in the hierarchy. Homeostasis referring to biological needs of the human body such as water content, the state of the blood stream, a constant temperature of the blood, hunger and other physiological needs such as sleepiness, sexual desires and maternal behavior belong to that group. This is the most dominant of all the needs in the hierarchy. A human cannot be motivated or cannot skip to the higher step without fulfilling this group. The second step is called "the safety needs". Soon after satisfying physiological needs, humans strive for safety needs. It can be shortly described as being in a safe situation far from any kind of threat. Nothing seems more important than "safety", even some physiological needs can be underestimated for the sake of "safety", which is one of the exceptions to Maslow's theory of human motivation. Thus, it is vital to confront children with unfamiliar, unmanageable situations from time to time in a safe way. These needs also explain why humans usually prefer a safe, predictable and organized world and find the changes in life so hard. The third group is love needs. Love needs involve giving and receiving love at the same time. Another category is esteem needs, which is highlighted by Adler supporters and neglected by Freud followers. This group is composed of two kinds of needs; the needs for strength, achievement, confidence and the needs for prestige and recognition. The absence of esteem needs causes individuals to feel weak, helpless and inferior. The last category

is the needs for self-actualization. The needs of humans go on and will not stop unless the individuals do whatever they are fitted for. They should find their own potential and act according to it. For instance, a musician must make music or a teacher should teach. This term, self-actualization was used firstly by Goldstein. It is under discussion if humans have a full motivation in life, but according to Maslow, an average person is satisfied with 85% in his physiological needs, 70% in his safety needs, 50% in his love needs, 40% in his self-esteem needs and 10% of self-actualization needs. In order to satisfy all the needs and self-actualize ourselves, there should be ideal conditions such as freedom to choose or speak, justice, honesty and fairness that are called pre-conditions for basic need satisfaction. There are also other exceptions within the theory. For example, people who have lived through only physiological needs during a time period such as chronic unemployment or struggling with hunger may not prefer to skip to other categories and feel happy under these conditions. On the contrary, when a need is satisfied for a long time, the importance of that need may lose its attraction. Likewise, some people can give up everything in life for the sake of their goals of achievement.

2.1.3.4. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory first introduced by Weiner in 1971 is a motivational theory dealing with attributions of individuals to the outcomes confronted in the cases of failure and success. Emotions are included and highlighted more within this theory as different from others. It evolves around the key concepts of "the locus of a cause", "controllability" and "stability". First, the locus of a cause refers to an event's being internal or external. If a person thinks failure or success happens within the limits of himself, it is internal. But, if he believes that it happens out of him, it is then external. Mostly selected causes in this category are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck (Weiner, 1985). Ability is described as internal and stable, effort as internal and unstable, while task difficulty is thought to be external and stable and luck as external and unstable. The second concept controllability is about whether an individual can control the action or not. Luck, for example, is something that cannot be controlled over time. Students will feel in control when the factors they attribute to their outcomes are seen as internal, stable and controllable (Demetriou, 2011; Zimmermann and Schunk, 2006). Furthermore, they are likely to have the low ability

when their attributions are evaluated as internal, stable and uncontrollable. Last, stability refers to an action with the same deductive reasoning going on and is repeated several times over time in a decisive way. According to Rosenbaum (1973); Weiner (1985), mood, fatigue and temporary effort are all internal and unstable factors. As stated above, attribution theory gives value to emotions more than others. Weiner (1985) states that the locus of a cause directly affects self-esteem and pride, which means that internal factors enhance self-esteem while external ones cause lower self-esteem. The stability of cause also increases feelings of hopelessness or hopefulness depending on the action. For example, a player ending up with the same bad score after several matches is more likely to have feelings of hopelessness or vice versa. Lastly, controllability has an influence on social emotions. Individuals face the feelings of guilt after a personal failure depending on a controllable cause. Conversely, uncontrollable causes will produce feelings of shame. Hodges (2004) states that by the help of the enlightenment of attribution theory, instructors should support their learners to attribute their learning outcomes to controllable and unstable factors so that they would not give up the belief that change is possible. Similarly, Weiner (1985) proposes that attributions should be altered from stable to unstable and from internal to external in the maintenance of goal expectancy for better learning and internalization.

2.1.3.5. Personal Causation Theory

Personal causation is a theory which was introduced by DeCharms in 1968 depending on three important components of freedom, choice and commitment in motivation. He states that giving individuals choices, letting them do the things they wish and being responsible for what they have done brings success in education including both students and teachers. He makes a striking distinction between the terms "origin" and "pawn"s (DeCharms, 1976). According to him, students who are not given any choice and who are not responsible for making their actions are like pawns pushed around instead of being themselves. This case also includes teachers who are pressured by their principals and parents. As a result of this pressure, they become more rigid and allow repetitions and force in a classroom environment. Origins have six characteristics which separate them from pawns (Cohen, 1982). First, they internally control their actions and are ready to set goals for their

motivation. Apart from that, they set these goals as realistic as possible and know how to engage in activities to reach their goals. Lastly, they take the responsibility for their actions resulting in either success or failure and act with self-confidence. Personal causation theory involves two sets of conditions, "can" conditions and "try" conditions. "Try" conditions are related with hedonism, which means the belief that individuals follow actions only if they believe the outcomes of these actions will bring them benefit while "can" conditions simply state common sense knowledge of the physical world, like a realistic potential of oneself to do something (Schmidt and D'Addamio, 1973).

2.1.3.6. Theory of Planned Behavior

Theory of planned behavior (TPB) deals with and examines what lies behind our behaviors, which are intentions and beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). It also makes predictions about future behaviors depending on the past ones. As long as a person has the required opportunities, resources and intends to do so, she/he succeeds in performing the behavior. However, intentions enhance the probability of the behavior formation providing that one has "behavioral control" and motivation. Behavioral control is assessed in two categories as "actual behavioral control" and "perceived behavioral control". The non-motivational and external factors such as money, time, skills and cooperation of others are called "actual control" over behavior. On the contrary, perceived behavioral control refers to people's perceptions of the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior of interest.

In TPB, perceived behavioral control along with intentions are used to make predictions about behavior achievement. For instance, a person who is confident that he can master this activity is more likely to persevere than the person who doubts his ability. The more realistic the perceived behavioral control is, the more accurately it predicts the formation of the future behavior. In other words, there should not be much difference between perceived behavioral control and actual behavior. In addition, intentions and perceived behavioral control must be stable during the time period between their assessment and observation of behavior. If the factors affecting the behavior do not change, the behavior likewise does not change. Only if the factors either external or internal shaping the past behavior along with other variables are analyzed, the future behavior can be predicted in an accurate way.

The determinants of intentions in TPB are described in three types; attitudes toward behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control. Attitudes refer to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behavior. Subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressure to act or not to act the behavior out. As explained above, personal behavioral control is the perceived ease or difficulty of the performing behavior. As long as those three determinants are high, the intentions to perform the action get stronger. Lastly, beliefs listed as behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs lie behind the people's intentions. Behavioral intentions refer to the general attitudes of the person about favorability of the action while normative beliefs refer to the determinants of subjective norms about the behavior which is partly social. Control beliefs form the basis for perceptions of behavioral control. They can be influenced by a past experience with the behavior, by the second-hand information about it or by the experiences of friends and acquaintances.

2.1.3.7. The Trans-Contextual Model

The trans-contextual model is an integrated model mixture of SDT (self-determination theory), TPB (theory of planned behavior) and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which proposes carrying the motivation inside school environment to out of school contexts by Hagger and Chatzisarantis (2012). The model was originally created for physical education lesson activities and dissemination of those activities in extramural surroundings (Hagger et al., 2003). In years following, not only physical activities such as keeping on doing sports activities to have a healthy life but also other educational concepts such as literature (reading literary works outside the classroom), Math (getting benefit from mathematical calculations in everyday life) and language (collecting authentic materials and trying to communicate outside the classroom) started to evolve by the help of trans-contextual model. As stated above, it has traces of three important motivation models. First, it has similarities with self-determination theory in terms of autonomous motivation and the quality of motivation. Similar to self-determination theory, it highlights the quality of motivation rather than the quantity. In addition, both self-determination theory and trans-contextual model care for choice, having autonomy in learning and positive climate of the learning environment. It is not

possible to inspire from school activities without feeling the individual's self as the origin and responsible for the actions done. What is more, the theory suggests autonomous behaviors can be transferred to include new behaviors through internalization process which is an inseparable part of self-determination theory (Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2016). Second, it has similarities with TPB in terms of making transfers from a specific behavior to a future behavior. As long as the behavior is constructed through an autonomous and enjoyable way, the probability of composition of a new behavior in near future increases. Finally, the trans-contextual model takes its general framework from a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in terms of the transferability of the motivation to other concepts. In the hierarchical model, a motivation transfer is possible at global, contextual and situational levels just like in the trans-contextual model from school activities to out of school activities.

2.1.3.8. Expectancy-Value Theory

Expectancy-value theory, shaped by Eccles and Wigfield in 1983, explains how motivation influences choice, persistence and performance. It was firstly developed for mathematics achievement domain. Individuals' choice, persistence and performance could be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do the activity and to what extent they value the activity (Eccles and Wigfield, 2000). Expectancies and values directly influence achievement choices. Thus, achievement choices affect performance, effort and persistence in turn. According to expectancy-value theory, there are four major types of values. They are attainment value or importance, intrinsic value, utility value or usefulness and the cost. Attainment value is defined as the importance of doing well on a specific task and intrinsic value means enjoyment gaining from doing the task. Utility value or usefulness refers to pragmatic issues in acting out a task such as joining a math class to fulfill a requirement for a science degree. Cost means what people go through in the process of task completion such as their efforts, perseverance, energy or time (Wigfield, 1994; Eccles et al.2000). Expectancies for success are described as individuals' beliefs about how well they will do on an upcoming task. In expectancy-value theory, efficacy expectations are the main expectancy beliefs rather than outcome expectation beliefs. While outcome expectations mean a given behavior can produce

a specific outcome, efficacy expectations refer to the individuals' expectations that they can produce a specific outcome.

2.1.3.9. Goal Theory

As goals are considered to compose a great part of motivation theories, goal theory is supported by a few different variations. It is strictly underlined in goal theory that goals are cognitive indicators of consciousness and accessibility. It should be also stated that there is a strong and direct connection between self-efficacy and goal theory. One's perceived abilities named self-efficacy will clearly tell us what type of goals will be set. In the same way, the achievement of goals, the successes and failures obtained will affect the beliefs of self-efficacy (Hodges, 2004). According to Hodges (2004), goals are grouped into two categories as learning goals and performance goals. Whereas learning goals are based on developing new abilities and attitudes, performance goals reflect the evaluation of one's competence. That is, intelligence is not stable and can be developed in learning goals, whereas it is fixed in performance goals. Goals are also viewed as proximal goals which are expected to maintain the motivation in near future and distal goals which are met much later in the future.

Pintrich (2000) considers goal theory in light of Murphy and Alexander's (2000) findings. For them, goals, in a general sense, are examined in three headings as target goals, general goals and achievement goals. The most specific one, target goals, refers to the goals defined for a particular task or problem such as students aiming to get a specific score in exams or games. Second, general goals are in the mission of understanding the factors and the reasons lying behind the motivated behavior. These can be named as social, mastery, happiness, superiority and so on. Last, achievement goals search aims or reasons for engaging in an achievement task including learning tasks, athletic or business settings and explain achievement motivation. Although achievement goals are a combination of general goals and target goals, they are distinct from them as including related beliefs about aims, competence, ability, effort, errors and standards. General goals or target goals do not give detailed information about competence, standards or purposes in a systematic and integrated way. Wolters (2004) explains four frames in goal orientations; a mastery goal approach, a mastery avoidance goal approach, a performance goal

approach and performance avoidance goal approach. Mastery approach refers to being motivated and setting goals for overcoming a challenge, or increasing level of competence. A mastery avoidance approach exemplifies motivation and goals to avoid a lack of mastery or a failure. On the other hand, a performance goal approach is followed when one wants to show one's ability and prove self-worth to others. Last, a performance-avoidance goal approach is adopted by individuals avoiding looking incompetent or lacking in skills.

2.1.3.10. The Socio-Educational Model

The socio-educational model developed by Gardner and Smythe (1975) is a dynamic model specially developed for second language acquisition and its components. According to Gardner (1988), there are four features of socio-educational model: the social milieu in language education, the individual variables in second language acquisition, language acquisition contexts and both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes during second language acquisition process. The socio-educational model proposes that learning a language is totally different than another school subject, as it includes a lot of complex variables such as being motivated not only for the language but also for the community speaking that language, attitudes toward learning situation and integrativeness. Socio-educational model is based on five assumptions (Gardner, 2006). First, learning a language means developing a level of competence which involves communicating with speakers of that language. That is because; learners coming from similar backgrounds should be trained together. Second, there are two basic individual difference characteristics, ability and motivation. On the other hand, there is an independent relationship between two of them, as one of them can be high while the other one is low. Third, individual differences in motivation are under the influence of community beliefs of the learners toward learning that language, life experiences and educational objectives. Fourth, language acquisition process happens in both formal and informal contexts. Formal ones are those where language training is done in a specific place within a specific schedule while informal contexts allow practicing opportunities without a specific learning environment such as social settings, the internet, television and radio. Last, both formal and informal language contexts will come up with linguistic outcomes such as oral production, aural comprehension, the skills of reading, writing

and nonlinguistic outcomes such as language attitude and anxiety, willingness to communicate and self-confidence. The model can be summarized as motivation which is affected by learning situation attitudes, integrativeness and instrumentality along with abilities of learners giving way to language achievement.

2.1.3.11. Keller's ARCS Model

ARCS model is based on the expectancy-value theory which has roots in Tolman's works (1932) which aim to enhance the motivational effect of instructional materials. It is not designed to change behaviors, solving individuals' problems or teaching learners how to be motivated, it rather organizes strategies for motivation. ARCS model has three distinctive features. First, it puts forward a systematic design process called motivational design which can even be applied to traditional instructional materials. Second, it has many strategies to increase the motivational effect of the instructional materials. Last, it includes four conceptual categories which characterize human motivation.

ARCS model has four major conditions called "attention", "relevance", "confidence", and "satisfaction" to increase motivation (Keller, 1987). First, attention is the first condition of catching attention. It is vital to take attention of the learners at the beginning of the lesson. It could be a sharp rise of voice, a surprising question, an interesting picture or even a quiet pause. Second, relevance can be thought as instrumental to the value of learning. That is because, if learners cannot make a connection with what they learn and their objectives in learning, teaching material no longer becomes relevant for them. For these reasons, it is necessary to find ways of integrating future career plans into learning along with giving chances of choice. Third, confidence comes with failure or success experiences of learners. There is no doubt that learners will lose their motivation if they cannot see the possibility of success in learning. Attribution is quite important within confidence. Learners could make attributions about their success or failure. Confident learners make these attributions to their perseverance and characters while unconfident learners attribute their failures to external factors such as luck or difficulty of the task. In short, an adjustment should be done based on the levels of learners and difficulty of materials to increase learner confidence. Fourth, satisfaction is about expectancies of learners and their outcomes at the end of a learning process. Reward

can be efficient to enhance the motivation of learners to some extent. Reinforcement is the keyword of satisfaction condition. Generally, learners become more motivated if the activity and reward are defined within a reinforcement schedule. But, it may not be the same with learners who prefer to take control of their own learning and defining everything from the beginning may make them disappointed.

There are four motivational objectives in ARCS model. The first one is composed of three steps: classifying problems by making a problem analysis; analyzing audience motivation; and preparing motivational objectives for planned learning. Second objective "design" is composed of two steps. One of them is to generate potential strategies for the objectives of learning. At this stage, brainstorming ideas is recommended as it is spontaneous and creative to generate a lot of original ideas by moving away from critical thinking. The other one is selecting strategies to be used in designing the instruction. Some features such as time and money constraints and compatibility of instructor's personal style should be taken into consideration. The third objective "developing" has two steps. First, it is necessary to prepare motivational elements and integrating them with instructions. Second, revision of instructional materials should be done to ensure continuity. The last fourth objective is "evaluating". Generally, the evaluations of the effectiveness of motivational strategies are thought as the reflections of scores or other achievement measures. However, evaluation is influenced by a lot of factors. For this reason, factors such as persistence, effort, emotion and attitudes should also be evaluated.

2.1.3.12. The Time Continuum Model

Time continuum model was developed by Wlodkowski (1978) to increase the motivation of learners in any kind of lesson. The underlying idea of the model is that there is no joy in teaching and learning when a threat exists. According to the model, learning situations are divided based on a time continuum such as 10 minutes or 10 days. In order to achieve maximum motivation, there are three critical periods to be considered; beginning, during and ending of the lesson. There are also two motivational factors for each period; needs and attitudes. Attitude refers to the learner's general approach toward learning context, teacher, subject or self while needs refer to any lacking sides which should be supported to build more. Second,

stimulation and affect are motivational factors influencing during the lesson period. Stimulation is the phase of being attached to the lesson during the activity and affect explains how the student feels during the activity. Finally, a competence which is the outcome of learning and reinforcement referring to the value of the learning experience shape the motivation of ending the period. Wlodkowski (1978) exemplifies these periods and affecting factors through a student who has a poor history with Math. The student has a poor attitude toward the lesson and in need of a stronger Math support. If the teacher presents interesting problems or exercises, the learner can be stimulated and get used of this effective climate in a class environment. At the end of the lesson, he may be filled with confidence and competence. But, if he receives poor grades, he will be discouraged instead of being reinforced.

2.1.3.13. The Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Vallerand (1995) presents a model for motivation called hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 1997). Although Deci and Ryan (1985b) put forward three levels of motivationas global motivation, life context and situational motivation, they did not compose an integrated model of relations between three of those. In the model, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation together with amotivation exist within individuals in hierarchical levels. These levels are global, contextual and situational levels as mentioned above. First, global motivation refers to intrapersonal factors within an individual's personality and can be thought of as intrinsic motivation towards something such as children's enjoying playing games. Second, contextual motivation refers to interpersonal social factors such as a teacher's communication style in a class. Last, situational motivation refers to the state level of motivation such as a teacher's instructions to write an essay, which is one's motivation at a precise moment. To conclude, all those three social factors are mediated by autonomy, competence and relatedness. While autonomy is the free will to make a choice, relatedness means feeling connected to a group and competence means interacting effectively with the environment.

The hierarchy is composed of global motivation, contextual motivation and situational motivation from top to bottom. What is more, these three types of motivation affect each other in a hierarchical way. In other words, the factors directly

affect contextual motivation, but indirectly influence situational motivation. In addition, there is a recursive relationship between those three types of motivations, which shows a reciprocal effect from each other according to the hierarchy level. Finally, the model proposes that motivations end up with different outcomes for each individual. These outcomes can be categorized as cognitive, affective and behavioral in nature.

2.1.4. Teaching Motivation

Teaching motivation is shaped either positively or negatively by teachers' conscious or unconscious beliefs (Katz and Shahar, 2015). That is because beliefs give way to behaviors and systems in psychology. For example, a teacher who believes in the necessity of autonomy in learning gets motivated in teaching autonomous learning in an easy way. Behind the beliefs of teachers, their emotions lay, that's why emotions can have a critical effect in changing teachers' beliefs.

According to Morgan et al. (2007), there are four factors regarding teacher motivation, one of which is teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy can be explained as the belief if teaching has positive effects on students' motivation and attitudes. Its reflections are seen in two ways as it influences the type of challenges and environments teachers are ready to face. In addition, strong efficacy beliefs increase effort and persistence. The second one is organizational citizenship, which explains the extent to which teachers are prepared to go beyond their strict contract limits such as their time, effort and energy. The third one is commitment to remain in teaching. Commitment involves keeping occupation and staying in the institution. The final one, desire to continue to learn, means being willing to sustain professional development and be a lifelong learner. They also group motivating factors in four major themes as classroom level, school level, national level and global level. Classroom-level factors include positive experiences of student learning, student engagement in classes and negative circumstances of students. School-level factors exemplify co-operative atmosphere with colleagues, the relations with school management, the perception of school success and inadequate resources. Career opportunities about teaching, conditions of work and teachers' salaries compose national level factors. Furthermore, qualifications of teachers, teachers' being visible

on media and the changes in teachers' roles in the community belong to global level factors.

Daniels (2016) states that teacher motivation is influenced by three factors; curricular, relational and logistical factors. Factors about content, the pedagogical way the content is taught and professional development opportunities compose curricular factors. Relational factors demonstrate all the relationships built among teachers, managers, students and families. Logistical factors depict factors such as the impact of physical environment, resources and teachers' perceptions of their own professional practices. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) similarly emphasize four aspects of teacher motivation. First, intrinsic motivation remains a powerful factor influencing motivation. It includes feeling growth through daily interaction between teacher and students and motivation directly related to the subject area of teaching. Second, teacher motivation is mostly and directly related to social aspects at work and some institutional factors. Third, teacher motivation is closely related to long-term career issues including being hired for a short time or being permanent in a job or getting promoted. Last, negative aspects as a result of the nature of the job affect teacher motivation and make it more fragile (Tsutsumi, 2014).

2.1.5. Motivation and Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

Motivation makes an influence on several factors such as the frequency of students' using L2 learning strategies, learners' communications with native speakers, input they get in the target language, their success on curriculum-related achievement tests, their proficiency levels and the effort they make to maintain L2 skills after language study is finished (Oxford and Shearin,1994). According to Crookes and Schmidt (1991), motivation to learn a language has both internal and external features. Internal factors include firstly interest in the L2 depending on attitudes, experience and background knowledge of learners. Second, it is important to know if personal needs such as achievement, affiliation and power are met by learning L2. Third, the expectancy of success or failure during the process of language learning affects the motivation of learners and last outcomes of learning a language motivate them. External characteristics include paying attention and engaging in L2 learning, persisting in it over an extended period of time and keeping on activating it through various methods. There are several things to consider about

foreign language motivation to obtain the highest motivation. First, teachers should identify why their learners study that language. For this, both instrumental and integrative reasons should be analyzed along with some other reasons to be motivated such as travel and cultural interests and intellectual change. Second, teachers need to lead their learners' beliefs about success and failure in L2 learning. It is vital to set realistic but challenging goals and to know that having a hope of success keeps learners alerted and energetic. Third, motivation evolves if the language is a tool to friendship and cultural awareness, so showing the realistic outcomes and utility of learning a language give way to its rise. Fourth, the L2 classroom can be a positive and welcoming place when psychological needs are met and language anxiety is pulled down. Going beyond classroom borders in language learning such as trips involving the use of language and inviting a native speaker to class can be thought in this frame. Fifth and last, the importance of extrinsic rewards applied by the teacher cannot be denied but learners should be made to develop their own intrinsic rewards through positive self–talk and guided self-evaluation (Oxford and Shearin, 1994).

2.2. Literature Review

In this section, the research done on motivation in foreign language learning and teaching is viewed firstly. Further, research is examined under the titles of motivation and in-service teacher training programmes and research on motivation and in-service teacher training programmes in the ELT settings in Turkey in a more specific way.

2.2.1. Research on Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

As research on motivation in foreign language learning is so rich in many ways, findings can be categorized into various sections as general motivation research including the effect of motivation and its types along with demotivation and amotivation in EFL context, the relationship between motivation and young learners, the effect of authentic materials on motivation, motivation and computer-assisted language learning (CALL), motivation and basic skills, motivation and vocabulary,

the relationship between motivation and gender, the effect of tasks on motivation, the effect of culture on motivation, self-assessment and motivation.

In the first group titled as general motivation and effect of its types on language learning context, researchers aim to understand factors lying behind the motivation of EFL learners or what kind of orientations of EFL learners refer to which motivation types. A group of studies emphasizes the prominence of internal attributions in motivation process of learners. Shaaban and Ghaith (2000) examined the motivation of 180 university-bound Lebanese students to learn English as a foreign language. A motivation scale was used to gather data. Findings demonstrated that integrative motivation, effort, valence, expectancy, and self-estimation of ability were internally related determinants for EFL motivation. In addition, findings proved that female students were more motivated than males. Similarly, Cheng and Huang (1999) researched the relationship between student motivation, both extrinsic and intrinsic, and learning strategies for EFL students. The research included 46 Taiwanese undergraduate and graduate students at a public university in the United States through motivation and learning strategies questionnaires. Results indicated that total learning strategies were associated with motivational intensity, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was related to cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, while extrinsic motivation was in a relationship with memory and affective strategies. Compensation strategies were the most frequently used and had little relationship to motivation. Social strategies had little effect on either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation. Motivational intensity has a correlation with intrinsic motivation but does not have a remarkable relationship to extrinsic motivation. Falout (2012) supported those results in his research to find out how learners lose, regain and maintain their motivations. The research was applied on 157 Japanese university learners through an open-ended questionnaire. Short- and long-term coping processes were examined in a comparative study of learners with positive and negative self-concepts regarding EFL. Findings showed that having adaptive processes early in learning was critical for long-term self-confidence and eventual proficiency. In addition, learners with more positive self-concept reported that they maintained their motivation through their social network more than the learners with more negative self-concept. Apart from the effect of internal attributions on motivation in EFL concept, another view comes from Green and

Fujita (2016) highlighting the effect of background and subjects students study on their motivations. Green and Fujita (2016) conducted research comparing two groups of Japanese learners studying dentistry and IT (Information Technology) to find out the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on learners. Ultimately, it seemed that Japanese dentistry students valued English learning more than the other group, as they had a more favorable attitude to their EFL studies thanks to more communication-based exercises. As a result, they stated that what motivates students changes depending on the background and subjects they study.

Research indicates that classroom related factors and formal settings in EFL affect motivation in a positive way. Kang (1999) aimed to explore the changes in orientations and motivations and instructional preferences of limited-English-proficient Korean high school students. Data were collected from 40 male and 40 female students randomly selected from two Korean high schools. Results showed that the students' language use was shaped by instrumental purposes and their orientation was intrinsic and extrinsic as well as instrumental and integrative. Extrinsic/intrinsic orientations and motivations had developmental changes, attributions of which were classroom factors. Furthermore, female learners replied more positively to culture and target language more than male learners. In a parallel way, Kang (2000) in his research on Korean students' orientations and motivations for learning English wanted to find replies to those questions: what kinds of orientations could lead to motivations; how new cognitive variables, such as confidence and attributions, were related to students' motivations; and how gender relates to and affects student motivation. As a methodology, Pearson product-moment correlations, discriminate factor analysis were used. As a conclusion, formal, extrinsic, classroom-related motivations were found more important factors in second language learning than traditional integrative and instrumental motivations in Korean EFL contexts. Kang (2000) in another study of his, investigated classroom language learning motivation in a Korean high school. The study aimed to discover what kinds of orientations could lead to motivations, and how these new cognitive variables were related to English-as-a-foreign-language motivation. The data were gathered from 192 Korean high school students with the help of a survey. As a result, according to the study, there were more elements than traditional integrative motivation; for example intrinsic/extrinsic and instrumental-knowledge motivations.

Intrinsic motivation was the most prominent of all. There were tracks of orientations vs. motivations vs. achievement and all orientations should be controllable by students. There was a correlation between intrinsic/extrinsic motivations and formal classroom-related factors. Self-confidence was related more to intrinsic and instrumental-knowledge orientation rather than the integrative one. Contrary to studies proving positive effects of classroom related factors in motivation, there are some others claiming the positive contribution of informal settings on motivation. Lamb (2007) made a research on the impact of the school on EFL learning motivation. The aim of the study was to look at changes in their reported motivation and learning activity and to specify internal and external factors associated with the changes between formal and informal settings in language learning. The study covered Indonesian adolescents in the first 20 months of junior high school through a mixed method design. The results proved that learners' attitudes and motivations toward learning a language grew more in informal settings such as social contexts while formal settings deteriorated this effect. Teweles (1995), likewise made a study on motivational differences between college-level Chinese and Japanese learners of EFL. The study aimed to determine relative levels of motivation in learning English as a second language, 40 freshmen and sophomores at two national universities in mainland China and Japan were included in the study replying to a 40-point attitudinal questionnaire and 6-point follow up motivational intensity scale. Results supported that freshmen and sophomores did better than Japanese college learners of similar age and background on a variety of tests focusing on points of the syntax of near-equal difficulty for both language groups and the level of motivation was not shown to correlate highly with proficiency regardless of test type or classroom related factors.

Apart from the relationship between learners' strategies and learners in EFL, researchers wish to know the factors related to demotivating factors in EFL and reveal various reasons behind it. Sakui et al. (2012) investigated teachers' perspectives of learners' amotivation. Thirty-two Japanese teachers working at Japanese universities were included by survey and three teachers were interviewed to reveal the factors leading to amotivation. As a result, three factors lying behind them were external factors of institutions and educational systems and the internal factors of student attitudes and personalities and teacher-student relationships. Similarly,

Tabatabaei and Molavi (2012) wanted to determine the demotivating factors affecting EFL learning of Iranian Islamic seminary students and also to distinguish the motivated and demotivated EFL learners. They applied two different scales as Attitude/Motivation Test Battery Questionnaire (AMTB) by Gardner to determine the degree of learners' motivation and a modified version of Warrington's (2005) questionnaire to determine the demotivating factors. As a result, factors such as the improper method of English teaching, frequency of classes in a week, problems in understanding listening materials and lack of use of English in students' real life were found to be the prominent demotivating factors among Iranian seminary learners.

Despite the fact that there is not much research conducted into young learners' motivation in EFL, existing studies suggest that intrinsic motivation and curiosity contribute to language learning motivation in a positive way and an emphasis is made on the global identity of learning English. Carreira (2011) wanted to research children's motivation for learning English. The participants were third to sixth graders from a public school in Japan. Data were gathered from two different scales, one of which was motivation to learn English. The other scale was to measure intrinsic motivation for studying in general. The study indicated that intrinsic motivation for studying in general, as well as motivation for learning EFL, generally decreases from third through sixth grades. As a result, it was understood that curiosity was a predictor for intrinsic motivation and instrumental motivation. While enjoyment was a positive predictor, endogenous attribution was a negative predictor of instrumental motivation. It was shown that a decline in intrinsic motivation led to a decline to learn English as well. Jin et al. (2014) made a study about young learners' motivation to learn English in China. They used elicited metaphors as research method on Chinese primary school pupils. Results indicated that young learners were satisfied to learn English through interactive methods and games. Lamb (2004) conducted a research on the motivation of Indonesian children aged 11-12 years old in an urban junior high school. He used closed and open questionnaire items, backed up by class observations and interviews as a research method in his study. The study came up with high levels of motivation to learn English both for instrumental and integrative reasons. The paper argued that the English language lost its connection to Anglophone cultures and was instead identified with globalization.

As a solution, it was suggested that learners could get a bicultural identity combining global side of themselves in English with their local L1-speaking self.

Studies on authentic materials propose that they accelerate the motivation of EFL learners. However, there remain some inconsistencies in the literature. Abdelhafez and Abdallah (2015) investigated EFL student teachers' motivation and use of online authentic materials on the basis of their actual language learning needs. The target research group was composed of Assiut University College of Education (AUCOE) EFL student teachers. A mixed method design was used in methodology using four various scales. The tools were a semi-structured interview, a qualitative analysis of some online language materials, a questionnaire administered to EFL student teachers to find out their awareness and use of online authentic language materials and a questionnaire applied on EFL student teachers to identify their language learning motivation. According to the results, there was a positive relationship between EFL student teachers' use of online authentic materials and their language learning motivation. González (2016) wanted to know if authentic materials and materials supported by Information and Communications Technologies foster the motivation of EFL students and communicative needs. The participants were three groups of seventeen-year-old students attending the first year of Bachillerato in three different secondary schools within the region of Madrid. The methodology design was in the form of three stages as a pre-study analysis in which the proficiency and the motivation of students were measured, the development of a series of innovative activities based on authentic materials and ICT and a post-study analysis to measure the proficiency and motivation of students after the treatment. The study concluded that innovative authentic materials and materials based on ICT had positive outcomes in the motivation of EFL learners and they were a driving force for EFL teaching system in Spanish schools. On the contrary to positive results about authentic materials, Peacock (1997) made a classroom research project to investigate whether authentic materials foster the classroom motivation of learners. Participants were beginner-level students in two classes at a South Korean university EFL Institute. Two observation sheets and a self-report questionnaire were used as methods. The results were surprising because while overall class motivation seemed to be increasing in the use of authentic materials, learners reported that authentic materials were less interesting than artificial materials.

Studies on online learning and CALL indicate that they contribute to a great extent to the motivation of EFL learners along with a support of teachers to encourage learners to break the habit of using traditional materials. Freiermuth and Huang (2012) did a research over chat task motivation. The target group included 20 Japanese EFL learners chatting with 19 Taiwanese EFL students. Chat groups were designed using the online software in nine groups consisting of either four or five students. They preferred a qualitative approach as it was more appropriate for the study, but learners were also given a post-survey after taking part in an online chat session to rate their level of enjoyment. As a result, it was known that learners were all motivated in terms of willingness to communicate, task attractiveness, task innovativeness and the need to communicate. The electronic synchronous chat was proven as a useful tool for language learners to motivate learners to communicate in the language. In a similar way, Hsu (2015) investigated the motivation of eleventh-grade students towards listening comprehension through a video-based language learning system for handheld devices, using three levels of caption filtering adapted to student needs. The experimental design was used in methodology setting as an experimental group composed of learners assigned bilingual caption modes according to their pre-test results and control group with learners assigned standard caption modes. Ultimately, learners in the experimental group enjoyed adaptive captions more, and they were more motivated intrinsically compared to those in the control group. In addition, this system was proven to be used as an effective tool to accelerate the motivation in listening skills. Another contribution was made to those studies by Pu (2009). He aimed to understand the relationship between autonomous learning capacity of EFL learners and motivation in CALL in China. Undergraduate students from five universities in Canton from China were included as participants in the study. The researcher used three different scales as the student background questionnaire, the questionnaire on student autonomous learning capacity, and the questionnaire on student motivation. As a part of descriptive research design, canonical correlation procedures to discover the relationship between learners' autonomous learning capacity and their motivations were preferred along with ANOVA to know how these two factors were affected by English proficiency levels of students. Results of this study indicated that there was a medium motivation towards CALL, but it still could not replace traditional learning setting totally. What

is more, it was seen that teachers should give more guidance to students in new learning concepts.

Studies on the relationship between motivation and basic skills in EFL show that intrinsic motivation contributes a great deal to writing and reading skills. Ghanbarpour (2014) researched to clarify whether instrumental motivation or integrative orientation is a predictor of willingness to communicate in EFL context. It was applied to three groups of 188 EFL with low, medium, and high levels of instrumental and integrative orientations. Learners were asked to fill a willingness to communicate questionnaire and a language learning motivation questionnaire. The study revealed that instrumental motivation was a better predictor of willingness to communicate in EFL than integrative motivation. Mori (2004) investigated the relationship between students' motivation toward reading in English through a specific reading task. The participants were the first year non-English major students at a four-year women's university in Japan. A questionnaire consisting of three parts as part one for motivation toward reading English, part two general motivation toward learning English and part three motivation toward the assigned task was used in methodology. As a result, two factors indicative of studying habit of learners and indicative of learners' intrinsic motives were proven to be the predictors of successand amount of reading in EFL. Tran (2007) made a research about motivation and learners' identity in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing classroom in Vietnam. Thirty English-major students at a university in central Vietnam took part in this study through an open-ended questionnaire. It was revealed that there was a correlation between students' potential to write creatively on their own in spite of writing in an imitative routine style and their motivation towards writing in EFL which proved the power of intrinsic motivation on writing. In addition, studies in this field demonstrate that different approaches and enjoyable activities such as projects, use of blogs and staying abroad boost the motivation of learners towards reading and writing skills in EFL. Wang and Lu (2016) wanted to test out the efficiency of an innovative project to motivate EFL writers. 26 students as the experimental group and 23 students as the control group of the same levels in terms of writing among first-year English college students in China participated in this writing project. Two individual-item-based questionnaires were administered in normal class sessions to specify learners' attitudes and their motivation levels towards the journal project.

This comparative study within writing project indicates that their motivation level increased toward writing as they experienced writing in an enjoyable and innovative way. Similar findings support Liu's study (2013) that aimed to measure the effects of an English Bar, a self-access center for students to practice oral English in terms of the motivation of learners towards speaking. The participants were randomly selected from all majors and grades in a key university in southern China. An 18-item adapted survey questionnaire was administered to those sample students in data collection process. The study revealed that students going to English-speaking bars more often showed higher levels of self-efficacy and more motivated to speak English. Finally, Sasaki (2011) examined the effects of overseas experiences of Japanese students' English writing ability and motivation. 37 Japanese freshman English students from the same university in Japan were the participants of the study. A qualitative research method was preferred as the researcher collected data through the first month of participants' first year, fourth month of their second, third and fourth year and interviewed the participants on their motivation and writing ability in English. In conclusion, students staying abroad were obviously more motivated to improve themselves and write in English. The studies related to motivation on vocabulary learning propose that creative techniques, technology-based vocabulary learning and intrinsic motivation provide more success with vocabulary building in EFL. Wang and Hsu (2015) researched the impact of autonomy on college students' task motivation and engagement with vocabulary learning tasks. 48 English majors who were mostly freshmen and sophomores at the ages of 18 and 20 at a university in northern Taiwan participated in the study. As particularly intrinsic motivation was aimed to be measured, IMI (Intrinsic motivation inventory) questionnaire was applied on students. Results showed that creative autonomy–supportive vocabulary tasks accelerated the motivation of learners. Similarly, Huang et al. (2016) investigated the influences of a creative method called FSVL (five step vocabulary learning) and a mobile learning tool for vocabulary in EFL context. The study covered 80 EFL students and a teacher. Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction motivation questionnaire and interviews and tests were used as data collection methods. Results enlightened that students learning vocabulary through FSVL with mobile learning tool were more successful and motivated than the students learning vocabulary through FSVL with traditional learning tools. Zhang et al. (2017) researched the motivational dimensions of vocabulary learning among

adolescent learners in EFL. 107 tenth graders including 68 females, 39 males took part in the study. Two scales were used in the data collection process: a scale to measure students' motivation towards vocabulary learning and a scale to test students' vocabulary growth. Results supported the vital influence of intrinsic motivation on vocabulary learning. As a different addition to those studies, the importance of pedagogical and sociocultural factors was revealed by Zheng (2012). The study of Zheng aimed to explore the role of L2 motivation in productive vocabulary development. Four advanced university-level Chinese EFL learners contributed to the study as participants with their vocabulary learning experiences. As it was a case study, Lexical Frequency Profile analysis and semi-structured interviews were used as methods. Findings indicated that learners' motivation on vocabulary learning was shaped within the pedagogical and sociocultural context surrounding them.

Studies of gender motivation in EFL show that there are differences between male and female learners in terms of topic preferences attracting them, intrinsic motivation and integrative motivation. Chen (2012) searched the gender difference in terms of topics they preferred to enhance and motivate online EFL learning. The participants of this study were 180 English Aural Training students for English majors in a university in central Taiwan. A topic preference questionnaire was used to collect data. The results demonstrated that male students were more interested in science, technology, education and economy topics than female students while they both shared the same beliefs on being motivated by entertaining topics and tools in EFL. Ahåt (2013) made a research on the impact of gender differences on motivation and learner performance in the context of EFL. 219 Ethnic minority students (mainly Uygur) of a university in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region of China took part in the study. The study had two dimensions in methodology; qualitative and quantitative design. Personal information sheet and a questionnaire on learner motivation were distributed to learners and the process was supported by interviews for deep exploration. According to the results, female learners had more intrinsic motivation than males learners did. What is more, females were more motivated towards the target culture and interaction with its speakers than males in EFL. Equivalently, Mori and Gobel (2006) examined differences in a motivational framework based on the variable of gender. 453 second-year students in the Faculty

of Cultural Studies of a large private university in Kyoto, Japan participated in the study. A questionnaire, consisting of 30 seven-point Likert scale items, was applied to the participants. Finally, it was seen that there was a variety in the integrative motivation of female and male students, which meant female learners were more motivated towards communicating with the people of the target community than the males.

Despite the investigations into the relationship between tasks and motivation in EFL state positive attributions, some studies based on the comparisons of two tasks record no meaningful positive influences. Carrero (2016) aimed to determine the influence of tasks on students' spoken interaction in English and motivation towards speaking English. The participants included thirty-five adolescent tenth grade students from a public school in Bogota, Colombia. Three qualitative techniques consisting of test, observation and interview were used as data collection tools. Results explained that there was a positive influence of tasks in oral interaction and motivation towards speaking. Kim and Kim (2016) wanted to clarify the difference between the topic-choice conditioned type of task and no-choice conditioned type of task in writing in terms of their effect on the motivation of learners in EFL. 31 Korean college students (11 males and 20 females) who were majoring in a range of different disciplines such as Economics, Industrial Engineering, French, Spanish, and Chemical Engineering took part in the study as participants. A task motivation questionnaire and a collation of the writings of learners were preferred to be used as data collection tools. Findings proved that topic-choice conditioned type of tasks in writing made learners more motivated than in the no-choice conditioned type of tasks in writing in EFL. Similarly, Marashi and Tahan-Shizari (2015) investigated the comparative effect of convergent and divergent condition tasks on writing motivation of EFL learners. The participants were sixty female intermediate EFL learners studying at a language school located in Karaj in Iran. After administering Preliminary English Test (PET) and composing two experimental groups, AMTB (Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery) was applied on learners to collect data. According to the results, although learners in the convergent group benefited more than the others in the divergent group in terms of improving writing, both groups showed the same level of motivation in writing.

According to studies on culture and motivation, integrative and instrumental motivation play a major role in the motivation of learners along with mass media, peer group cohesion and information technology, despite the fact that some other ones do not support integrative motivation in a positive way. Tsai (2012) investigated the effects of intercultural learning on the motivation of EFL learners. 143 Asian learners studying at a university in the United States took part in the study through a questionnaire. Results demonstrated that integrative motivation was as important as instrumental motivation in reflecting the effects of intercultural learning among students studying abroad. Kim (2010) researched the socio-political influences on the motivation of Korean high school EFL learners. The participants were 1.037 high school students attending six different schools in a major city in South Korea. A longitudinal comparative replication study was administered through a questionnaire comparing the results of 2002 and 2006. Results showed that peer group cohesion, mass media, and the Information Technology (IT) infrastructure had a major role in motivation and attitudes of Korean high school learners. Chen and Chang (2005) also examined the impact of culture on Chinese EFL learners. 567 EFL learners from Taiwan took part in the study. Data was collected via a questionnaire measuring three issues as motivation orientation, expectancy, and self-evaluated skill. Findings, in contradiction with others, indicated that integrative motivation played no crucial role in the motivation of Taiwan EFL learners; instead required motivation had more positive influence on them.

There is no doubt that there is a connection between motivation and self-assessment. Studies show that notions such as self-assessment, self-efficacy and self-regulated learning contribute to the motivation of EFL learners to a great extent in a positive way. Genç and Aydın (2016) explored the relationship between Turkish EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and their self-efficacy beliefs. The participants of the study were 210 Turkish EFL undergraduate learners studying English as major. Two scales; a scale to gather data on learners' beliefs in EFL and another scale to measure perceived self-efficacy of student teachers towards skills were applied in the participants' native language. Results showed that EFL learners had medium scores in their self-efficacy beliefs and were aware of the factors influencing their motivation. Salimi and Larsari (2015) investigated the comparative impact of self-assessment and teacher-assessment on learners' academic motivation.

60 EFL intermediate students in two groups at Novin-Rezvan Foreign Institute took part in the study. A scale to measure the motivation was administered twice at pre- and post-test along within two experimental groups as self-assessment and teacher assessment groups. It was observed that self-assessment had an enormous effect on the motivation of EFL learners. In a parallel way, Birjandi and Tamjid (2010) reviewed journal writing as a self-assessment technique in accelerating Iranian EFL learners' motivation. 60 intermediate TEFL students studying at the Islamic Azad University of Tabriz were participants of the research. The experimental method was preferred setting up two groups with the self-assessment technique of journal writing. Findings revealed that journal writing as a self-assessment technique had a positive impact on increasing learners' motivation. For a deeper enlightenment over the issue, in addition to those studies, Tsuda and Nakata (2013) investigated the factors affecting the self-regulated learning of Japanese EFL learners and aimed to identify the various types of self-regulated English learners. 1076 Japanese EFL high school students participated in the study. The study was conducted both by a questionnaire with 45 items covering learners' cognitive, behavioral, and affective aspects and a follow-up interview. It was concluded that five factors shaped self-regulated language learning: Metacognition, Cognitive Strategies, Self-efficacy, Self-motivation and Willingness to communicate (WTC), and Intrinsic Value. It was also revealed that students' background and external factors had a strong influence on their self-regulated learning.

2.2.2. Research on Motivation in Foreign Language Teaching

Although the literature has plenty of studies concerning motivation and foreign language learning, research investigating the motivation of EFL teachers is still scarce. Studies come up with different reasons for motivation in foreign language teaching including intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, making a balance of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors and the gap between ideal and actual senses.

The importance of intrinsic motivation is undeniable; furthermore, the studies stressing the influence of intrinsic motivation on foreign language teaching are the most common ones among all studies. Tsutsumi (2013) wanted to examine the relationship between motivation and foreign language teaching. The participants were 30 Japanese EFL teachers working at private universities. The research was

conducted through questionnaires composed of Likert scale questions. The study indicated that the motivation of teachers is mostly based on their intrinsic motivation, such as students' growth, self-growth, autonomy and creativity. Teachers highlighted the effect of intrinsic motivation over extrinsic rewards. Tsutsumi (2014) in another study of his, examined the motivation of university English teachers. Quantitative research was preferred with questionnaires with six Likert scale questions in the study. Twelve Japanese current EFL teachers at a university in Japan, 11 teachers at private university, and 1 teacher at the prefectural university took part in the study. The results showed that inner psychological aspects of motivation are quite an effective source of motivation for EFL university teachers. In spite of being overshadowed by intrinsic factors, job security as an extrinsic motivation was another implication of the study in a surprising way. Kumazawa (2011) researched the motivation of four novice EFL secondary school teachers working in Japan. Four novice EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Japan took part in the study via multiple interviews. A longitudinal and qualitative method was used. The findings stressed the prominence of intrinsic motivation and showed that the source of motivation of those teachers was a sense of discovery which meant not only discovering teaching techniques or social norms but discovering themselves both as a person or teacher. Similarly, Morganet al. (2007) investigated the factors behind the day-to-day motivation of classroom teachers. The participants were primary teachers entering the Irish Educational system from 2002 to 2006. The six-item teacher efficacy scale and a scale of 'Experience of Recurring Events'especially developed for this study were used as instruments. Results showed that there were four factors behind the motivation of teachers. These were commitment to teaching, teacher self-efficacy, organizational citizenship and willingness to learn new things. Teaching commitment referred to being willing to teach and self-efficacy meant teachers' perceptions of themselves toward own capabilities. Organizational citizenship referred to going beyond their strict frames while willingness to learn new things included a willingness for professional development and improving themselves as a teacher.

Secondly, the other group of studies put forward the effects of extrinsic motivation in foreign language teaching motivation. Sampson (2016) explored the classroom motivational dynamics in foreign language teaching. A case study and

journals were used as instruments. Due to its case-study design, the author and students ranging from around 15 to 20 years of age at a high school in Japan were the participants. The results revealed that motivation is related to members and experiences in classrooms and outside factors. Daniels (2016) researched the factors lying behind the motivation of teachers. A sample size of 32 teachers ranging in experience from one to forty-two years was included in the study through interviews as a part of a qualitative research. The findings proposed that teachers are influenced by curricular, relational and logistical factors. In addition, the master schedule, organization of time, and the condition of the physical environment were the most emphasized ones among logistical factors,

Apart from intrinsic and extrinsic influences on motivation in foreign language teaching, some other studies supported a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic effects. Tin et al. (1996) researched what motivated teachers. 27 highly motivated primary and secondary school teachers in Singapore were selected as participants of this study. Data were gathered through interviews with open-ended questions. As a result, it was concluded that teachers were motivated by their students, administrators and by the nature of the job "teaching", which meant both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons were lying behind the motivation of teaching. Thomson and Turner (2015) made an exploration on the motivation of K-12 teachers. 151 public teachers of different grade levels from the USA participated in the study. Before taking training, they were asked to respond to a pre-test survey following four scales as reasons for Continuing Teaching, motivation to attend the training, commitment to professional development, teaching efficacy and teaching responsibility. They also responded to a post-test survey after taking part in training. It was revealed that there were 4 key factors to continue teaching; intrinsic reasons, extrinsic reasons, job perception, and extended reasons. Intrinsic reasons referred to the factors related to the act of teaching and extrinsic reasons were about benefits of the job such as salary, summer vacations and job security. Job perception was defined as accepting the job of teaching as a noble status in the society. Lastly, extended reasons referred to seeing this job as a shift to other jobs and opportunities in other parts of countries or the world.

According to some studies, the motivation of foreign language teaching depends on the gap between ideal and actual selves. Gao and Xu (2014) made a

research to find out teachers' motivation and their professional commitment to their job. 10 secondary school English language teachers working in hinterlands regions in China took part in the study. As methods, the biographical interviews were preferred. It was conducted that there was a large gap between teachers' ideals and the reality they face in those problematic regions, which was an obstacle for their motivation. Similarly, Kumazawa (2013) conducted a research on teaching motivation of EFL teachers. Four novice EFL teachers working in secondary schools with different backgrounds were included in the study. In-depth interviews were applied as methods containing a total of 21 interviews during two and a half years. In conclusion, there was a contradiction between various selves of teachers, which affected their motivation in a negative way especially in the first days of their career. However, as the time passed, the gap between their actual selves and their ideal selves decreased gradually, which in time led to a rise in their teaching motivation.

2.2.3. Research on Motivation and In-service Teacher Training Programs

Research on motivation and in-service teacher training programmes throughout the world are presented as positive outcomes for teachers' motivation and education, negative outcomes which are under expectations and suggestions made at the end of the evaluation of in-service teacher training programmes.

There are many research results which reflect positive outcomes of in-service teacher training programs through the world. The study of Salomäki (2012) aimed to find the improvement of teachers during an intensive training of emotional skills and arts. The course evaluations and post-evaluation material taken from Comenius programme were used as data collecting tools and qualitative research design was preferred. Total eleven teachers who are nine females and two males working in primary, secondary and vocational and teacher training high schools were included in the study. The results revealed that the methods used for emotional skills could also be used for the professional development of teachers. Furthermore, it not only came up with positive outcomes for school education and also for teachers' motivation of professional development. In addition to that, Khattak et al. (2011) aimed to reveal the perspectives of teachers taking in-service training courses conducted by the Testing and Evaluation sub-committee of the English Language Teaching Reforms (ELTR) Project of the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan. Randomly

selected 100 teachers were selected taking these courses as participants of the study. A questionnaire composing of both close ended and open-ended questions was used as data collection tool. Findings demonstrated that majority of teachers found the training successful and effective. Similarly, the study of Bando and Li (2014) had a purpose of evaluating the efficiency of a ten-day component of the Inter-American Partnership for Education (IAPE) program in Mexico. 144 teachers actively working at secondary public schools in the states of Puebla and Tlaxcala took part in the study. Data were gathered in two sections as a baseline measure, which contained the Diagnostic Instrument for the Measurement of English (DIME) test along with a closed question questionnaire and follow-up. As a result, the teacher training showed improvements in teacher knowledge and in pedagogical techniques. Cheung also (2013) wanted to examine the influences of an in-service teacher training course on writing skill on EFL teachers. 28 EFL teachers working in local secondary schools were included in the study. Data were collected via pre- and post-course questionnaires along with teachers' portfolios applied at the end of the course. Results revealed that the course made a positive impact on teachers' experience with teaching writing practices.

Apart from many positive outcomes of the studies on in-service teacher training programmes, the study of Lee (2010) determined the impact of a writing teacher training programme on EFL teachers in Hong Kong. The participants were four EFL teachers with teaching experiences from 5 to 15 years. The study adopted a case study approach with in-depth individual interviews. Results surprisingly showed that writing education did not have much impact on the improvement of EFL teachers because writing instruction was generally conducted by inexperienced and underprepared teachers through the world.

The rest of the research depending on the efficiency of in-service teacher training programmes came up with some suggestions. Nicolaidis and Mattheoudakis (2008) investigated the efficiency of short Teacher Training Courses (TTCs) held at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki on EFL teachers in Greece. Participants included 15 teachers working in public schools and 6 teachers working in private schools who were the trainees of these courses. Data were analyzed through four steps as a half-course questionnaire, an end-of-course questionnaire, an end-of-course oral discussion, a one-year follow-up questionnaire. According to the results,

four suggestions were made to promote the efficiency of in-service training courses. Both of them were ongoing cooperation between different agents of theeducational system and change in teachers' beliefs. Third, a combination of experiential and awareness raising practices in training courses was necessary for teacher development. Fourth, knowledge was required to be adapted and applied based on context-specific requirements. Moreover, Yan (2008) explored long-term efficiency of a cross-cultural in-service training which is Sino-British adult education English language teaching Project course for teachers of EFL in Central China. 53 full-time and 172 part-time EFL teachers with teaching experience from a couple of years to over 10 years took part in the study. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were utilized as data collection tools. Findings put forward some suggestions for in-service training courses' efficiency. These suggestions were increasing communicative language teaching methods with teachers' input, group/pair work with individual work, using imported materials and local textbooks, allowing more real-life tasks, developing test abilities caring for communicative competence, teaching with self-access provision and creating an updated teacher-made syllabus. It was also added that cross-cultural communication was vital for participants.

2.2.4. Research on Motivation and In-service Teacher Training Programs in the ELT Settings in Turkey

Although few studies are conducted to reveal the impacts of in-service training courses on EFL teachers in Turkey, research done in this field can be grouped as studies with positive results, studies with negative outcomes and studies revealing suggestions for in-service training courses.

Some studies highlight the positive impacts of in-service training courses. Atay (2007) investigated the effects of an in-service training programme on classroom research in Turkey in terms of the motivation of teachers. Sixty-two EFL Turkish teachers with the average age of 33.5 and 9.22 teaching experience took part in the programme. Data were collected through teachers' narratives and journals. The results reflected that despite some difficulties, the programme had a positive impact on the professional development of teachers. Similarly, Isikoglu et al. (2009) conducted a study to reveal the effects of an in-service training programme examining in-service teachers' instructional beliefs about student-centered education.

307 in-service teachers working at K-8 schools were included in the research. A quantitative research method was preferred using a created inventory composing of 4 scales in order; educational objectives, content, teaching strategies, and instructional assessment scales. As a result, in-service teachers held positive beliefs about student-centered education, which showed the rise in the motivation of teachers attending this course. Last, the study of Personn and Yigitoglu (2015) aimed to clarify the influence of an in-service teacher training (INSET) course related to the professional development and classroom practices of novice teachers in Turkey. There were two novice teachers at the ages of 24 and 25 as participants in the study. The research was conducted via structured initial interviews, class observations and post-observation interviews based on a case study approach. According to the results obtained from the study, participants responded positively on the INSET programs' contents although the INSET course did not have much effect on their teaching.

Apart from those studies, there are some other explorations indicating constraints of in-service teacher training in Turkey. Uysal (2012) aimed to investigate the impacts of a one-week INSET offered by the Turkish Ministry of Education to EFL teachers. There were three groups of participants which were three teacher trainers, six participant teachers and 72 teachers (83% female, 17% male) from 37 different public primary schools. Data were collected via course material scales, interviews with trainers and teachers, and through a questionnaire distributed to 72 teachers. As a result, in spite of the positive attitudes of teachers towards the course in general, the program had lacking sides especially in terms of planning and evaluation process, and its impact on teachers' practices. In a parallel way, Bayrakci (2009) made an exploration of in-service training activities in Turkey and Japan. Visits to the educational institutions and semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data. The participants were administrators, experts and teachers from Hokkaido Board of Education, Hokkaido Education Research Institute, Hokkaido Education Center, Information Processing Education Center, Educational Software Library Center and various types of schools. The study exposed the most crucial problems related to in-service training activities in Turkey, which were insufficient professional staff, no collaborative partnerships between teachers, no provision for feedback and no systematic in-service training model. Similarly, Ünal (2010) did a research on the effects of in-service teacher training programs. The participants were

150 EFL teachers and 50 school administrators working in the state schools in Adana. Two various questionnaires were used both for teachers and administrators. The results indicated that teachers did not find in-service teacher training programs they attended sufficient enough to meet their needs and they had difficulties in implementing the methods they learned in the courses. Koç (2016) also investigated the impact of in-service teacher training courses offered to English teachers in Turkey. The participants were 32 English teachers working at elementary schools. A questionnaire adapted from an INSET Evaluation Scale was used to collect data. The findings showed that in-service teacher training courses are not successful at meeting EFL teachers' needs.

Last, the study of Bayar (2014) ended up with some suggestions made for in-service training programs in Turkey. It was on possible effective professional development activities offered by teachers who were 8 male and female sixteen elementary school teachers. Interviews were used to gather data at the end of the course over a 12-month period. The findings showed that effective professional development course should be a match to existing teacher needs and school needs, involve teachers in the design of professional development activities, provide active participation opportunities, allow long-term engagement, and have high-quality instructors. Dikilitaş (2013) also investigated the impact of in-service teacher training on trainees' beliefs and classroom practices in his study. A case-study design was adopted, using interviews and observations. There were four English teachers sharing similar professional backgrounds. The study revealed some suggestions that in-service training programmes should be designed by using relevant teaching activities and include pre- and post-training monitoring activities. It was also concluded that a follow-up support was necessary for 6 months.

3. METHODOLOGY

This section covers the research design, detailed information about participants, data collection tools and procedures along with the analysis of data.

3.1. Research Design

The study intended to find the motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey. A descriptive research design was preferred for this study, for two reasons. First, there were many English teachers in lots of schools and it was hard to evaluate their motivation levels in a qualitative way. Second, teachers were in such a busy schedule that they did not have enough time to be interviewed regularly. "*Furthermore, descriptive research can be particularly valuable in today's age of large datasets in which the volume of information may otherwise obscure recognition of basic relationships. Descriptive research can be used to distill these datasets into meaningful dimensions to uncover patterns and inform and improve decision-making... Informative descriptive studies often bring to bear new data that provide more convincing evidence about a phenomenon.*"(Loeb et al., 2017, p. 9).

3.2. Participants

Participants included 130 English teachers as 23 male and 107 female ones working in both public and private schools in Istanbul and some other cities in Turkey. The high percentage of female teachers reflects the dominance of female population over male population in EFL settings. 110 of those teachers work in public and 20 of them work in private schools. In addition, 103 of teachers have bachelor's degree, while 24 of them have a master and 3 of them have Ph.D. degrees. They are a heterogenous group with a wide range of school types from kindergarten to high schools and within the age group starting from 25 to 55. They are also different in terms of their highest graduation degree as follows: English Language

teaching, English Language and literature, translation and interpretation, history, American culture and literature, theology, educational administration and educational sciences. The participants in this study took their in-service teacher training courses in Turkey (105%), UK (16) %, Italy (3%), Czech Republic (2%) , Germany (2%), U.S.A. (1%), and Iran (1%).

3.3. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

A new questionnaire to measure the motivation levels of in-service EFL teachers was developed for this study as a combination of two separate questionnaires. An INSET course participation survey developed by Yan and He (2015) and a motivation to teach scale developed by Kauffman, Soylu and Duke (2011) were combined and distributed as the new in-service EFL teacher motivation questionnaire to the teachers with slight changes. These modifications to the measures were necessary, owing to the differences in terms of education system between the country applied and Turkey. That is why, some slight cultural adjustments were made on that questionnaire in the parts questioning the highest degree, the type of school teachers were working and their proficiencies. The item questioning the medium of instruction in teaching English was removed as Turkey did not have a chance of the preferences given as the medium of instruction in teaching English.

The first part of the questionnaire was the adapted version of inset course participation survey (Yan and He, 2015). It had items examining the background of teachers, expectations and experiences of the course and lastly the suggestions for the INSET course. The second part of the questionnaire was taken from the motivation to teach scale by Kauffman, Soylu and Duke, 2011 and used in the same way without any alterations. The second part of the questionnaire was aimed to clarify the motivation of those in-service EFL teachers after taking part in in-service teacher training programs.

In the questions 13, 15, 16, 17, five Likert type items were used as "strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree and strongly agree". In question 18, six Likert type items were used as "strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat

disagree, somewhat agree, agree and strongly agree". The other questions include short answer items and choosing the most suitable one among options.

At first, permissions to apply this questionnaire were taken from the National Education Directorate of Istanbul on condition that it would be applied on voluntary teachers without any delay in education. That is why, it was declared at the beginning of the questionnaire that all the responses given to the questionnaire would be kept confidential and only be used for a scientific study as a master thesis. No additional information was asked from participants such as their names or school addresses apart from their background information necessary for the results such as their age, gender, highest degree held, the subject of highest degree, teaching experience, the degree of school they work and the type of school they work.

138 questionnaires were aimed to be a part of the study, but 8 questionnaires were cancelled as some parts were missing or not answered. 40 teachers were made to respond to the questionnaire directly with paper handouts voluntarily. 90 other teachers gave responses to the questionnaire through online access voluntarily as well.

3.4. Data Analysis

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to analyze the data of the motivation of in-service EFL teachers questionnaire in this study. That is why, percentages and frequencies of participants' gender and age were computed at first. Later, minimum and maximum scores, percentages, frequencies and mean scores of graduation degree, subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, the degree and type of school the participants work, teaching experience, forms of in-service training courses, topics of in-service courses, countries where in-service training takes place and ways of finding those courses were calculated. Levene's t-test was used to analyze two items with two variables; gender (male and female) and school types of teachers (public and private), while ANOVA was preferred to calculate the correlation between more than two variables for the items related to age groups, the highest degree held by teachers, subject of the highest degree, course forms taken by teachers, degree of schools where teachers work, course topics, countries where in-service teacher training courses are held and ways of finding those courses.

Moreover, items related to the reasons for participation, specific course benefits, course drawbacks, suggestions for in-service training courses and teaching motivation were analyzed through Likert type scale options as shown on tables 2, 5, 6, 7 and 9.

The reliability coefficients and percentages of variances were calculated for the total questionnaire items. The reliability coefficient was found as 0,927 with the percentage of variance 79.40%. The total reliability coefficients for 76 items showed a high level of reliability (.927). Further, the total of variance (79.40%) proved that the questionnaire was valid as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Reliability Statistics of Inservice Teacher Training Motivation Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,927	76

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section covers both the results of in-service teacher training motivation questionnaire and the findings of the study. The results are presented through tables obtained from SPSS programme. Each item from the questionnaire is given via those charts and explained. Professional development preferences of teachers, reasons to attend in-service teacher training courses, the major obstacles to the participation of in-service teacher training courses, general evaluation of in-service teacher training courses, specific benefits of in-service teacher training courses, drawbacks of in-service teacher training courses, suggestions for in-service teacher training courses, the subject areas of in-service teacher training course benefits, teaching motivation of in-service EFL teachers, age factor in the motivation of in-service teachers, gender factor in the motivation of in-service teachers, graduation degree effect in the motivation of in-service teachers, subject of the highest degree factor in the motivation of in-service teachers, teaching experience factor in the motivation of in-service teachers, the effect of in-service training course forms on motivation of EFL teachers, the effect of school degrees that in-service teachers work on motivation of EFL teachers, the effect of school types of in-service teachers on motivation of EFL teachers, the effect of in-service training course topics on motivation of EFL teachers, country factor of in-service training courses in the motivation of EFL teachers, the ways of reaching in-service training courses and motivation of EFL teachers are explained in order. Findings demonstrate visible results answering the research questions.

4.1. Professional Development Preferences of Teachers

Participants were asked which forms of professional development they preferred. Values in Table 2 show that the most preferred options among teachers are teaching practice (74.6%) and short training courses (69.2%). The lowest rate belongs to journal writing (9.2%) followed by off-work training (24.4%) and lectures (26.2%).

Table 2. Analysis of Teacher Preferences on Professional Development

Items	N		not preferred	preferred	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Off-work training	130	F	97	33	1.25	.44	.04
		Percent	74.6	24.4			
Teaching practice	130	F	33	97	1.75	.44	.04
		Percent	25.4	74.6			
Collaborative research and teaching	130	F	68	62	1.48	.50	.04
		Percent	52.3	47.7			
Journal writing	130	F	118	12	1.09	.29	.03
		Percent	90.8	9.2			
Seminars	130	F	67	63	1.48	.50	.04
		Percent	51.5	48.5			
Lectures	130	F	96	34	1.26	.44	.04
		Percent	73.8	26.2			
Peer observation	130	F	83	47	1.36	.48	.04
		Percent	63.8	36.2			
Short training courses	130	F	40	90	1.69	.46	.04
		Percent	30.8	69.2			

4.2. Reasons to Attend In-service Teacher Training Courses

The results shown in Table 3 suggest that teachers are mostly led to those courses by some requirements based on their job or institutions. Further, they attend those courses to improve their proficiency and teaching along with their desire to enlarge their network and catch various career prospects. When each item is analyzed, it is observed that school requirements (48.5%), its potential help with

career prospects (41.5%), school support (40.8%) and my desire to enlarge network (40.8%) are chosen as "agree" with a high percentage compared to the others. Other items "my desire to improve my subject knowledge", "my desire to gain more information", "my desire to improve teaching" and "my desire to improve English proficiency" share high percents with "agree" and "strongly agree".

Table 3. Analysis of the Reasons for Course Participation

Items	N		Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Reputation of the university	130	F	14	23	37	49	7	3.09	1.10	.10
		Percent	10.8	17.7	28.5	37.7	5.4			
School support	130	F	7	12	35	53	23	3.56	1.06	.09
		Percent	5.4	9.2	26.9	40.8	17.7			
School requirements	130	F	6	10	26	63	25	3.70	1.02	.09
		Percent	4.6	7.7	20.0	48.5	19.2			
My desire to improve English proficiency	130	F	8	7	14	49	52	4.00	1.13	.10
		Percent	6.2	5.4	10.8	37.7	40.0			
My desire to improve teaching	130	F	8	2	8	53	59	4.18	1.05	.09
		Percent	6.2	1.5	6.2	40.8	45.4			
My desire to improve my subject knowledge	130	F	5	3	9	61	52	4.17	.94	.08
		Percent	3.8	2.3	6.9	46.9	40.0			
My desire to gain more information	130	F	8	2	13	51	55	4.12	1.07	.09
		Percent	6.2	1.5	10.0	39.2	42.3			
My desire to enlarge network	130	F	4	9	27	53	37	3.85	1.02	.09
		Percent	3.1	6.9	20.8	40.8	28.5			
Its potential help with my career prospects	130	F	6	9	22	54	39	3.85	1.07	.09
		Percent	4.6	6.9	16.9	41.5	30.0			

4.3. The Major Obstacles in the Participation of In-service Teacher Training Courses

According to the values in Table 4, teachers think that limited school support (50.8%) and high cost (47.7%) are crucial obstacles to reach in-service training courses. The other options "unavailability" (40.8%), "limited information about training" (28.5%), "lack of interest" (17.7%) and "no certification granted" (10.8%) follow them.

Table 4. Analysis of the Problems with Course Participation

Items	N		not preferred	preferred	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
High cost	130	F	68	62	1.48	.50	.04
		Percent	52.3	47.7			
Unavailability	130	F	77	53	1.41	.49	.04
		Percent	59.2	40.8			
Limited school support	130	F	64	66	1.51	.50	.04
		Percent	49.2	50.8			
Limited information about training	130	F	93	37	1.28	.45	.04
		Percent	71.5	28.5			
No certification granted	130	F	116	14	1.11	.31	.03
		Percent	89.2	10.8			
Lack of interest	130	F	107	23	1.18	.38	.03
		Percent	82.3	17.7			

4.4. General Evaluation of In-service Teacher Training Courses

Based on the findings of Table 5, teachers generally believe that in-service teacher training courses met their expectations. It can be seen clearly from Table 4

that the courses fulfilled their expectations (46.6%) and the course partly met their expectations (36.2%).

Table 5. Analysis of General Course Evaluation

Items	N		not preferred	preferred	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
The course exceeded my expectations	130	F	106	23	1.25	.94	.08
		Percent	81.5	17.7			
The course fulfilled my expectations	130	F	72	58	1.45	.50	.04
		Percent	55.4	46.6			
The course only partly met my expectations	130	F	83	47	1.36	.48	.04
		Percent	63,8	36,2			
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	130	F	122	7	1.08	.34	.03
		Percent	93,8	5.4			

4.5. Specific Benefits of In-service Teacher Training Courses

According to the results demonstrated in Table 6, teachers believe they improve themselves in terms of their teaching and their English proficiency by participating in-service courses. What is more, they think that courses help them to enlarge their networks and support their career prospects. 72 EFL teachers (55.4%) agreed that they gained new information from those courses. Among other statements, "I have improved my teaching" was agreed with 53.1% percent, "I have enlarged my network" was agreed with 47.7% percent, "It can help my career prospects" was agreed with 44.6 % percent and "I have improved my English proficiency" was agreed by 37.7% percent.

Table 6. Analysis of Specific Course Benefits

Items	N		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
I have improved my English proficiency	130	F	10	14	38	49	19	3.41	1.10	.10
		Percent	7.7	10.8	29.2	37,7	14.6			
I have improved my teaching	130	F	5	8	23	69	25	3.78	.96	.08
		Percent	3.8	6.2	17.7	53.1	19.2			
I have gained some new information	130	F	5	1	16	72	36	4.02	.88	.08
		Percent	3.8	0.8	12.3	55.4	27.7			
I have enlarged my network	130	F	5	8	31	62	24	3.71	.97	.08
		Percent	3.8	6.2	23.8	47.7	18.5			
It can help my career prospects	130	F	8	10	33	58	21	3.57	1.05	.09
		Percent	6.2	7.7	25.4	44.6	16.2			

4.6. Drawbacks of In-service Teacher Training Courses

Values in Table 7 display that teachers do not find in-service training courses irrelevant or too theoretical. They also do not believe that there is little interaction with colleagues, information obtained from the course is insufficient and there is little trainer- participant communication while they find follow-up support insufficient. When the items are analyzed one by one as shown in Table 6, it is understood that teachers neither agreed nor disagreed for the statement "the courses are too short" with 36.9 %. Second, 46.9% percent of teachers disagreed with the statement "it is irrelevant". Third, they also disagreed that the courses were too theoretical with 42.3%. Fourth, they believed that peer interaction in the courses was good enough to meet their expectations with 39.2%. They also disagreed with the statement "information obtained is insufficient" with 40.8%. Similarly, they disagreed with insufficiency of trainer-participant communication with 42.3%.

Lastly, they agreed with the statement "There is no follow-up support" after taking part in in-service training courses.

Table 7. The Analysis of Course Drawbacks

Items	N		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
It's too short	130	F	10	43	48	29	0	2.74	.89	.08
		Percent	7.7	33.1	36.9	22.3	0			
It's irrelevant	130	F	19	61	34	15	1	2.37	.90	.08
		Percent	14.6	46,9	26,2	11,5	0.8			
It's too theoretical	130	F	16	55	25	25	9	2.66	1.13	.10
		Percent	12,3	42,3	19,2	19,2	6,9			
There is little peer interaction	130	F	17	51	33	24	5	2.61	1.05	.09
		Percent	13.1	39,2	25,4	18,5	3,8			
Information obtained is insufficient	130	F	19	53	33	21	4	2.52	1.03	.09
		Percent	14,6	40,8	25,4	16,2	3,1			
There is little trainer-participant communication	130	F	18	55	26	30	1	2.55	1.02	.09
		Percent	13,8	42,3	20,0	23,1	0.8			
There is no follow-up support	130	F	11	34	27	47	11	3.10	1.14	.10
		Percent	8.5	26,2	20.8	36.2	8.5			

4.7. Suggestions for In-service Teacher Training Courses

According to the outcomes shown in Table 8, teachers mainly wish to be supported by in-service teacher training courses in mostly practical ways such as being aware of their needs and on-the-job training. In detail, they want their needs to be considered (66.2%) and demand on-the-job training (63.1%). Further, they are in the need of more courses and more contents (61.5%). In addition, they prefer

research collaborations (60 %) and field observations (57.7%). Last, they agree to be provided professional development resources (47.7%) and to be supported to open online teacher forum (43.1%).

Table 8. The Analysis of Suggestions for In-service Teacher Training Courses

Items	N		Strongly dis.	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Considering more teachers' needs	130	F	6	4	15	86	19	3.83	.88	.08
		Percent	4.6	3.1	11.5	66.2	14.6			
Offering more courses	130	F	4	2	26	80	18	3.82	.80	.07
		Percent	3.1	1.5	20.0	61.5	13.8			
Offering more contents for each course	130	F	5	5	22	80	18	3.78	.87	.08
		Percent	3.8	3.8	16.9	61.5	13.8			
Providing field observations	130	F	4	4	26	75	21	3.81	.85	.07
		Percent	3.1	3.1	20.0	57,7	16.2			
Providing on-the-job training	130	F	3	3	22	82	20	3.87	.78	.07
		Percent	2.3	2.3	16.9	63.1	15.4			
Organizing research collaborations	130	F	2	6	28	78	16	3.77	.78	.07
		Percent	1.5	4.6	21.5	60.0	12.3			
Opening online teacher forum	130	F	4	13	40	56	17	3.53	.95	.08
		Percent	3.1	10.0	30.8	43.1	13.1			
Providing PD resources	130	F	8	9	33	62	18	3.56	1.02	.09
		Percent	6.2	6.9	25.4	47.7	13.8			

4.8. The Subject Areas of In-service Teacher Training Course Benefits

As displayed in Table 9, it can be concluded that teachers mostly benefitted from the areas directly related to teaching and ELT such as teaching skills, creativity, teaching young learners, teaching vocabulary along with skills of technology use while they do not think the courses are beneficial for them in the subjects less related to teaching English such as education for parents, teaching adults and school management. The most benefitted subjects are creativity (76.2%), teaching skills (72.3%), teaching young learners (66.9%), improving communication skills (64.6%), improving technology use (60%), teaching vocabulary (58.5) and classroom management (57.7%). They do not consider to get benefits of education for parents (77.7%), teaching adult learners (60.8%), teaching grammar (59.2%), school management (58.5%), combating failure (57.7%) and quality control and evaluation in education (56.2%). Surprisingly, approximately half of the teachers believe the courses are useful for them in terms of outdoor learning while the other half thinks they are not.

Table 9. Analysis of Subject Areas of Course Benefits

Items	N		not preferred	preferred	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Classroom management	130	F	55	75	1.58	.50	.04
		Percent	42,3	57,7			
Creativity	130	F	31	99	1.76	.43	.04
		Percent	23,8	76,2			
Teaching basic skills in English (speaking,listening,reading, writing)	130	F	36	94	1.72	.45	.04
		Percent	27,7	72,3			
Teaching grammar	130	F	77	53	1.41	.49	.04
		Percent	59,2	40,8			
Teaching vocabulary	130	F	54	76	1.58	.49	.04

Table 9. Analysis of Subject Areas of Course Benefits (Continuing)

		Percent	41,5	58,5			
Improving communication skills	130	F	46	84	1.65	.48	.04
		Percent	35,4	64,6			
Improving technology use in education	130	F	52	78	1.60	.49	.04
		Percent	40,0	60,0			
Combating failure	130	F	75	55	1.42	.50	.04
		Percent	57,7	42,3			
Education for parents	130	F	101	29	1.22	.42	.04
		Percent	77,7	22,3			
Quality control and evaluation in education	130	F	73	57	1.44	.50	.04
		Percent	56,2	43,8			
Outdoor learning	130	F	69	61	1.47	.50	.04
		Percent	53,1	46,9			
School management and educational leadership	130	F	76	54	1.42	.49	.04
		Percent	58,5	41,5			
Teaching young learners	130	F	43	87	1.67	.47	.04
		Percent	33,1	66,9			
Teaching adult learners	130	F	79	50	1.41	.54	.05
		Percent	60,8	38,5			

4.9. Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL Teachers

When the values of the Table 10 are examined, it is clear to see that teachers are generally motivated to teach and satisfied enough with their job after participating in in-service teacher training courses. According to the findings on table 9, teachers strongly agree that teaching is its own reward (33.1%). The highest "agree" rate belongs to the statement "I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment" with 42.3 % and the statement "I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching" follows it with 40.8%. Furthermore, teachers feel they have an influence on the community (36.2%). Teachers also agree that they feel excited at talking about their decision to become a teacher in the past and they like the freedom of their jobs (33.8%). In addition, teachers believe that they can be employed easily thanks to their profession and their job is honorable and respected throughout the community (32.3%). They find their job enjoyable with 26.9% agree and 20% strongly agree on rate. 23.8% of teachers state they will go on teaching even if they become a millionaire. Besides, teachers are indecisive to choose somewhat agree or agree with the statements "I chose teaching because it will help me get a better position in the future" and "I chose to teach because it gives me time to do other things" with the rates of 23.8% and 25.4%.

Table 10. Analysis of Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL teachers

Items	N		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
I chose teaching because it will help me get a better position in the future	130	F	10	26	14	33	31	16	3.75	1.51	.13
		Percent	7,7	20.0	10,8	25,4	23,8	12,3			
I chose teaching because it gives me time to do other things	130	F	5	22	20	31	33	19	3.94	1.42	.12
		Percent	3.8	16.9	15.4	23.8	25.4	14.6			
I cannot imagine a career more enjoyable than teaching	130	F	8	19	19	23	35	26	4.05	1.54	.14
		Percent	6.2	14.6	14.6	17.7	26.9	20.0			

Table 10. Analysis of Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL teachers (Continuing)

I chose teaching because I like the freedom it gives	130	F	11	9	12	30	44	24	4.22	1.47	.13
		Percent	8.5	6.9	9.2	23.1	33.8	18.5			
I chose teaching because a teaching degree will make me employable just about anywhere	130	F	5	14	19	29	42	21	4.17	1.37	.12
		Percent	3.8	10.8	14.6	22.3	32.3	16.2			
I get excited when I talk to others about my decision to become a teacher	130	F	6	17	12	27	44	24	4.22	1.44	.13
		Percent	4.6	13.1	9.2	20.8	33.8	18.5			
I chose teaching because as a teacher I will be respected throughout the community	130	F	10	17	12	33	42	16	3.98	1.46	.13
		Percent	7.7	13.1	9.2	25.4	32.3	12.3			
I chose teaching because the benefits are good	130	F	9	9	25	39	35	13	3.93	1.33	.12
		Percent	6.9	6.9	19.2	30.0	26.9	10.0			
I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching	130	F	5	9	15	24	53	24	4.41	1.32	.12
		Percent	3.8	6.9	11.5	18.5	40.8	18.5			
I would become a teacher even if I won 100 million dollars in the lottery	130	F	23	16	22	16	31	22	3.63	1.75	.15
		Percent	17.7	12.3	16.9	12.3	23.8	16.9			
I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment	130	F	4	15	9	20	55	27	4.45	1.37	.12
		Percent	3.1	11.5	6.9	15.4	42.3	20.8			

4.10.   Age Factor in the Motivation of In-service Teachers

Based on the values shown in Table 11, five items show statistically significant differences between age groups. The first four items are related to the benefits which teachers get from in-service training courses and the last one is about their teaching motivation. First, the teachers between the ages of 25-35 (x=1.57) and the teachers with 46-55 age group (x=1.58) nearly have the same correlation in terms of preferring seminars as in-service teacher training courses. Second, teachers in the age group of 46-55 age group found in-service teacher training courses beneficial in terms of improving their creativity in teaching (x=2.00). In addition, teachers between the ages of 25-35 found those courses successful at improving them on quality control and evaluation in education (x=1.54) compared to the others. Teachers also in the age group of 25-35 surprisingly found in-service teaching training courses useful at making them skillful at teaching adult learners (x=1.51). Last, teachers between the ages of 25-35 and teachers in the age group of 46-55 think that they choose teaching as it gives them time to do other things (x=4.17).

Table 11. The Correlation of Age Groups with Items

ANOVA						
	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig.
Seminars	25-35	72.00	1.57	0.50	3.71	0.03
	36-45	46.00	1.33	0.47		
	46-55	12.00	1.58	0.51		
Creativity	25-35	72.00	1.68	0.47	3.84	0.02
	36-45	46.00	1.83	0.38		
	46-55	12.00	2.00	0.00		
Quality control and evaluation in education	25-35	72.00	1.54	0.50	3.73	0.03
	36-45	46.00	1.33	0.47		
	46-55	12.00	1.25	0.45		

Table 11. The Correlation of Age Groups with Items (Continuing)

Teaching adult learners	25-35	72.00	1.51	0.58		
	36-45	46.00	1.26	0.44	3.34	0.04
	46-55	12.00	1.33	0.49		
I chose teaching because it gives me time to do other things	25-35	72.00	4.17	1.32		
	36-45	46.00	3.52	1.47	3.15	0.05
	46-55	12.00	4.17	1.59		

4.11. Gender Factor in the Motivation of In-service Teachers

As displayed in Table 12, there are eleven items which show significant correlation with gender. To start with, female teachers prefer collaborative research (x=1.50) and peer observation (x=1.38) more than male teachers as a professional development resource. Male teachers think obtaining no certificate at the end of the course (x=1.17) and their lack of interest to attend those courses are major obstacles to participate in in-service training courses. Female teachers state that the course exceeded their expectations more than males (x=1.30). In addition, female teachers prefer in-service training courses as on-the-job training (x=3.92) and research collaborations (x=3.79) more than male teachers. The subjects of getting benefit from in-service training courses also differ. While female teachers are equipped with outdoor learning (x=1.49), school management and educational leadership (x=1.44) and teaching young learners (x=1.70) more, male teachers find those courses more successful at providing technology use in education (x=1.70). In terms of teaching motivation, female teachers believe teaching career will make them employable easily (x=4.26). They also get excited when they talk to others about choosing teaching career (x=4.36). Finally, they prefer teaching for the joy of teaching (x=4.57), they teach as teaching gives them a sense of personal fulfillment (x=4.64) and they consider teaching as its own reward (x=4.79).

Table 12. T-Test Results of Gender Factor

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
					F	Sig.
Collaborative research and teaching	Male	23	1.35	0.49	10.68	0.00
	Female	107	1.50	0.50		
Peer observation	Male	23	1.26	0.45	7.67	0.01
	Female	107	1.38	0.49		
No certification granted	Male	23	1.17	0.39	4.55	0.04
	Female	107	1.09	0.29		
Lack of interest	Male	23	1.39	0.50	21.79	0.00
	Female	107	1.13	0.34		
The course exceeded my expectations	Male	23	1.04	0.21	4.04	0.05
	Female	107	1.30	1.03		
Providing on-the-job training	Male	23	3.65	0.88	5.00	0.03
	Female	107	3.92	0.75		
Organizing research collaborations	Male	23	3.65	1.03	8.60	0.00
	Female	107	3.79	0.72		
Improving technology use in education	Male	23	1.70	0.47	7.06	0.01
	Female	107	1.58	0.50		
Outdoor learning	Male	23	1.39	0.50	4.67	0.03
	Female	107	1.49	0.50		
School management and educational leadership	Male	23	1.30	0.47	10.22	0.00
	Female	107	1.44	0.50		

Table 12. T-Test Results of Gender Factor (Continuing)

Teaching young learners	Male	23	1.52	0.51	4.25	0.04
	Female	107	1.70	0.46		
I chose teaching because a teaching degree will make me employable just about anywhere	Male	23	3.74	1.63	4.53	0.04
	Female	107	4.26	1.30		
I get excited when I talk to others about my decision to become a teacher	Male	23	3.52	1.73	5.22	0.02
	Female	107	4.36	1.33		
I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching	Male	23	3.65	1.56	5.41	0.02
	Female	107	4.57	1.21		
I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment	Male	23	3.52	1.53	5.16	0.03
	Female	107	4.64	1.25		
Teaching is its own reward	Male	23	3.83	1.70	5.07	0.03
	Female	107	4.79	1.30		

4.12. Graduation Degree Effect in the Motivation of In-service Teachers

As seen from the Table 13, the highest graduation degree makes a significant difference only in two items which are teachers' desire to improve their teaching and proficiency level of English as reasons of participation in in-service training courses. Teachers with bachelor's degree have more desire to attend those courses to improve their English proficiency (x=4.11) compared to teachers with other graduate degrees. In addition, teachers with bachelor's (x=4.22) and master degree (x=4.21) share very close ratings in their purposes to attend those courses. Both groups of teachers wish to improve their teaching via in-service training courses.

Table 13. The Correlation of Graduation Degree with Items

ANOVA						
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
My desire to improve English proficiency	BA	103	4.11	1.11	4.51	0.01
	MA	24	3.75	1.03		
	PhD	3	2.33	1.53		
	Total	130	4.00	1.13		
My desire to improve teaching	BA	103	4.22	1.03	5.01	0.01
	MA	24	4.21	0.93		
	PhD	3	2.33	1.53		
	Total	130	4.18	1.05		

4.13. Subject of the Highest Degree Factor in the Motivation of In-service Teachers

It is seen that there are statistically significant differences between subjects with the highest degree held by teachers and four items. First, teachers who are history graduates (x=1.50) and English language and literature (x=1.27) prefer journal writing as a professional development resource more than the other teachers. Second, teachers who are translation and interpretation (x=3.67) and English language teaching (x=3.46) graduates state they improve their English proficiency via in-service courses in contrast to teachers who are graduates of history (x=1.50). Third, teachers that are graduates of translation and interpretation and educational sciences believe in-service teacher training courses may help their career prospects in a parallel way (x=4.00) in contrast with the graduates of history (x=1.50) who do not believe in possible supports of those courses to their career. Fourth, while teachers who are graduates of English language and literature (x=1.41) and translation and interpretation (x=1.33) experience the benefits of "education for parents" subject as

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a result of in-service teacher training courses, teachers who are graduates of history (x=1.00), educational sciences (x=1.00) and English language teaching (x=1.18) do not have any beneficial outcomes of those courses in terms of education for parents. Last, although teachers that are graduates of translation and interpretation (x=5.00) and educational sciences all think that "teaching is its own reward", graduates of history (x=1.50) do not agree with this statement.

Table 14. The Correlation of the Highest Graduation Subject with Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Journal writing	English Language Teaching	97	1.05	0.22	2.33	0.03
	English Language and Literature	22	1.27	0.46		
	Translation and Interpretation	3	1.00	0.00		
	History	2	1.50	0.71		
	Educational Sciences	3	1.00	0.00		
	Total	127	1.09	0.29		
I have improved my English proficiency	English Language Teaching	97	3.46	1.03	2.06	0.05
	English Language and Literature	22	3.32	1.21		
	Translation and Interpretation	3	3.67	1.53		
	History	2	1.50	0.71		
	Educational Sciences	3	3.33	1.15		
	Total	127	3.41	1.10		
Its potential help with my career prospects	English Language Teaching	97	3.59	0.98	2.93	0.01
	English Language and Literature	22	3.55	1.14		
	Translation and Interpretation	3	4.00	1.00		

Table 14. The Correlation of the Highest Graduation Subject with Items (Continuing)

	History	2	1.50	0.71		
	Educational Sciences	3	4.00	0.00		
	Total	127	3.57	1.05		
Education for parents	English Language Teaching	97	1.18	0.38	2.20	0.04
	English Language and Literature	22	1.41	0.50		
	Translation and Interpretation	3	1.33	0.58		
	History	2	1.00	0.00		
	Educational Sciences	3	1.00	0.00		
	Total	127	1.22	0.42		
Teaching is its own reward	English Language Teaching	97	4.76	1.35	2.24	0.04
	English Language and Literature	22	4.18	1.53		
	Translation and Interpretation	3	5.00	1.00		
	History	2	1.50	0.71		
	Educational Sciences	3	5.00	1.00		
	Total	127	4.62	1.42		

4.14. Teaching Experience Factor in the Motivation of In-service Teachers

There are also significant correlations between teaching experience and three items; the major obstacle in the participation of courses, subject areas of benefits of the courses and teaching motivation. According to Table 15, teachers with the experience between 11-20 years consider "lack of interest" as an obstacle to participation of in-service courses (x=1.27). In addition, teachers within 21-30 years of experience vote for creativity the most as the benefit obtained from in-service

training courses (x=2.00). Finally, it is seen that teaching motivation as a result of loving the joy of teaching is the highest for teachers within 11-20 years of experience (x=4.54).

Table 15. The Correlation of Teaching Experience with Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Lack of interest	1-10	63	1.13	0.34	3.41	0.04
	11-20	56	1.27	0.45		
	21-30	11	1.00	0.00		
	Total	130	1.18	0.38		
Creativity	1-10	63	1.65	0.48	5.04	0.01
	11-20	56	1.84	0.37		
	21-30	11	2.00	0.00		
	Total	130	1.76	0.43		
I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching	1-10	63	4.46	1.35	3.32	0.04
	11-20	56	4.54	1.22		
	21-30	11	3.45	1.29		
	Total	130	4.41	1.32		

4.15. The Effect of In-service Training Course Forms on Motivation of EFL Teachers

There are two items which show a significant correlation with in-service training course forms (course, seminar, conference, symposium) teachers participate. Teachers who take in-service training in the forms of symposium think they enlarge their networks (x=4.67). What is more, teachers who take in-service training in the same way, symposiums, feel the courses are useful for them in terms of teaching adult learners (x=2.67). However, teachers who take in-service training courses in

the form of seminars record they do not enlarge their network as much as teachers taking symposiums (x=3.40). In addition, teachers taking seminars get benefits of teaching adult learners the least among all groups (x=1.33).

Table 16. The Correlation of In-service Training Course Forms with Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
I have enlarged my network	Course	61	3.92	0.88	3.01	0.02
	Seminar	48	3.40	1.01		
	Conference	17	3.71	0.99		
	Symposium	3	4.67	0.58		
	Total	129	3.71	0.97		
Teaching adult learners	Course	61	1.36	0.48	5.83	0.00
	Seminar	48	1.33	0.48		
	Conference	17	1.59	0.51		
	Symposium	3	2.67	1.15		
	Total	129	1.41	0.54		

4.16. The Effect of School Degrees that In-service Teachers Work on Motivation of EFL Teachers

As seen from Table 17, a significant correlation exists between school degrees of in-service teachers and three items. All of them are related to the subject areas that teachers get benefits of in-service teacher training courses and primary school teachers. According to the primary school teachers, the most benefitted subject areas of in-service training courses are improving their proficiency level of English (x=1.73), education for parents (x=1.46) and teaching young learners (x=1.81) more than the other teachers working in the other degree of schools. On the other hand, teachers working at high school state that they improve their proficiency

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level of English (x=1.40), get benefits of education for parents (x=1.10) and teaching young learners (x=1.50) the least.

Table 17. The Correlation between School Degrees of In-service Teachers and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Improving your own proficiency level of English	Kindergarten	3	1.67	0.58	2.70	0.05
	Primary school	26	1.73	0.45		
	Secondary school	53	1.51	0.50		
	High school	48	1.40	0.49		
	Total	130	1.52	0.50		
Education for parents	Kindergarten	3	1.33	0.58	4.56	0.01
	Primary school	26	1.46	0.51		
	Secondary school	53	1.21	0.41		
	High school	48	1.10	0.31		
	Total	130	1.22	0.42		
Teaching young learners	Kindergarten	3	1.67	0.58	3.58	0.02
	Primary school	26	1.81	0.40		
	Secondary school	53	1.75	0.43		
	High school	48	1.50	0.51		
	Total	130	1.67	0.47		

4.17. The Effect of School Types of In-service Teachers on Motivation of EFL Teachers

17 items can be seen as the significant differences according to the school types of in-service teachers as outlined in Table 18. First, while private school teachers prefer journal writing as a professional development resource (x=1.25), public school teachers do not prefer it as much as private school teachers. Second, public school teachers find limited school support (x=1.55), limited information about training (x=1.32), taking no certificate from courses (x=1.13) and lack of their interest (x=1.19) as the major obstacles for the participation of in-service training courses. Besides, private school teachers do not consider them as crucial problems to participate in those courses. Third, public school teachers think in-service training courses partly meet their expectations (x=1.41) and do not meet their expectations at all (x=1.09) compared to the private school teachers. Fourth, public school teachers expect more contents from in-service training courses (x=3.81) compared to the private school teachers (x=3.60). Moreover, there are significant differences between public and private school teachers in terms of subject areas which they get benefits of in-service training courses. For example, private school teachers believe they are equipped with classroom management (x=1.75), teaching basic skills (x=1.85), teaching vocabulary (x=1.75), improving their own proficiency of English (x=1.65), improving communication skills (x=1.85), improving technology use (x=1.70) and teaching young learners (x=1.75) more than public school teachers. Finally, it is seen that public school teachers are more motivated to teach as they believe the job gives them freedom (x=4.36).

Table 18. The Correlation between School Types of In-service Teachers and Items

	Type of school you work as a teacher	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
					F	Sig.
Journal writing	Public school	110	1.06	0.25	23.91	0.00
	Private school	20	1.25	0.44		

Table 18. The Correlation between School Types of In-service Teachers and Items (Continuing)

Short training courses	Public school	110	1.65	0.48	98.26	0.00
	Private school	20	1.95	0.22		
Limited school support	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	24.35	0.00
	Private school	20	1.25	0.44		
Limited information about training	Public school	110	1.32	0.47	32.41	0.00
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
No certification granted	Public school	110	1.13	0.33	15.74	0.00
	Private school	20	1.00	0.00		
Lack of interest	Public school	110	1.19	0.39	4.71	0.03
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
The course only partly met my expectations	Public school	110	1.41	0.49	98.22	0.00
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	Public school	110	1.09	0.37	5.15	0.03
	Private school	20	1.00	0.00		
Offering more contents for each course	Public school	110	3.81	0.82	3.95	0.05
	Private school	20	3.60	1.14		
Classroom management	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	27.21	0.00
	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		
Teaching basic skills in English (speaking,listening,reading,writing)	Public school	110	1.70	0.46	11.93	0.00
	Private school	20	1.85	0.37		
Teaching vocabulary	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	24.35	0.00
	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		

Table 18. The Correlation between School Types of In-service Teachers and Items (Continuing)

Improving your own proficiency level of English	Public school	110	1.49	0.50	10.40	0.00
	Private school	20	1.65	0.49		
Improving communication skills	Public school	110	1.61	0.49	42.46	0.00
	Private school	20	1.85	0.37		
Improving technology use in education	Public school	110	1.58	0.50	6.92	0.01
	Private school	20	1.70	0.47		
Teaching young learners	Public school	110	1.65	0.48	3.90	0.05
	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		
I chose teaching because I like the freedom it gives	Public school	110	4.36	1.39	3.99	0.05
	Private school	20	3.45	1.73		

4.18. The Effect of In-service Training Course Topics on Motivation of EFL Teachers

There are statistically significant differences between course topics and the items related to professional development resource, reasons for the participation in in-service courses, general evaluation of the course, specific benefits of the course, drawbacks of the course, suggestions for the course and the subject areas of the course benefits as shown in Table 19.

First, it is inferred that teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=1.50) and "teaching methods" (x=1.26) courses prefer off-work training as a professional development resource more than the others. However, teachers taking "classroom management" (x=1.00) and "teaching adult learners" (x=1.00) do not prefer off-work training as a professional development.

Second, teachers taking "teaching adult learners" (x=4.00) and "teaching young learners" (x=3.31) find "the reputation of the university" a valuable reason for

the participation in in-service training courses contrary to teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=1.75) courses.

Apart from that, teachers taking "smart board usage" (x=4.00) and "teaching adult learners" (x=4.00) courses find school support as a major reason for the participation in in-service training courses. On the other hand, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=2.25) and "classroom management" (x=3.33) courses do not find school support as an important reason to attend those courses.

In addition, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=1.50) and "teaching methods" (x=1.22) courses record that the course exceeds their expectations with the highest rate among all teachers. In contrast with this, teachers taking "teaching adult learners" (x=1.50), "classroom management" (x=1.33) and "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=1.13) courses state that the course does not meet their expectations.

Moreover, there is a significant difference between course topics of teachers and specific benefits of the course. Teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=4.25) and "teaching adult learners" (x=3.54) courses find the course beneficial in terms of improving their English proficiencies, but teachers taking "teaching adult learners" course do not find the course beneficial in terms of increasing their proficiency of English. Teachers also taking "teaching language with drama" (x=4.25) and "teaching young learners" (x=3.77) courses believe that the course could help their career prospects, contrary to the teachers taking "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=2.75).

There is also a significant correlation with course topics and drawbacks of the course. Teachers taking "classroom management" (x=4.33) and "teaching young learners" (x=3.31) courses find in-service training courses too theoretical compared to teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=1.25) course. Along with this, teachers "classroom management" (x=4.00) and "teaching young learners" (x=3.15) courses criticize in-service training courses in terms of insufficient trainer-participant communication while it is not a vital drawback for teachers taking "teaching adult learners" (x=2.00) courses.

Additionally, a significant difference exists between suggestions for in-service training courses and course topics. Teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=4.50) and "teaching young learners" (x=4.15) suggest opening online teacher forum whereas teachers taking "smartboard usage in classroom" (x= 2.63) do not demand online teacher forums.

The last significant correlation exists between subject areas of course benefits and course topics. First of all, while teachers taking "teaching adult learners" and "classroom management" (x=2.00) are equipped with skills related to classroom management, teachers taking "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=1.00) course do not find those courses successful in terms of classroom management. Second, teachers taking "teaching adult learners" (x=2.00), course feel more skillful at teaching vocabulary after attending those courses. However, teachers taking "classroom management" (x=1.00) and "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=1.00) courses do not have more skills of vocabulary teaching after attending the courses. Third, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" (x=2.00) and "teaching young learners" (x=1.85) courses record they improve their communication skills more at the end of the courses compared to the teachers taking "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=1.13) course. Finally, teachers taking "teaching young learners" (x=1.77), "teaching methods" (x=1.51) and "teaching language with drama" (x=1.50) courses are armoured with skills related to outdoor learning more than the teachers taking "teaching adult learners" (x=1.00),"classroom management" (x=1.00) and "smartboard usage in classroom" (x=1.00) courses.

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Off-work training	Teaching methods	90	1.26	0.44	1.79	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	1.08	0.28		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.25	0.44		
Reputation of the university	Teaching methods	90	3.22	1.07	1.85	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	3.31	0.95		
	Teaching adult learners	2	4.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	2.67	1.53		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.88	0.83		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.75	0.96		
	Total	120	3.09	1.10		
School support	Teaching methods	90	3.58	1.05	1.81	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	3.92	0.76		
	Teaching adult learners	2	4.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	3.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	4.00	0.93		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.25	1.26		
	Total	120	3.56	1.06		
The course exceeded my expectations	Teaching methods	90	1.22	0.42	42.24	0.00
	Teaching young learners	13	1.08	0.28		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.25	0.94		
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	Teaching methods	90	1.03	0.18		
	Teaching young learners	13	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	1.33	0.58	15.82	0.00
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.00	0.00		
	Total	120	1.08	0.34		
I have improved my English proficiency	Teaching methods	90	3.53	1.04		
	Teaching young learners	13	3.54	0.97		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	2.67	1.15	2.62	0.00
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	0.89		
	Teaching language with drama	4	4.25	0.50		
	Total	120	3.41	1.10		
It can help my career prospects	Teaching methods	90	3.61	1.02		
	Teaching young learners	13	3.77	0.44		
	Teaching adult learners	2	3.50	0.71	1.77	0.05
	Classroom management	3	3.33	2.08		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.16		

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Teaching language with drama	4	4.25	0.50		
	Total	120	3.57	1.05		
It's too theoretical	Teaching methods	90	2.59	1.11	1.77	0.05
	Teaching young learners	13	3.31	1.11		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	4.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.04		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.25	0.50		
	Total	120	2.66	1.13		
There is little trainer-participant communication	Teaching methods	90	2.40	0.91	2.52	0.00
	Teaching young learners	13	3.15	0.90		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	4.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.28		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.00	1.41		
	Total	120	2.55	1.02		
Opening online teacher forum	Teaching methods	90	3.48	0.91	2.05	0.02
	Teaching young learners	13	4.15	0.38		
	Teaching adult learners	2	3.00	1.41		
	Classroom management	3	3.67	1.15		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.63	1.19		
	Teaching language with drama	4	4.50	0.58		

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Total	120	3.53	0.95		
Classroom management	Teaching methods	90	1.60	0.49	1.79	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	1.62	0.51		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	2.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.58	0.50		
Teaching vocabulary	Teaching methods	90	1.64	0.48	2.15	0.01
	Teaching young learners	13	1.54	0.52		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.75	0.50		
	Total	120	1.58	0.49		
Improving communication skills	Teaching methods	90	1.67	0.47	1.92	0.02
	Teaching young learners	13	1.85	0.38		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	1.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.00	0.00		
	Total	120	1.65	0.48		

Table 19. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Teaching methods	90	1.51	0.50		
	Teaching young learners	13	1.77	0.44		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		
Outdoor learning	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00	1.94	0.02
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.47	0.50		

4.19. Country Factor of In-service Training Courses in the Motivation of EFL Teachers

As can be seen in Table 20, there are seven items which show significant correlation with countries where in-service training courses take place. These items are related to professional development resource teachers prefer, reasons for the participation in in-service training courses, specific benefits of the courses, drawbacks of the courses, suggestions for in-service training courses, subject areas of in-service course benefits and teaching motivation.

First, teachers taking in-service training courses in Germany prefer journal writing (x=1.50) as a professional development resource more compared to the teachers taking in-service training courses in the UK (x=1.00) and Czech Republic (x=1.00).

Second, teachers taking in-service training courses in Germany (x=5.00) and Czech Republic (x=4.50) consider school support as a major reason for the participation in those courses compared to the teachers taking their in-service training courses in Italy (x=3.00). In addition, teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=5.00), UK (x=4.50) and Germany (x=4.50) attend in-service training courses for their desire to improve teaching contrary to the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=4.13). Similarly, teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=5.00) and

Germany (x=5.00) attend those courses for their desire to gain more information contrary to the teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic (x=4.00). Moreover, teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=5.00) and Germany (x=5.00) attend in-service training courses for its potential help with their career prospects contrary to the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.74).

Third, teachers taking their courses in Germany (x=4.50) and UK (x=4.44) believe that they have improved their proficiency level more than teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.24). Teachers also taking their courses in the Czech Republic (x=4.50) think that the courses they attend enlarge their networks. On the other hand, teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.56) do not believe that the courses contribute them in terms of enlarging their networks.

Fourth, teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=2.69) think that there is little peer interaction as a drawback of the course while teachers taking their courses in the UK (x=1.94) think that they have enough peer interaction. Apart from that, teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=3.67) and Czech Republic (x=3.50) do not find the information obtained sufficient compared to the teachers taking their courses in the UK. (x=1.81). Another drawback of the courses is little trainer-participant communication according to the teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=2.67) in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in the UK (x=1.81). Lastly, according to the teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic (x=3.50), there is no follow up support. However, teachers taking their courses in the UK (x=2.06) record that they have enough follow up support.

The fifth significant correlation is about suggestions for in-service courses. Teachers taking their courses in Germany (x=4.50) and UK (x=4.19) suggest that courses should consider teachers' needs more, in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.79). Additionally, more contents should be included in the courses according to the teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic (x=4.50) and Germany (x=4.50), but teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.72) are satisfied with the contents of the courses. In a similar way, more courses are demanded by teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic and Germany (x=4.50) unlike the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.76). Teachers also

taking their courses in the Czech Republic (x=4.50) and Italy (x=4.33) demand field observations from the courses contrary to the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=3.77). Another suggestion is the provision of professional development resources by the teachers taking their courses in Germany (x=4.50), Czech Republic (x=4.50) and UK (x=4.00) in contrast to the teachers taking their courses in the Italy (x=3.33).

The sixth crucial correlation is between the subject areas of course benefits and countries where in-service training courses take place. Teachers taking their courses in Germany (x=2.00) feel more equipped with quality control and evaluation in education rather than the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=1.37). Teachers also taking their courses in Italy (x=2.00), Czech Republic (x=2.00) and Germany (x=2.00) vote for outdoor learning as a benefit in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=1.39). Last, teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=2.00), Czech Republic (x=2.00) and Germany (x=2.00) get benefits of teaching young learners while teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=1.61) do not find those courses beneficial in terms of teaching young learners.

Seventh, in-service teachers have different opinions in terms of teaching motivation according to the countries they take in-service training courses. Teachers taking their courses in Italy (x=6.00) and Germany (x=5.50) think that teaching is its own reward in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in Turkey (x=4.51).

Table 20. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Journal writing	Turkey	105	1.09	0.28	3.27	0.01
	UK	16	1.00	0.00		
	Italy	3	1.33	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	1.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	1.50	0.71		
	Total	128	1.09	0.29		
School support	Turkey	105	3.61	1.00	2,76	0.02
	UK	16	3.31	1.01		
	Italy	3	3.00	1.73		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		

Table 20. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items (Continuing)

	Germany	2	5.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.56	1.06		
My desire to improve teaching	Turkey	105	4.13	1.04	2,28	0.04
	UK	16	4.50	1.03		
	Italy	3	5.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	4.18	1.05		
My desire to gain more information	Turkey	105	4.08	1.01	2.73	0.02
	UK	16	4.25	1.34		
	Italy	3	5.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	5.00	0.00		
	Total	128	4.12	1.08		
Its potential help with my career prospects	Turkey	105	3.74	1.08	2.25	0.04
	UK	16	4.25	0.86		
	Italy	3	5.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	5.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.85	1.07		
I have improved my English proficiency	Turkey	105	3.24	1.11	3.82	0.00
	UK	16	4.44	0.51		
	Italy	3	3.67	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.41	1.10		
I have enlarged my network	Turkey	105	3.56	0.98	2.35	0.04
	UK	16	4.31	0.70		
	Italy	3	4.33	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.71	0.97		
There is little peer interaction	Turkey	105	2.69	1.03	2.54	0.02
	UK	16	1.94	1.00		
	Italy	3	2.33	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	2.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71		
	Total	128	2.61	1.05		

Table 20. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items (Continuing)

Information obtained is insufficient	Turkey	105	2.58	1.04	2.58	0.02
	UK	16	1.81	0.66		
	Italy	3	3.67	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.00	1.41		
	Total	128	2.52	1.03		
There is little trainer-participant communication	Turkey	105	2.63	1.01	2.31	0.04
	UK	16	1.81	0.91		
	Italy	3	2.67	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	2.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71		
	Total	128	2.55	1.02		
There is no follow-up support	Turkey	105	3.24	1.10	3.43	0.00
	UK	16	2.06	0.93		
	Italy	3	3.33	1.53		
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.10	1.14		
Considering more teachers' needs	Turkey	105	3.79	0.90	2.77	0.02
	UK	16	4.19	0.54		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.83	0.88		
Offering more courses	Turkey	105	3.76	0.80	3.81	0.00
	UK	16	4.19	0.40		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.82	0.80		
Offering more contents for each course	Turkey	105	3.72	0.89	2.74	0.02
	UK	16	4.06	0.44		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.78	0.87		
Providing field observations	Turkey	105	3.77	0.86	2.87	0.01
	UK	16	3.94	0.57		
	Italy	3	4.33	0.58		

Table 20. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items (Continuing)

	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.81	0.85		
Providing PD resources	Turkey	105	3.49	1.02	2.41	0.03
	UK	16	4.00	0.73		
	Italy	3	3.33	1.15		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.56	1.02		
Quality control and evaluation in education	Turkey	105	1.37	0.49	2.38	0.03
	UK	16	1.75	0.45		
	Italy	3	1.67	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	1.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.44	0.50		
Outdoor learning	Turkey	105	1.39	0.49	2.85	0.01
	UK	16	1.69	0.48		
	Italy	3	2.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	2.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.47	0.50		
Teaching young learners	Turkey	105	1.61	0.49	2.25	0.04
	UK	16	1.94	0.25		
	Italy	3	2.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	2.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.67	0.47		
Teaching is its own reward	Turkey	105	4.51	1.39	2.29	0.04
	UK	16	5.00	1.41		
	Italy	3	6.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	5.00	1.41		
	Germany	2	5.50	0.71		
	Total	128	4.62	1.42		

4.20. The Ways of Reaching In-service Training Courses and Motivation of EFL Teachers

Five items show significant correlation with the ways of reaching in-service training courses as shown in Table 21. These are major obstacles for the participation of in-service training courses, general evaluation of the courses, specific benefits of the courses, drawbacks of the courses and subject areas of course benefits.

First, teachers reaching in-service training courses via the internet (x=1.67) find those courses with high cost, which sets an obstacle for them to participate. On the other hand, teachers taking in-service courses in their own school (x=1.28) do not think that courses they attend are expensive.

Second, teachers finding their in-service training courses through internet state that the courses they attend fulfill their expectations (x=1.60), contrary to the teachers taking their courses in their own school (x=1.32). In addition, teachers taking their courses in their own school record that the courses only partly meet their expectations (x=1.52) unlike the teachers finding their courses through the internet (x=1.21).

Third, there are crucial differences between the teachers finding their course through the internet and taking them in their own schools. Teachers finding their courses through internet believe that they have improved their English proficiency (x=3.74) and enlarged their networks (x=4.09), whereas the teachers taking their courses in their own schools record that they haven't improved their English proficiency (x=3.07) and have not enlarged their networks (x=3.45).

Fourth, teachers taking their courses in their own school find in-service training courses irrelevant (x=2.68) unlike the teachers reaching those courses via the internet (x=2.02). Apart from that, teachers taking their courses at their own schools approve insufficiency of trainer-participant communication (x=2.82) and peer interaction (x=2.87). On the contrary, teachers reaching their courses via internet state that they have enough trainer-participant communication (2.16) and peer interaction (x=2.30).

Fifth and last, teachers taking their courses through the internet (x=1.81) believe that the courses contribute them in terms of communication skills unlike the

teachers taking their courses in their own school (x=1.55). Moreover, teachers taking their courses through internet feel more equipped with the benefits of quality control and evaluation in education (x=1.67) while teachers taking their courses in their own school and finding the courses through their friends feel that the courses do not make valuable contributions in terms of quality control and evaluation in education (x=1.33).

Table 21. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
High cost	Own school	60	1.28	0.45	4.49	0.00
	Friends	24	1.58	0.50		
	Internet	43	1.67	0.47		
	Total	127	1.48	0.50		
The course fulfilled my expectations	Own school	60	1.32	0.47	2.46	0.04
	Friends	24	1.54	0.51		
	Internet	43	1.60	0.49		
	Total	127	1.45	0.50		
The course only partly met my expectations	Own school	60	1.52	0.50	3.18	0.01
	Friends	24	1.25	0.44		
	Internet	43	1.21	0.41		
	Total	127	1.36	0.48		
I have improved my English proficiency	Own school	60	3.07	1.09	2.74	0.02
	Friends	24	3.58	0.97		
	Internet	43	3.74	1.09		
	Total	127	3.41	1.10		

Table 21. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items (Continuing)

I have enlarged my network	Own school	60	3.45	1.00	2.88	0.02
	Friends	24	3.58	0.88		
	Internet	43	4.09	0.87		
	Total	127	3.71	0.97		
It's irrelevant	Own school	60	2.68	0.93	3.64	0.00
	Friends	24	2.29	0.81		
	Internet	43	2.02	0.77		
	Total	127	2.37	0.90		
There is little peer interaction	Own school	60	2.87	1.03	2.49	0.04
	Friends	24	2.54	0.93		
	Internet	43	2.30	1.06		
	Total	127	2.61	1.05		
There is little trainer-participant communication	Own school	60	2.82	1.00	2.83	0.02
	Friends	24	2.63	1.01		
	Internet	43	2.16	0.95		
	Total	127	2.55	1.02		
Improving communication skills	Own school	60	1.55	0.50	2.31	0.05
	Friends	24	1.58	0.50		
	Internet	43	1.81	0.39		
	Total	127	1.65	0.48		

Table 21. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items (Continuing)

Quality control and evaluation in education	Own school	60	1.33	0.48		
	Friends	24	1.33	0.48	3.44	0.01
	Internet	43	1.67	0.47		
	Total	127	1.44	0.50		

5. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section contains the significant conclusions of the study, a comparison of the results with previous studies, practical recommendations for teachers, policy makers and in-service education course trainers.

5.1. Conclusions

Nine conclusions were made in the light of the study results. They are listed as follows:

1. The first conclusion is made in the professional development preferences of teachers. EFL teachers generally prefer teaching practice and short training courses instead of journal writing, off-work training and lectures. First, teachers between the ages of 25-35 and teachers within the 46-55 age group prefer seminars. Second, female teachers prefer collaborative research and peer observation more than male teachers. Third, teachers who are history graduates and English language and literature prefer journal writing courses. Fourth, private school teachers prefer journal writing more compared to public school teachers. Fifth, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching methods" courses prefer off-work training more. Lastly, teachers taking in-service training courses in Germany prefer journal writing more than the others.

2. Another conclusion is related to reasons to attend in-service training courses by teachers. Teachers mostly take part in in-service teaching training courses by official requirements based on their job or institutions and their own desire to enlarge their network and catch various career prospects, which reflects extrinsic motivation. First, teachers with bachelor's degree prefer to attend to those courses to improve their English proficiency and teachers with bachelor's degree and master degree wish to improve their teaching via in-service training courses. Second, teachers that are graduates of translation and interpretation and educational sciences think that in-

service teacher training courses may help their career prospects. Third, teachers taking "teaching adult learners" and "teaching young learners" courses find "the reputation of the university" a valuable reason for participation in in-service training courses while teachers taking "smart board usage" and "teaching adult learners" courses find school support a major reason for participation in in-service training courses. In addition, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching young learners" take these courses as it may help their career prospects. Fourth, teachers taking in-service training courses in Germany and the Czech Republic consider school support as a major reason to attend while teachers taking their courses in Italy, UK and Germany attend in-service training courses for their desire to improve teaching. In other words, teachers attending courses in UK and Germany are intrinsically more motivated than the other teachers. Teachers also taking their courses in Italy and Germany attend those courses for their desire to gain more information and for its potential help with their career prospects.

3. There are significant differences in terms of the major obstacles in the participation of in-service training courses. In general, limited school support and high cost are crucial obstacles to reach in-service training courses. First, male teachers think obtaining no certificate at the end of the course and their lack of interest to attend those courses are major obstacles to participate in in-service training courses. Second, teachers with the experience between 11-20 years consider "lack of interest" as an obstacle to participation of in-service courses. Third, public school teachers find limited school support, limited information about training, taking no certificate from courses and lack of their interest as the major obstacles for the participation of in-service training courses. Fourth, teachers reaching in-service training courses via internet find those courses extremely expensive, which sets an obstacle for them to participate.

4. The fourth conclusion is about the general evaluation of in-service teacher training courses. Although in-service teacher training courses meet their expectations in general, there are some differences among teachers. First, female teachers state that the course exceeded their expectations more than males. Second, public teachers think in-service training courses do not meet their expectations at all. Third, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching methods" courses record that the course exceeds their expectations. Fourth, teachers taking "teaching language

with drama" and "teaching adult learners" courses evaluate the course as beneficial in terms of improving their English proficiencies. Fifth, teachers finding their in-service training courses through internet state that the courses they attend fulfill their expectations while teachers taking their courses in their own school record that the courses only partly meet their expectations.

5. The fifth conclusion is on specific benefits of in-service teacher training courses. Teachers who are translation and interpretation and English language teaching graduates improve their English proficiency via in-service courses. In addition, teachers who take in-service training in the forms of symposium think they enlarge their network. Moreover, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching adult learners" courses find the course beneficial in terms of improving their English proficiencies. Teachers also taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching young learners" courses believe that the course could help their career prospects. Additionally, teachers taking their courses in Germany and UK believe that they have improved their proficiency level and teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic enlarge their networks contrary to teachers taking their courses in Turkey. Last, teachers finding their courses through internet improve their English proficiency and enlarge their networks compared to the teachers taking their courses in their own schools.

6. The sixth conclusion is on the drawbacks of in-service teacher training courses. Teachers taking "classroom management" and "teaching young learners" courses find in-service training courses too theoretical and unsuccessful in terms of insufficient trainer-participant communication. Second, teachers taking their courses in Turkey think that there is little peer interaction in the courses compared to those taking in the UK. Teachers also taking their courses in Italy and the Czech Republic do not find the information obtained sufficiently. Moreover, teachers taking their courses in Italy complain about little trainer-participant and insufficiency of information and teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic think there is no follow-up support. Third, teachers taking their courses in their own school find in-service training courses irrelevant unlike the teachers finding the courses via the Internet. Teachers also taking their courses in their own schools complain about the insufficiency of trainer-participant communication and peer interaction.

7. The seventh conclusion is made on suggestions for in-service teacher training courses by teachers. Firstly, a suggestion is made on having more contents from in-service training courses by public school teachers compared to the private school teachers. Second, teachers taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching young learners" courses suggest them opening online teacher forum. Third, teachers taking their courses in Germany and UK suggest that courses should consider more teachers' needs in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in Turkey. In addition, more courses should be organized and more contents should be added to course programme according to the teachers taking their courses in Germany and the Czech Republic. Teachers also taking their courses in the Czech Republic and Italy need more field observations rather than the teachers taking their courses in Turkey. Last, teachers taking their courses in the Czech Republic, Germany and UK expect to be provided with more professional development materials rather than teachers taking courses in Italy.

8. The eight conclusion is about the subject areas of in-service teacher training course benefits. Teachers mostly benefit from the areas directly related to teaching and ELT such as teaching skills, creativity, teaching to young learners, teaching vocabulary along with skills of technology use. First, teachers in the age group of 46-55 utilize creativity, while teachers between the ages of 25-35 utilize quality control and evaluation in education and teaching adult learners from the courses. Second, female teachers are equipped with outdoor learning, school management and educational leadership and teaching young learners more than male teachers. Conversely, male teachers get benefits of technology use in education more than females. Third, teachers that are graduates of English language and literature and translation and interpretation find the course beneficial in terms of education for parents. Third, teachers within 21-30 years of experience choose creativity as the most beneficial subject. Fourth, teachers who take in-service training in the forms of symposium utilize teaching adult learners more than other teachers. Fifth, the primary school teachers feel more benefitted from education for parents and teaching young learners. Sixth, private teachers feel more equipped with classroom management, teaching basic skills, teaching vocabulary, improving communication skills, improving technology use and teaching young learners than public school teachers at the end of the courses. Moreover, teachers taking "teaching adult learners" and "classroom

management" courses are equipped with skills related to classroom management and teachers taking "teaching adult learners" course feel more skillful at teaching vocabulary after attending those courses. Teachers also taking "teaching language with drama" and "teaching young learners" courses improve their communication skills more. Similarly, they become more knowledgeable about outdoor learning like teachers taking teaching methods courses. Seventh, teachers taking their courses in Germany are more knowledgeable about quality control and evaluation in education rather than the teachers taking their courses in Turkey. In a parallel way, teachers taking their courses abroad utilize outdoor learning and teaching young learners, contrary to the teachers taking their courses in Turkey. Last, teachers taking their courses through internet make use of communication skills and quality control and evaluation in education unlike the teachers taking their courses in their own school.

9. The ninth conclusion is about teaching motivation of in-service EFL teachers. First, teachers between the ages of 25-35 and teachers in the age group of 46-55 choose teaching profession as it allows them to do other things. Second, female teachers are more motivated to teach than male teachers. For example, they believe a teaching career will make them employable easily. They also get excited when they talk to others about choosing a teaching career. Finally, they prefer teaching for the joy of teaching and they teach thanks to the feeling of personal fulfillment and they consider teaching as its own reward. That is to say, female teachers are directly motivated by intrinsic issues while male teachers are extrinsically motivated. Third, teachers that are graduates of translation and interpretation, educational sciences and English language teaching are motivated as teaching is its own reward rather than history and English Language and Literature graduates. Fourth, teaching motivation as a result of loving the joy of teaching is the highest for teachers within 11-20 years of experience. Fifth, public school teachers feel more motivated to teach as they think that their job gives them freedom. Finally, teachers taking their courses in Italy and Germany are motivated by thinking teaching is its own reward in contrast with the teachers taking their courses in Turkey.

5.2. Implications

A comparison of the results of previous studies about in-service teachers' motivation with this study is presented in this section. The results of this study

indicate that EFL teachers in Turkey prefer more practical forms of in-service training courses such as short training courses and teaching practice and benefit from areas directly related with ELT, such as teaching skills, creativity, teaching young learners and teaching vocabulary. Female teachers and public school teachers are more motivated to teach. High cost and limited school support are the major obstacles for the participation in the courses. Most of the teachers, especially private school teachers are satisfied with in-service training courses they have taken so far. Last, of all, teachers taking courses in their own school and Turkey complain about limited peer interaction, little trainer-participant communication, not being able to improve their English proficiencies, enlarge their networks and getting follow-up support. These results of the study are parallel to the studies of Salomäki et al. (2012), Khattak et al. (2011), Bando and Li (2014), Cheung (2013) in the related literature in terms of supporting that in-service training programmes have a positive impact on the improvement of teachers professionally. They are also similar to the findings of Atay (2007) and Isikoglu et al. (2009) in that teachers are under the positive effects of in-service teacher training courses in Turkish EFL context. However, the current study does not share similar outcomes with the study of Lee (2010), who concludes that in-service training does not have much impact on the improvement of teachers because of inexperienced and unprepared instructors of the course. Its findings also do not match with the results of Uysal's study (2012), the study of Ünal (2020) and that of Koç (2016) which support that in-service teacher training courses are missing in terms of their impacts on teachers' practices and that teachers do not find those programmes sufficient enough to meet their needs. In addition, the study has partly similar results with the study results of Bayrakci (2009) and Dikilitaş (2013) in that in-service courses should provide more follow-up support for a time period after the course ends. In a parallel way, the results partly match with the findings of Personn and Yigitoglu (2015) in that participants approach positively to the INSET programs' contents. However, it does not support it in terms of that in-service teacher training programs do not shape teachers' teaching. Finally, this study reflects the perspectives of teachers in terms of taking into consideration their needs more, like the results of Bayar's study (2014) suggesting that in-service teacher training programmes should meet both teachers' and school needs along with including teachers in designing the activities.

This study contributes to the related literature in terms of putting forward the motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey and the effects of variables such as age, gender, the highest degree held by teachers, the subject of the highest degree, teaching experience, in-service training course forms, school degrees, school types, in-service training course topics, countries where in-service training courses are held and ways of finding in-service training courses. Besides, it makes contributions to the related literature in Turkish EFL context as these kinds of studies examining in-service training courses in thedeep analysis are scarce.

5.3. Recommendations

Several practical recommendations are provided in the light of findings of the study. Teachers are in the search of useful and practical in-service training courses such as short training courses and teaching practice courses rather than journal writing, off-work training and lectures. To add, they need courses directly related with EFL, which they could utilize more such as teaching skills, creativity in teaching, teaching young learners, teaching vocabulary and improving technology use in education. Moreover, teachers are either led to in-service teacher training programmes by institutional requirements or by their own desire. They also state that they expect their needs to be confronted by in-service courses. Firstly, considering all of these findings, curriculum developers and course trainers should be careful with designing in-service teacher training courses to arouse intrinsic motivation of EFL teachers responding to their needs as it is the best way to motivate teachers in long term. A motivation scale could be applied before, during and after in-service teacher training programmes in the light of time continuum model. Second, there are also some differences between female and male teachers in their preferences on in-service course topics. For example, female teachers use collaboration activities and peer observation more while male teachers benefit more from improving technology use in the classroom. That is why the needs and interests of both genders should be considered in the organization of in-service teacher training courses. Third, public teachers are more motivated by the flexibility of their profession whereas they are not satisfied with the courses they take in their own school because of official regulations. Private school teachers, on the other hand, are not as motivated as public teachers to work related to the intrinsic value of doing their job such as teaching just

because teaching is its own reward or feeling the joy of teaching. Therefore, special adjustments should be done to the in-service teacher training programmes considering the type of school where the target participants work. Fourth, age and teaching experience warrant consideration in organizing course programmes. For instance, teachers in the age group 46-55 take benefits of creativity more and they have more time to do other things in contrast with the teachers who are in the group of 25-35. Fifth, the type of school where teachers work should be counted as a prominent factor in planning in-service training courses. For example, there are huge differences in the expectations of teachers working at primary and high schools in terms of choosing course topics. Primary school teachers find improving proficiency level of English, education for parents and teaching young learners more beneficial, contrary to high school teachers. Finally, some aspects of in-service training courses in Turkey are lacking in terms of integrative motivation like little peer interaction, being unable to help to improve proficiency level of English teachers, providing insufficient communication between trainer and participant and enlarging teachers' networks compared to courses taken abroad. That is why qualified trainers are needed to be chosen for in-service training in Turkey. Additionally, the contents of in-service teacher training programmes should be organized in a way responding to teachers' knowledge of how students learn the subject rather than on just teachers' behaviors as it has little influences on student learning as Wayne (2008) states.

As a result of the findings drawn from the study, further research should focus on other factors affecting the motivation of EFL teachers in terms of their professional development in Turkey such as their economic conditions, working conditions and the environment where they work as there are giant differences between the regions of Turkey in terms of development. It should not be missed that teachers are motivated by curricular, relational and logistical factors. Apart from that, qualitative, experimental and correlational research is to be applied on in-service teachers of EFL in terms of their professional development. Finally, the reflections and dissemination of the impact of in-service EFL teachers are needed to be evaluated in long-term by observing the classroom environment and investigating the motivation of learners of in-service teachers.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Legal Permission Form

T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-44-E.8222303   05.06.2017
Konu: Anket ve Araştırma İzin Talebi

Sayın: Hande YILMAZ

İlgi: a) 12.05.2017 tarihli dilekçeniz.
        b) Valilik Makamının 02.06.2017 tarih ve 8174757 sayılı oluru.

    "Hizmet İçi Eğitim Almış İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Çalışma Motivasyonları: Gelenekselden Yeniliğe" konulu teziniz hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri ilgi (b) valilik onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

    Bilgilerinizi ve söz konusu talebiniz; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanması**, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, gerekli duyurunun araştırmacı tarafından yapılması, okul idarecilerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Valilik Onayı doğrultusunda uygulanması ve işlem bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içinde sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne rapor halinde bilgi verilmesini rica ederim.

Harun TÜYSÜZ
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

EK:1- Valilik Onayı
    2- Ölçekler

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Binbirdirek M. İmran Öktem Cad.   A. BALTA VHKİ
No:1 Eski Adliye Binası Sultanahmet Fatih/İstanbul   Tel: (0 212) 455 04 00-239
E-Posta: sgb34@meb.gov.tr   Faks: (0 212)455 06 52

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. http://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr adresinden **c787-6240-3bae-aa66-3b31** kodu ile teyit edil

T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-20-E.8174757   02/06/2017
Konu: Anket ve Araştırma İzin Talebi

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi: a) 12.05.2017 tarihli dilekçe.
        b) MEB. Yen. ve Eğ. Tek. Gn Md. 07.03.2012 tarih ve 3616 sayılı 2012/13 nolu gen.
        c) Milli Eğitim Araştırma ve Anket Komisyonunun 02.06.2017 tarihli tutanağı.

Balıkesir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Hande YILMAZ'ın **"Hizmet İçi Eğitim Almış İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Çalışma Motivasyonları: Gelenekselden Yeniliğe"** konulu tezi kapsamında, ilimiz genelinde bulunan özel/resmi okullarda görev yapan ingilizce öğretmenlerine; anket uygulama istemi hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri Müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiştir.

Araştırmacının; söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanılması, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Bakanlık emri esasları dâhilinde uygulanması, sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüze rapor halinde (CD formatında) bilgi verilmesi kaydıyla** Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Ömer Faruk YELKENCİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
02/06/2017

Ahmet Hamdi USTA
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

Ek:1- Genelge
    2- Komisyon Tutanağı

İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Binbirdirek M. İmran Öktem Cad.   A. BALTA VHKİ
No:1 Eski Adliye Binası Sultanahmet Fatih/İstanbul   Tel: (0 212) 455 04 00-239
E-Posta: sgb34@meb.gov.tr   Faks: (0 212)455 06 52

vrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. http://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr adresinden 78fe-b328-33ab-a883-3d94 kodu ile teyit edilebi

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Appendix 2. Motivation level of in-service English teachers questionnaire

THE MOTIVATIONAL LEVELS OF IN-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS IN TURKEY QUESTIONNAIRE

This research aims to investigate the effect and limitations of INSET courses to find out motivation levels of in-service English teachers in Turkey. The results will be used in my master thesis in English language teaching. All the information is confidential, therefore you don't need to offer your name. Don't forget that your contribution is a great support to reach the results. Thanks for completing the survey !

Hande Yılmaz, English teachers and master candidate, Balıkesir University.

A. **Background information. Please tick the box that applies to you. Write down answers where necessary.**

1. **Age :** ....

2. **Gender:** Male □   Female □

3. **Highest degree held:** Bachelor's degree □   Master □   PhD □

4. **Subject of highest degree:**
   English language teaching □   English language and literature □   Translation and Interpretation: □   Other □

5. **Years of teaching English:** ....

6. **Previous experience of attending courses, seminars, conferences and symposiums since you became a teacher.**
   Yes □   No □

   If yes, please specify in what forms you took them:
   ....
   ....

7. **Degree of school you work as a teacher**
   Kindergarten □   Primary school □   Secondary school □
   High school □   University □

8. **Type of school you work as a teacher**
   Public school □   Private school □

9. **Your course topic :**...

10. **Where did you attend the course?**
    Turkey □   Abroad □, please specify: ....

11. **How did you find about this training course?** *(Please tick more than one if applicable)*
    Own school □   Friends □   Internet □
    Other □ ,please specify: ....

B. **Expectations and experiences of the course**

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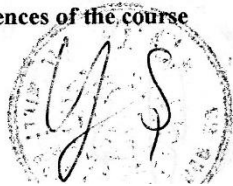
12. **Which of the following forms of professional development do you prefer? You can choose more than one option.**

Off-work training ☐   Teaching practice ☐   Collaborative research and teaching ☐

Journal writing ☐   Seminars ☐   Lectures ☐   Peer observation ☐   Short training courses ☐

13. **What made you decide to take part in the course?**

Please put a tick in the box to indicate your opinions about them.

SD: strongly disagree   D: Disagree N: neither agree nor disagree A: Agree   SA : Strongly agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
Reputation of the university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
School support	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
School requirements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My desire to improve English proficiency	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My desire to improve teaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My desire to improve my subject knowledge	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My desire to gain more information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My desire to enlarge network.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Its potential help with my career prospects.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other: ……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Are there any comments you would like to make on your expectations of the course?

14. **Which of the following are the major obstacles in your participation of short courses?**

High cost ☐   unavailability ☐   limited school support ☐

Limited information about training ☐   no certification granted ☐   lack of interest ☐

Benefits

The course exceeded my expectations	☐
The course fulfilled my expectations	☐
The course only partly met my expectations	☐
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	☐

15. **What were the specific benefits of the course for you?**

Please put a tick in the box to indicate your opinions about them.

SD: strongly disagree   D: Disagree N: neither agree nor disagree A: Agree   SA : Strongly agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
I have improved my English proficiency	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have improved my teaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have gained some new information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have enlarged my network	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It can help my career prospects	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
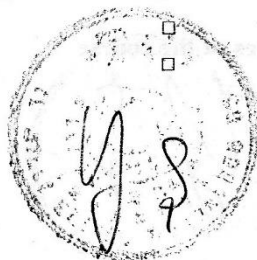
Are there any comments you would like to make on your benefits from the course?

16. **Drawbacks of the course**
    Please put a tick in the box to indicate your opinions about them.
    SD: strongly disagree   D: Disagree N: neither agree nor disagree A: Agree   SA : Strongly agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
It's too short	□	□	□	□	□
It's irrelevant	□	□	□	□	□
It's too theoretical	□	□	□	□	□
There is little peer interaction	□	□	□	□	□
Information obtained is insufficient	□	□	□	□	□
There is little trainer-participant communication	□	□	□	□	□
There is no follow-up support	□	□	□	□	□
Other: ....
....

17. **Suggestions for INSET course**
    Please put a tick in the box to indicate your opinions about them.
    SD: strongly disagree   D: Disagree N: neither agree nor disagree A: Agree   SA : Strongly agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
Considering more teachers' needs	□	□	□	□	□
Offering more courses	□	□	□	□	□
Offering more contents for each course	□	□	□	□	□
Providing field observations	□	□	□	□	□
Providing on-the-job training	□	□	□	□	□
Organizing research collaborations	□	□	□	□	□
Opening online teacher forum	□	□	□	□	□
Providing PD resources	□	□	□	□	□
Other: ....
....
....

Are there any comments you would like to make on the course's improvement?
In what ways did you gain benefit from the course? (You can choose more than one option).
□ **Classroom management**
□ **Creativity**
□ **Teaching basic skills in English (speaking, listening, reading, writing)**
□ **Teaching grammar**
□ **Teaching vocabulary**
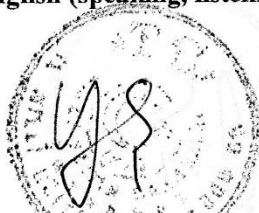
□ Improving your own proficiency level of English
□ Improving communication skills
□ Improving technology use in education
□ Combating failure
□ Education for parents
□ Quality control and evaluation in education
□ Outdoor learning
□ School management and educational leadership
□ Teaching young learners
□ Teaching adult learners
□ Other :   □ No   □ Yes (please specify): ……………………………………..

18. **Motivation to Teach**
The following items ask you about why you have chosen to enter the teaching profession. For each item, please use the scale below to circle the number corresponding to the response that best represents your feelings. There are no right or wrong answers.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

1.   I chose teaching because it will help me get a better position in the future.

1   2   3   4   5   6

2.   I chose teaching because it gives me time to do other things (e.g., coach; administration).

1   2   3   4   5   6

3.   I cannot imagine a career more enjoyable than teaching.

1   2   3   4   5   6

4.   I chose teaching because I like the freedom it provides.

1   2   3   4   5   6

5.   I chose teaching because a teaching degree will make me employable just about anywhere.

1   2   3   4   5   6

6.   I get excited when I talk to others about my decision to become a teacher.

1   2   3   4   5   6

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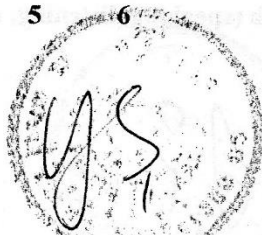
7. I chose teaching because as a teacher I will be respected throughout the community.

1   2   3   4   5   6

8. I chose teaching because the benefits are good.

1   2   3   4   5   6

9. I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching.

1   2   3   4   5   6

10. I would become a teacher even if I won 100 million dollars in the lottery.

1   2   3   4   5   6

11. I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment.

1   2   3   4   5   6

12. I chose to enter the teaching profession because teachers have influence in the community.

1   2   3   4   5   6

13. Teaching is its own reward.

1   2   3   4   5   6

14. I want to teach simply for the sake of teaching.

1   2   3   4   5   6

Thank you for completing the questionnaire!

Appendix 3. Analysis of Subject Areas of Course Benefits

Items	N		not preferred	preferred	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Classroom management	130	F	55	75	1.58	.50	.04
		Percent	42,3	57,7			
Creativity	130	F	31	99	1.76	.43	.04
		Percent	23,8	76,2			
Teaching basic skills in English (speaking,listening,reading, writing)	130	F	36	94	1.72	.45	.04
		Percent	27,7	72,3			
Teaching grammar	130	F	77	53	1.41	.49	.04
		Percent	59,2	40,8			
Teaching vocabulary	130	F	54	76	1.58	.49	.04
		Percent	41,5	58,5			
Improving communication skills	130	F	46	84	1.65	.48	.04
		Percent	35,4	64,6			
Improving technology use in education	130	F	52	78	1.60	.49	.04
		Percent	40,0	60,0			
Combating failure	130	F	75	55	1.42	.50	.04
		Percent	57,7	42,3			
Education for parents	130	F	101	29	1.22	.42	.04
		Percent	77,7	22,3			
Quality control and evaluation in education	130	F	73	57	1.44	.50	.04
		Percent	56,2	43,8			

Appendix 3. Analysis of Subject Areas of Course Benefits (Continuing)

Outdoor learning	130	F	69	61	1.47	.50	.04
		Percent	53,1	46,9			
School management and educational leadership	130	F	76	54	1.42	.49	.04
		Percent	58,5	41,5			
Teaching young learners	130	F	43	87	1.67	.47	.04
		Percent	33,1	66,9			
Teaching adult learners	130	F	79	50	1.41	.54	.05
		Percent	60,8	38,5			

Appendix 4. Analysis of Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL Teacher

Items	N		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
I chose teaching because it will help me get a better position in the future	130	F	10	26	14	33	31	16	3.75	1.51	.13
		Percent	7,7	20.0	10,8	25,4	23,8	12,3			
I chose teaching because it gives me time to do other things	130	F	5	22	20	31	33	19	3.94	1.42	.12
		Percent	3.8	16.9	15.4	23.8	25.4	14.6			
I cannot imagine a career more enjoyable than teaching	130	F	8	19	19	23	35	26	4.05	1.54	.14
		Percent	6.2	14.6	14.6	17.7	26.9	20.0			
I chose teaching because I like the freedom it gives	130	F	11	9	12	30	44	24	4.22	1.47	.13
		Percent	8.5	6.9	9.2	23.1	33.8	18.5			

Appendix 4. Analysis of Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL Teachers (Continuing)

I chose teaching because a teaching degree will make me employable just about anywhere	130	F	5	14	19	29	42	21	4.17	1.37	
		Percent	3.8	10.8	14.6	22.3	32.3	16.2			.12
I get excited when I talk to others about my decision to become a teacher	130	F	6	17	12	27	44	24	4.22	1.44	
		Percent	4.6	13.1	9.2	20.8	33.8	18.5			.13
I chose teaching because as a teacher I will be respected throughout the community	130	F	10	17	12	33	42	16	3.98	1.46	
		Percent	7.7	13.1	9.2	25.4	32.3	12.3			.13
I chose teaching because the benefits are good	130	F	9	9	25	39	35	13	3.93	1.33	
		Percent	6.9	6.9	19.2	30.0	26.9	10.0			.12
I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching	130	F	5	9	15	24	53	24	4.41	1.32	
		Percent	3.8	6.9	11.5	18.5	40.8	18.5			.12
I would become a teacher even if I won 100 million dollars in the lottery	130	F	23	16	22	16	31	22	3.63	1.75	
		Percent	17.7	12.3	16.9	12.3	23.8	16.9			.15
I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment	130	F	4	15	9	20	55	27	4.45	1.37	.12
		Percent	3.1	11.5	6.9	15.4	42.3	20.8			
I chose to enter the teaching profession because teachers have influence in the community	130	F	5	18	18	18	47	24	4.20	1.45	.13
		Percent	3.8	13.8	13.8	13.8	36.2	18.5			

Appendix 4. Analysis of Teaching Motivation of In-service EFL Teachers (Continuing)

Teaching is its own reward	130	F	6	8	11	23	39	43	4.62	1.42	.12
		Percent	4.6	6.2	8.5	17.7	30.0	33.1			
I want to teach simply for the sake of teaching	130	F	5	9	18	33	38	27	4.32	1.34	.12
		Percent	3.8	6.9	13.8	25.4	29.2	20.8			

Appendix 5. T-Test Results of Gender Factor

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
					F	Sig.
Collaborative research and teaching	Male	23	1.35	0.49	10.68	0.00
	Female	107	1.50	0.50		
Peer observation	Male	23	1.26	0.45	7.67	0.01
	Female	107	1.38	0.49		
No certification granted	Male	23	1.17	0.39	4.55	0.04
	Female	107	1.09	0.29		
Lack of interest	Male	23	1.39	0.50	21.79	0.00
	Female	107	1.13	0.34		
The course exceeded my expectations	Male	23	1.04	0.21	4.04	0.05
	Female	107	1.30	1.03		
Providing on-the-job training	Male	23	3.65	0.88	5.00	0.03
	Female	107	3.92	0.75		
Organizing research collaborations	Male	23	3.65	1.03	8.60	0.00
	Female	107	3.79	0.72		

Appendix 5. T-Test Results of Gender Factor (Continuing)

Improving technology use in education	Male	23	1.70	0.47	7.06	0.01
	Female	107	1.58	0.50		
Outdoor learning	Male	23	1.39	0.50	4.67	0.03
	Female	107	1.49	0.50		
School management and educational leadership	Male	23	1.30	0.47	10.22	0.00
	Female	107	1.44	0.50		
Teaching young learners	Male	23	1.52	0.51	4.25	0.04
	Female	107	1.70	0.46		
I chose teaching because a teaching degree will make me employable just about anywhere	Male	23	3.74	1.63	4.53	0.04
	Female	107	4.26	1.30		
I get excited when I talk to others about my decision to become a teacher	Male	23	3.52	1.73	5.22	0.02
	Female	107	4.36	1.33		
I want to teach for the sheer joy of teaching	Male	23	3.65	1.56	5.41	0.02
	Female	107	4.57	1.21		
I teach because I believe it will give me a sense of deep personal fulfillment	Male	23	3.52	1.53	5.16	0.03
	Female	107	4.64	1.25		
Teaching is its own reward	Male	23	3.83	1.70	5.07	0.03
	Female	107	4.79	1.30		

Appendix 6. The Correlation between School Types of In-service Teachers and Items

	Type of school you work as a teacher	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
					F	Sig.
Journal writing	Public school	110	1.06	0.25	23.91	0.00
	Private school	20	1.25	0.44		
Short training courses	Public school	110	1.65	0.48	98.26	0.00
	Private school	20	1.95	0.22		
Limited school support	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	24.35	0.00
	Private school	20	1.25	0.44		
Limited information about training	Public school	110	1.32	0.47	32.41	0.00
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
No certification granted	Public school	110	1.13	0.33	15.74	0.00
	Private school	20	1.00	0.00		
Lack of interest	Public school	110	1.19	0.39	4.71	0.03
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
The course only partly met my expectations	Public school	110	1.41	0.49	98.22	0.00
	Private school	20	1.10	0.31		
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	Public school	110	1.09	0.37	5.15	0.03
	Private school	20	1.00	0.00		
Offering more contents for each course	Public school	110	3.81	0.82	3.95	0.05
	Private school	20	3.60	1.14		
Classroom management	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	27.21	0.00

Appendix 6. The Correlation between School Types of In-service Teachers and Items (Continuing)

	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		
Teaching basic skills in English (speaking,listening,reading,writing)	Public school	110	1.70	0.46	11.93	0.00
	Private school	20	1.85	0.37		
Teaching vocabulary	Public school	110	1.55	0.50	24.35	0.00
	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		
Improving your own proficiency level of English	Public school	110	1.49	0.50	10.40	0.00
	Private school	20	1.65	0.49		
Improving communication skills	Public school	110	1.61	0.49	42.46	0.00
	Private school	20	1.85	0.37		
Improving technology use in education	Public school	110	1.58	0.50	6.92	0.01
	Private school	20	1.70	0.47		
Teaching young learners	Public school	110	1.65	0.48	3.90	0.05
	Private school	20	1.75	0.44		
I chose teaching because I like the freedom it gives	Public school	110	4.36	1.39	3.99	0.05
	Private school	20	3.45	1.73		

Appendix 7. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Off-work training	Teaching methods	90	1.26	0.44	1.79	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	1.08	0.28		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		

Appendix 7. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.25	0.44		
Reputation of the university	Teaching methods	90	3.22	1.07	1.85	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	3.31	0.95		
	Teaching adult learners	2	4.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	2.67	1.53		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.88	0.83		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.75	0.96		
	Total	120	3.09	1.10		
School support	Teaching methods	90	3.58	1.05	1.81	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	3.92	0.76		
	Teaching adult learners	2	4.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	3.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	4.00	0.93		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.25	1.26		
	Total	120	3.56	1.06		
The course exceeded my expectations	Teaching methods	90	1.22	0.42	42.24	0.00
	Teaching young learners	13	1.08	0.28		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		

	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.25	0.94		
The course didn't meet my expectations at all	Teaching methods	90	1.03	0.18		
	Teaching young learners	13	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	1.33	0.58	15.82	0.00
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.00	0.00		
	Total	120	1.08	0.34		
I have improved my English proficiency	Teaching methods	90	3.53	1.04		
	Teaching young learners	13	3.54	0.97		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	2.67	1.15	2.62	0.00
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	0.89		
	Teaching language with drama	4	4.25	0.50		
	Total	120	3.41	1.10		
It can help my career prospects	Teaching methods	90	3.61	1.02		
	Teaching young learners	13	3.77	0.44		
	Teaching adult learners	2	3.50	0.71	1.77	0.05
	Classroom management	3	3.33	2.08		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.16		

Appendix 7. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Teaching language with drama	4	4.25	0.50		
	Total	120	3.57	1.05		
It's too theoretical	Teaching methods	90	2.59	1.11	1.77	0.05
	Teaching young learners	13	3.31	1.11		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	4.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.04		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.25	0.50		
	Total	120	2.66	1.13		
There is little trainer-participant communication	Teaching methods	90	2.40	0.91	2.52	0.00
	Teaching young learners	13	3.15	0.90		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	4.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.75	1.28		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.00	1.41		
	Total	120	2.55	1.02		
Opening online teacher forum	Teaching methods	90	3.48	0.91	2.05	0.02
	Teaching young learners	13	4.15	0.38		
	Teaching adult learners	2	3.00	1.41		
	Classroom management	3	3.67	1.15		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	2.63	1.19		
	Teaching language with drama	4	4.50	0.58		

Appendix 7. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Total	120	3.53	0.95		
Classroom management	Teaching methods	90	1.60	0.49	1.79	0.04
	Teaching young learners	13	1.62	0.51		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	2.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.58	0.50		
Teaching vocabulary	Teaching methods	90	1.64	0.48	2.15	0.01
	Teaching young learners	13	1.54	0.52		
	Teaching adult learners	2	2.00	0.00		
	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.75	0.50		
	Total	120	1.58	0.49		
Improving communication skills	Teaching methods	90	1.67	0.47	1.92	0.03
	Teaching young learners	13	1.85	0.38		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.50	0.71		
	Classroom management	3	1.33	0.58		
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.13	0.35		
	Teaching language with drama	4	2.00	0.00		
	Total	120	1.65	0.48		

Appendix 7. The Correlation between In-service Training Course Topics and Items (Continuing)

	Teaching methods	90	1.51	0.50		
	Teaching young learners	13	1.77	0.44		
	Teaching adult learners	2	1.00	0.00		
Outdoor learning	Classroom management	3	1.00	0.00	1.94	0.03
	Smartboard usage in classroom	8	1.00	0.00		
	Teaching language with drama	4	1.50	0.58		
	Total	120	1.47	0.50		

Appendix 8. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
	Turkey	105	1.09	0.28		
	UK	16	1.00	0.00		
Journal writing	Italy	3	1.33	0.58	3.27	0.01
	Czech Republic	2	1.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	1.50	0.71		
	Total	128	1.09	0.29		
	Turkey	105	3.61	1.00		
	UK	16	3.31	1.01		
School support	Italy	3	3.00	1.73	2,76	0.02
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	5.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.56	1.06		
	Turkey	105	4.13	1.04		
	UK	16	4.50	1.03		
My desire to improve teaching	Italy	3	5.00	0.00	2,28	0.04
	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	4.18	1.05		
	Turkey	105	4.08	1.01		
My desire to gain more information	UK	16	4.25	1.34	2.73	0.02
	Italy	3	5.00	0.00		

	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00	
	Germany	2	5.00	0.00	
	Total	128	4.12	1.08	
	Total	128	3.85	1.07	
I have improved my English proficiency	Turkey	105	3.24	1.11	3.82
	UK	16	4.44	0.51	
	Italy	3	3.67	0.58	
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71	
	Total	128	3.41	1.10	
I have enlarged my network	Turkey	105	3.56	0.98	2.35
	UK	16	4.31	0.70	
	Italy	3	4.33	0.58	
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	4.00	0.00	
	Total	128	3.71	0.97	
There is little peer interaction	Turkey	105	2.69	1.03	2.54
	UK	16	1.94	1.00	
	Italy	3	2.33	0.58	
	Czech Republic	2	2.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71	
	Total	128	2.61	1.05	
Information obtained is insufficient	Turkey	105	2.58	1.04	2.58
	UK	16	1.81	0.66	
	Italy	3	3.67	0.58	
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	2.00	1.41	
	Total	128	2.52	1.03	
There is little trainer-participant communication	Turkey	105	2.63	1.01	2.31
	UK	16	1.81	0.91	
	Italy	3	2.67	0.58	
	Czech Republic	2	2.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71	
	Total	128	2.61	1.05	
Its potential help with my career prospects	Turkey	105	3.74	1.08	2.25
	UK	16	4.25	0.86	
	Italy	3	5.00	0.00	
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71	
	Germany	2	5.00	0.00	

The last column values (p): 0.00, 0.04, 0.02, 0.02, 0.04, 0.04

Appendix 8. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items (Continuing)

	Total	128	3.85	1.07		
There is no follow-up support	Turkey	105	3.24	1.10	3.43	0.00
	UK	16	2.06	0.93		
	Italy	3	3.33	1.53		
	Czech Republic	2	3.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.10	1.14		
Considering more teachers' needs	Turkey	105	3.79	0.90	2.77	0.02
	UK	16	4.19	0.54		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.83	0.88		
Offering more courses	Turkey	105	3.76	0.80	3.81	0.00
	UK	16	4.19	0.40		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.82	0.80		
There is little peer interaction	Turkey	105	2.69	1.03	2.54	0.02
	UK	16	1.94	1.00		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.82	0.80		
Offering more contents for each course	Turkey	105	3.72	0.89	2.74	0.02
	UK	16	4.06	0.44		
	Italy	3	4.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.78	0.87		
Providing field observations	Turkey	105	3.77	0.86	2.87	0.01
	UK	16	3.94	0.57		
	Italy	3	4.33	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.00	0.00		
	Total	128	3.81	0.85		
Providing PD resources	Turkey	105	3.49	1.02	2.41	0.03
	UK	16	4.00	0.73		

Appendix 8. The Correlation between Countries where In-service Training Courses Are Held and Items (Continuing)

	Italy	3	3.33	1.15		
	Czech Republic	2	4.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	4.50	0.71		
	Total	128	3.56	1.02		
Quality control and evaluation in education	Turkey	105	1.37	0.49	2.38	0.03
	UK	16	1.75	0.45		
	Italy	3	1.67	0.58		
	Czech Republic	2	1.50	0.71		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.44	0.50		
Outdoor learning	Turkey	105	1.39	0.49	2.85	0.01
	UK	16	1.69	0.48		
	Italy	3	2.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	2.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.47	0.50		
Teaching young learners	Turkey	105	1.61	0.49	2.25	0.04
	UK	16	1.94	0.25		
	Italy	3	2.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	2.00	0.00		
	Germany	2	2.00	0.00		
	Total	128	1.67	0.47		
Teaching is its own reward	Turkey	105	4.51	1.39	2.29	0.04
	UK	16	5.00	1.41		
	Italy	3	6.00	0.00		
	Czech Republic	2	5.00	1.41		
	Germany	2	5.50	0.71		
	Total	128	4.62	1.42		

Appendix 9. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
High cost	Own school	60	1.28	0.45	4.49	0.00
	Friends	24	1.58	0.50		

Appendix 9. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items (Continuing)

	Internet	43	1.67	0.47		
	Total	127	1.48	0.50		
The course fulfilled my expectations	Own school	60	1.32	0.47	2.46	0.04
	Friends	24	1.54	0.51		
	Internet	43	1.60	0.49		
	Total	127	1.45	0.50		
The course only partly met my expectations	Own school	60	1.52	0.50	3.18	0.01
	Friends	24	1.25	0.44		
	Internet	43	1.21	0.41		
	Total	127	1.36	0.48		
I have improved my English proficiency	Own school	60	3.07	1.09	2.74	0.02
	Friends	24	3.58	0.97		
	Internet	43	3.74	1.09		
	Total	127	3.41	1.10		
I have enlarged my network	Own school	60	3.45	1.00	2.88	0.02
	Friends	24	3.58	0.88		
	Internet	43	4.09	0.87		
	Total	127	3.71	0.97		
It's irrelevant	Own school	60	2.68	0.93	3.64	0.00
	Friends	24	2.29	0.81		
	Internet	43	2.02	0.77		
	Total	127	2.37	0.90		

Appendix 9. The Correlation between the Way of Finding In-service Training Courses and Items (Continuing)

There is little peer interaction	Own school	60	2.87	1.03	2.49	0.04
	Friends	24	2.54	0.93		
	Internet	43	2.30	1.06		
	Total	127	2.61	1.05		
There is little trainer-participant communication	Own school	60	2.82	1.00	2.83	0.02
	Friends	24	2.63	1.01		
	Internet	43	2.16	0.95		
	Total	127	2.55	1.02		
Improving communication skills	Own school	60	1.55	0.50	2.31	0.05
	Friends	24	1.58	0.50		
	Internet	43	1.81	0.39		
	Total	127	1.65	0.48		
Quality control and evaluation in education	Own school	60	1.33	0.48	3.44	0.01
	Friends	24	1.33	0.48		
	Internet	43	1.67	0.47		
	Total	127	1.44	0.50		