SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS AMONG ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN SELECTED LANGUAGE CENTERS

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Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya
In Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

2014

UNIVERSITY MALAYA

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Professor Dr. Fatimah Hashim for the continuous support of my Ph.D study and research, for her patience, motivation, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. Her guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this thesis. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my Ph.D study.

My sincere thanks also go to my dear parents for supporting me spiritually throughout my whole life.

Abstract

Bandura said that people are self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating, and they are not just reactive organisms directed by the environmental events or inner forces. Accordingly, in society the belief that people have in their effectiveness in order to be able to have control over the events in their life is the most important element. If people believe that they can make favorable influences and prevent the unfavorable ones by their performances, they will be motivated enough to act. Bandura (2001) believed that efficacy beliefs affect the way people think either positively or negatively, the kind of aims they would like to achieve and also their commitments to have the results of their efforts. Having high levels of self-efficacy motivates people to have higher goals and as a result they persevere if they face the obstacles or any adverse situation and also they will perform much better. We should remember that self-efficacy is based on a motivational construct and it is the self perception of competence instead of actual level of competence, so actions and behaviors will be better predicted by beliefs instead of actual performance.

This study explored the English language center teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English and its interaction with their reported proficiency level in English, their perceived use of teaching strategies, and their personal background characteristics such as age, gender, level of teaching, years of teaching English, experience traveling or studying abroad, getting IELTS or TOEFL, highest level of education, and type of certificate achieved. The quantitative method of analysis, particularly descriptive and correlational research methods were used in this study.

The instruments used in this study consisted of four questionnaires: 1) Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English, 2) Teachers' reported English language

proficiency, 3) teachers' perceived use of teaching strategies, and 4) Teachers' personal background information. The participants of this research were 187 English teachers in Language schools in 10 different geographical zones of the capital city.

The results showed that the variables of this study had low to high correlations with self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers. The results of multiple regressions showed that not all the variables were significant predictors of the self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers of this study. Based on the results of this study some implications were drawn for policy and practice. Additionally, recommendations for future studies were included.

Abstrak

Bandura menyatakan bahawa manusia adalah *self-organizing*, proaktif, *self-reflecting*, dan *self-regulating*, dan mereka bukan hanya organisma reaktif yang tertakluk kepada persekitaran atau kuasa dalaman. Oleh itu, dalam masyarakat kepercayaan individu berkenaan keberkesanan mereka untuk menguasai apa yang berlaku dalam kehidupan mereka adalah elemen yang paling penting. Jikalau seseorang mempercayai ia mampu membuat sesuatu yang baik dan mencegah sesuatu yang tidak baik melalui perbuatannya, orang itu akan bermotivasi untuk melakukan sesuatu. Bandura (2001) mempercayai bahawa kepercayaan mengenai efikasi mempengaruhi cara pemikiran manusia ke arah positif atau negatif, apa matlamat yang perlu dicapai dan juga komitmen kepada hasil usaha mereka. Efikasi kendiri yang tinggi memotivasi seseorang untuk mempunyai matlamat yang lebih mencabar dan demikian mereka akan tetap berusaha dalam menghadapi kekangan atau cabaran dan mereka akan melaksanakan dengan lebih baik. Perlu diingatkan bahawa efikasi kendiri adalah berdasarkan konstruk motivasi dan persepsi efikasi kendiri berkenaan dengan kompetensi yang penting dan bukan tahap kompetensi sebenar; oleh itu perlakuan dan perbuatan lebih tepat diramalkan oleh kepercayaan berkenaan dengan kompetensi dan bukan perlakuan sebenar seseorang.

Kajian ini menyelidik efikasi kendiri guru Pusat Bahasa Inggeris dalam mengajar BI dan interaksi efikasi tersebut dengan tahap penguasaan BI yang dilaporkan, penggunaan strategi pengajaran mereka, ciri-ciri latar belakang mereka seperti umur, jantina, tahap pengajaran kelas, pengalaman mengajar BI, pengalaman melawat atau belajar di luar Negara, pencapaian IELTS atau TOEFL, tahap pengajian tertinggi, dan jenis pensijilan yang tercapai oleh mereka. Kaedah kuantitatif digunakan untuk analisis

dapatan kajian ini, yang merangkumi statistik deskriptif dan analisis korelasi. Instrumen kajian adalah empat soal selidik: 1) Efikasi guru dalam pengajaran BI, 2) Laporan guru mengenai tahap penguasaan BI, 3) Persepsi guru berkenaan dengan penggunaan strategi pengajaran, dan 4) Ciri-ciri latar belakang guru. Peserta kajian ini adalah 187 guru BI di Pusat Bahasa dari 10 zon geografi ibu negara berkenaan.

Hasil kajian menunjukkan pemboleh ubah kajian mempunyai korelasi rendah sehingga tinggi dengan efikasi kendiri guru. Keputusan analisis regresi pelbagai menunjukkan bukan semua pemboleh ubah menjadi peramal signifikan efikasi kendiri guru dalam kajian ini. Beberapa implikasi kajian untuk polisi dan amalan diberi. Cadangan untuk kajian lanjut juga diutarakan.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

1.1.1 The importance of learning English as the second language

"Those who know nothing of foreign languages know nothing of their own".

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

English Language is the most commonly spoken language in the world. If we want to achieve success in our career, we need to develop fluency in English. Communication skills in English give us better employment opportunities in many fields. In fact, more and more people are learning English today. English is the language of science and technology, and also the language of business and finance.

Tochon (2009) has summarized that exposure to the world language will have positive effects to master the mother tongue (Archibald, Roy, Harmel, & Jesney, 2006): It can expand syntactic knowledge, language abilities and narrative strategies to read and write better, cognitive abilities like divergent thinking, meta-linguistic abilities, world view, and math scores and abilities (Stewart, 2005). Bilinguals can outperform monolinguals not only in meta-linguistic tasks but also in the tasks that need a high degree of control (Bialystok, 2001). Those students who can speak two languages have more linguistic space in their memory (Kimbrough, Oller, & Eilers, 2002).

Learning another language can have some other advantages which are included as the following: transferring one's heritage to children, linking the generations and making the communication within the family better and with the

extended family, building international links, experiencing two cultures, being able to compare values and worldviews, and becoming biliterate (Marcos, 1998, cited in Pan & Block, 2011). Furthermore, such advantages comprise developing a bigger wider worldview; understanding various traditions, customs, and even ways of behaving; building more tolerance of differences and possibly decreasing racism; and raising one's self-esteem and strengthening one's identity (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003, cited in Pan & Block, 2011).

Improving employment potential and learning how to deal with other cultures facilitate employment. Some areas that need proficient staff include government agencies, travel industry, engineering, communications, education, international law, economics, public policy, publishing, advertising, entertainment, scientific research, and service providers (Camenson, 2001; DeGalan, 2000, cited in Tochon, 2009).

Some other motivating reasons in learning languages include increasing native language ability, sharpening cognitive and life skills, increasing chances of entry into college or graduate school, appreciating international literature, music, and film, making travel more feasible and enjoyable, increasing understanding of oneself and one's culture, and making lifelong friends.

All these mentioned reasons necessitate the need to know another language besides the native language, most preferably English which is known as a global language. For these reasons, the role of English language centers in providing English education to the students in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) context is highlighted. Language center is a place where students are taught to access the correct form of written and spoken English and be educated in English. To this end, in the present study the English language center was chosen as the context of the study and the teachers working there were the participants of this study.

In the language centers, the standardized form of English is delivered and taught to the students. Language centers play a vital role in today's globalized world to stabilize English all over the countries where their first language is different from English. In these countries, people have a need to learn one second language, especially English, in order to be able to communicate in the world. Language centers which are mostly managed by the private sector take care of their customers' needs and try to provide the best available service and to satisfy and please the learners.

1.1.2 The role of teachers in learning English

The teachers are of utmost importance in language centers, as their presence will distinguish one language center from others in today's competitive world. It is of priority to deal with and get the best staff and teachers available in the field, to increase the productivity of centers, which means increasing the number of students' enrolling each semester of study.

For this purpose, the teacher characteristics should be taken into account. Among which English teachers' way of teaching and strategies to improve students' learning is of much concern to language centers. Based on the literature reviewed, the kind of beliefs that teachers have will influence their action and behavior while teaching and will be the cause of the strategies used during the class time (Richards, 1996). As a result, teachers' beliefs in forming their actions in the English language context should be of utmost attention to language centers' employment committee and supervisors.

In addition, Putnam and Borko (2000) argue that how an individual learns a set of knowledge or skills and also the situation that the learning takes place will become the most important part of what is learned. From this sociocultural perspective, it can be argued that teacher cognition affects and is affected by contextual factors through

interaction with others in or out of the classroom. As Freeman (1996) put it, the teachers are always interpreting their world of teaching such as interpreting the subject, the classroom, and even the students. All these interpretations play an essential role in their thinking process and ultimately the way they behave. Therefore, in order to understand why TESOL teachers do what they do in their classrooms, it is of fundamental importance to understand the beliefs that shape and guide their actions as language teachers and see if any relationship can be found between their belief system and their way of using teaching strategy in their classrooms.

Richards (1996) suggested that teachers develop rational principles based upon their belief system, and those principles function as rules that govern the actions of the teachers. In other words, teachers' behavior is linked closely to their belief system, perceptions, and motivation. As a result, in order to understand teachers' behavior in the classroom, including the way they use strategies for teaching and the kind of strategies used, we need to go deep inside teachers' beliefs system. Among teachers' belief system, self-efficacy has been highlighted in the literature and will be the focus of attention in this study.

1.1.3 The impact of teacher's self- efficacy in learning

Teacher self-efficacy is also referred as "teacher efficacy," "teachers' sense of efficacy," or "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs". Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) have defined it as teachers' belief in their ability to organize and perform the actions required of them to successfully fulfill their teaching tasks in their specific teaching context.

Many educational researchers examined self-efficacy as a certain form of belief that accounts for the relationship between students' academic success and teachers' self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) defined the construct of self-efficacy as "beliefs

in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Bandura (1997) wrote that based on the evidence instructional efficacy beliefs of the teachers will partly indicate the way they will organize and structure their activities in the classrooms. So when the teachers are into this belief that they can handle and manage to use appropriate strategies while teaching, they try to do their best accordingly, although there is not always a complete match between their beliefs and the actions performed.

Teachers' self-efficacy can affect the kind of environment they create besides the different teaching practices they will use in their classroom (Bandura, 1997). In addition, high-efficacious teachers are confident that they can reach even the most difficult students on the condition that they put some extra effort; while the low-efficacious teachers feel helpless if they wanted to face the unmotivated and challenging students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). The influence of self-efficacy has been widely documented in the literature and based on the social cognitive theory; all those beliefs are the roots of human agency (Bandura, 2001). I believe that the teachers who consider themselves to be more efficacious most probably will think of themselves using more and better strategies while teaching to increase the students' outcomes and improve their performance and the other teachers who do not believe themselves to be that much efficacious will just use the strategies needed.

Teachers' self-efficacy has strong effects on different parts of teaching and learning (Henson, 2002; Tschannen- Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006). Based on the studies, self-efficacy is related to students' achievement (Caprara et al., 2006; Ross, 1992; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), motivation (Bandura, 1997, 1993; Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989), and sense of efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988), writing performance (Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010), and it is also related to teachers in terms of their motivation to teach

(Allinder, 1994), to plan and organize (Allinder, 1994), to manage the classroom (Gencer & Cakiroglu, 2007; Shim, 2001), job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006; Klassen et al., 2009; Moè, Pazzaglia, & Ronconi, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), and to persist despite difficulties (Milner & Hoy, 2003), academic motivation and performance (İlknur Pekkanli, 2009; Saracaloglu & Dinçer, 2009; Uzun, Özkiliç, & Sentürk, 2010), emotional intelligence (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009), academic dishonesty (Seval Eminoğlu, 2010), feedback on learners' writing (Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010) , school context variables (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), and English proficiency (Chacon, 2005).

Teachers' self-efficacy in specific subject areas have also been examined (Bleicher, 2004; Chacón, 2002, 2005). For example, in the science field of education, teachers' self-efficacy in teaching the subject matters in different contexts has been investigated (Bleicher, 2004; Uzun et al., 2010). But in the field of TESOL, investigation into teachers' self-efficacy is not extensive (Chacón, 2002; Cooper, 2009; İlknur Pekkanli, 2009; Lee, 2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009; Seval Eminoğlu, 2010; Shim, 2001). Instead, the learners have been the major focus of study. The trend in research shows that the learners' cognitive and affective domains are considered more important than studying any issue that is related to the teachers. Since teachers are also a fundamental part of the learning process, they cannot be ignored and they should understand the whole dynamics of teaching and learning of English as a second or a foreign language. To mention one of the most important researches on teachers, the role of teachers' effectiveness can be highlighted.

Teachers' self-efficacy is critical to understand teaching and learning. By keeping in mind its strong influence on teaching and student learning (Henson, 2002; Kristopher Maguire, 2011; Jimison, 2010; Ladner, 2008; Ordonez-Feliciano, 2009;

Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006), it is important to follow this line of research in the education field. Teachers' self-efficacy has been promising in the search for answers to the question of what makes teachers effective in language classes because it reflects measures of the teachers' underlying belief systems that can explain teacher behaviors.

Aside from that, in the literature, teachers' lack of English proficiency or knowledge has been named as one of the biggest obstacles to successful teaching and learning of English (e.g., Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003). It is widely believed that lack of English proficiency is causally related to not having confidence in teaching English. It has been acknowledged that one of the major problems of the English teachers is that they simply do not have the English proficiency and as the result they do not have enough confidence to teach in English (Nunan, 2003).

It should be remembered that such a relationship has been considered without any empirical research (e.g., Nunan, 2003). We can consider such a relationship as under question until we can prove the relation by empirical research. For example, it is probable for a teacher who does not have a high language competence can feel more confident to teach English to the low-level language learners in a language center, while will feel less confident to teach high-level language learners. As a result, it is needed to investigate English language center teachers' self-efficacy to teach in their specific setting and context, taking into account the impact of their English skills on their self-efficacy beliefs and see if any relationship exists and measure the strength of this relationship if any. Therefore, this study will look into the TESOL teachers' self-efficacy belief and its relationship with their English language proficiency, teaching strategy and selected teachers' characteristics.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the TESOL context, teachers' lack of English proficiency has been linked with their lack of confidence in teaching English and as a result their ineffective teaching (e.g. Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003). The main problem is that so many English teachers do not have the needed proficiency in English, and as a consequence they do not have the confidence to teach in English (Nunan, 2003, p. 601). To conclude like that, Nunan neither checked teachers' confidence to teach English nor mentioned any study investigating teacher confidence or its relationship with language skills. And based on this unexamined relationship, he continued to claim that TESOL teachers should improve their language skills. It would be unwise to accept such a relationship without carefully looking into it. A thorough investigation will clear the relationship in this regard.

In fact, Lee (2009), Chacón (2002, 2005), and Shim (2001) showed different results on the relationship of English teachers' self-efficacy and English proficiency. Chacón (2002, 2005) showed that the self-efficacy of the Venezuelan middle school English teachers was positively related with their English proficiency. On the other hand, Shim (2001) showed that the self-efficacy of the Korean middle and high school English teachers was not significantly related with their perceived English proficiency. Later Lee (2009) studied Korean elementary school English teachers and the results confirmed the findings of Chacón.

These inconsistent results demonstrate that more research is needed on the relationship between self-efficacy and language proficiency, instead of just considering a causal relationship like the previous studies done in the TESOL context (e.g., Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003), and the need to study teachers' self-confidence on their ability in teaching English.

Shim (2001) recommended that further studies are needed to understand the relationship between language proficiency of non-native speakers of English and their sense of efficacy. Besides, further studies on the contribution of language proficiency to teachers' self-efficacy are necessary with a different kind of language assessment. For this reason, in this study a combination of the Shim (2001) and Chacon (2005) language proficiency questionnaire will be considered and the necessary adjustment will be done with respect to the language center context.

Shim further stressed that English teachers' self-efficacy must be investigated by more content specific instruments. For instance, researchers in science education developed their specific instruments. But, in the TESOL field, there is no specific instrument available. Academic researchers of TESOL need to develop efficacy belief instruments specifically for language teaching. For this purpose, some modifications have been made to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) questionnaire on self-efficacy to adapt it to the TESOL context. In addition, some other elements have been added to highlight the context of language centers. By the result of this study, which is based on the English language center context, the assumed relationship can be confirmed or rejected.

Furthermore, there might be some other factors affecting self-efficacy of the English teachers. Chacon (2005) based on the literature said that "teachers' perceived efficacy is a multifaceted construct that varies across tasks and contexts where teachers do their teaching". Chacon believed that more studies should be done to investigate the sense of efficacy of the English teachers who are teaching English as a foreign/second language. Recent studies by using additional independent variables were recommended to determine predictors of self-efficacy of English teachers in other places and other contexts. The use of strategies during teaching English is another independent variable worth studying for its effect on self-efficacy of TESOL teachers. In my opinion self-

efficacy beliefs will determine strategy use while teaching and, meanwhile, the use of strategies will show the degree of teacher self-efficacy. I believe that a reciprocal relationship should exist here.

Meanwhile, a review of the literature has no reference to any studies investigating the combined effects of both language skills and teaching strategy on teacher's self-efficacy; separate studies were found dealing with any of the factors but not all three together. As the result, more investigation is needed in this area to find out the relationship between the three variables to fill the gap accordingly.

Considering the above-mentioned issue, Moè et al. (2010) examined how good strategies interact with positive affect and self-efficacy in order to indicate job satisfaction of the teachers, on the assumption that effective teaching in itself cannot guarantee job satisfaction and both positive affect and self-efficacy are needed. As a result, they hypothesized that there should be an indirect relationship between teaching practice and job satisfaction and later their hypothesis was confirmed. Teaching practice has no direct effect on job satisfaction, and both positive affect and self-efficacy are required; meaning that, to have job satisfaction, both positive affect and self-efficacy are required.

We should remember that despite previous studies investigating teacher self-efficacy belief in various subject areas; such as, mathematics and science, only a few studies have been performed outside the US (Ladner, 2008; Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010; Ordonez-Feliciano, 2009;). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) found that teacher self-efficacy belief is formed not only based on personal beliefs and knowledge but also based on the influence that culture and society may have on the teacher expectations, roles, and social relations.

The context of Middle-East has not been much emphasized before, and literature review shows few studies (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010)

have investigated self-efficacy of English language teachers who are working in the English language centers and with adult language learners. So, it is needed to investigate the teaching competence of the teachers with regard to their personal skills in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in the language centers.

As a consequence, this study will aim to address the above needs and try to bridge the gap by examining English language center teachers' self-efficacy to teach English and to check if any relationship with English proficiency skills and use of strategies will be found, as this gap has not been much emphasized before.

By considering the recent studies, we can expect a reciprocal relationship between teaching strategy and self-efficacy. To be exact, good teaching strategy can be a predictor for teacher's self-efficacy. This finding accords with all the studies on self-efficacy, but to my knowledge, up to this point this area has not been touched, especially with the English teachers working in the language centers.

I hypothesized that teaching strategy is affected by teacher's self-efficacy. It is my claim that the teachers who consider themselves more efficacious will consequently think of themselves using more strategies in teaching. In contrast, teachers who think of themselves as less efficacious will use just the strategies needed during their class time teaching. It seems to me that between teacher self-efficacy and teaching strategy there should be a two-way relationship and the result of this study will confirm whether any dual relationship can be established or not. A brief summary of the results on teacher self-efficacy and the variables affecting it is shown in chapter two of this study and attached as appendix G and H as well.

So, for the first time this study investigates the interaction effect between self-efficacy, language proficiency, and teaching strategies to see if any interaction exists among these variables.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

First, to study English language center teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English, their reported proficiency level in English, their perceived use of teaching strategies, and their personal background characteristics such as age, gender, level of teaching, years of teaching English, experience traveling or studying abroad, getting IELTS or TOEFL qualification, highest level of education, and type of certificate achieved.

Second, to investigate the relationship between English language center teachers' personal background characteristics and teachers' a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported level of proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies.

To achieve these goals, the present study will employ the quantitative method of analysis, particularly descriptive and correlational research methods. The relevant questionnaires will be distributed to English teachers working in the English language centers. Since there has been scarce research on English language center teachers' self-efficacy, it was considered very helpful to give a better understanding of self-efficacy with a larger sample of the teachers in a different setting and context.

1.4 Research Questions

The followings are the questions for this research:

1. What do teachers report on:

a. their current levels of self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English on 12 Likert-type items related to self-efficacy beliefs?

b. their English proficiency level on 21 Likert-type items related to English language proficiency?

c. their making use of teaching strategies on 40 Likert-type items related to teachers' instructional strategy?

2. What is the relationship between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies?

3. What is the relationship between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies?

4. What is the relationship between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies?

5. What are significant predictors of English teachers' self-efficacy working in English language centers?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses will be tested in this research:

1. There is no relationship between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies.

2. There is no interaction effect between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies.

3. There is no interaction effect between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies.

1.6 Definitions of Key Terms

Self-efficacy belief: It applies to the teachers' generalized expectancy for their ability to influence students and their beliefs concerning their own ability to meet certain job requirements. It is believed that teachers can positively affect student learning. In this research, self-efficacy means the teacher's belief in their capability to organize and perform the actions needed to fulfill a particular teaching task in a specific context successfully (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 233).

In this study, the three sub-categories of efficacy for student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management are measured by an adapted short form of the teacher self-efficacy questionnaire developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) in order to fit the specific TESOL context of English teaching in the language centers. In this research three notions of "teacher's self-efficacy belief", "teacher's sense of efficacy" and "teacher's confidence" are used interchangeably.

English Language proficiency: In this research, English language proficiency is explained as teachers' level of English proficiency in four skills of writing, listening, reading, and speaking. In this study, English proficiency is defined as the individual teacher's mean score on the 25-item instrument for the four language domains.

Teaching strategy: In the present study, teaching strategy refers to the techniques and practical tasks that teachers report using during their teaching time to develop learner's understanding of the learning content. In this study, teaching strategy will be measured on the 6 point scale instrument consisting of 20 items.

Two categories of mechanical and communicative teaching strategies are considered in this study. Mechanical strategies are mostly based on the Audio Lingual Method and the students will just repeat whatever they are asked to do, such as drilling, repetition, reading text books, and taking note of the grammatical points of the lessons. Mechanical strategies are not meaningful as the knowledge learned is not linked to the previously-learned knowledge of the learners.

On the other hand, the communicative teaching strategies are based on the Communicative Language Teaching and the focus is on making the students involved as much as possible. Communication between the students and between the students and the teachers are emphasized. The activities here will be meaningful and students can relate their previously-learned knowledge to the newly-learned ones such as pair work, group work, and open discussions.

English Language Center: In the present study, English language center is a place where students can attend and study English language skills to be able to speak and understand English and be prepared to take their IELTS or TOEFL certificates. In this study, a pseudonym, ABC English Language Center is used instead of the real name of the study site to maintain its anonymity. Besides, there are several English classes for different levels and at different times of the day and week for the learners' convenience at ABC language center.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Teacher's self-efficacy has been investigated in different contexts and subject areas. In the science education field, researchers have particularly been questioning teacher self-efficacy belief. Mostly they have just focused on teachers working from

primary to high school (K-12) and teaching various subjects such as science and mathematics (Ladner, 2008; Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010; Ordonez-Feliciano, 2009).

For this study, a language center is chosen because in the EFL setting of this study, the language centers are the only places where learners are exposed to the foreign languages such as English. The previous studies have dealt with ESL settings, where the second language of the society was English and learners dealt with English in their daily lives (Chacón, 2005; Lee, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

In the context of this study, language centers are the only places where students can be acquainted with English and are taught the four skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing in order to communicate in English. And as this context was not much emphasized before, there is a need to examine the role of this context in teachers' self-efficacy.

In this regard, my study is significant for the following reasons:

- In the English language centers, teachers and students cannot use their mother tongue to learn and study English. Teachers are forbidden from using their native language in the classrooms and English is the only tool and communication channel. Thus, students have the double task of learning an additional language and content area material simultaneously. In the research so far, both teacher and students use their native language and teachers do not use English as a second or a foreign language to teach the courses. It means that there is no obstacle of second or foreign language in teaching and the mother-tongue of both teachers and students are used in the classrooms (Cooper, 2009; Romeo, 2010; Turnage, 2011; Wright, 2010).

- In the English language centers, English is a tool for the students to get access to the other goals in their lives. Students are attending the classes just because of their needs and their interest in learning English to succeed in university and achieve different goals in their lives. Students are learning English to be able to get their IELTS

or TOEFL certificates and be eligible to apply for foreign universities. Some others are learning English for personal reasons such as being able to communicate well, emigrate or be promoted in their jobs. Students learn English to get into universities and be educated in their favorite fields of study, so if they do not know English well, they cannot learn their content subjects (courses) which are taught in English at universities.

Though in the research so far, all the teachers teach the subjects except for English, such as teaching mathematics or science, the kind of subjects necessary for students to progress in their studies. If the students do not study these subjects, they cannot proceed to the next level of education. So the subjects under study were part of the compulsory education and we can say that students are learning sciences for the sake of science itself (Chacon, 2002; Ladner, 2008; Lee, 2009; Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010; Ordonez-Feliciano, 2009). But in the language centers, English is not studied for itself but is a tool or medium to learn the other sciences.

- Only a few studies have been done in the English language centers (except for Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010) in which the student's presence is not obligatory. Besides, here the language learners are adults and not teenagers anymore. Teaching to adults will definitely be different from teaching to teenagers and will need a different set of skills for the teaching tasks.

But the research so far has been done in primary to high schools (K-12) in which the presence of the students is obligatory; otherwise, they would be expelled from the school. Meanwhile, the previous studies were conducted on teenagers and school-aged learners whose logical abilities were not developed yet (Ball, 2010; Jimison, 2010; Romeo, 2010; Schaefer, 2010; Shim, 2001).

All these said factors highlight the role of the teacher in creating enough motivation for their students' success. This means the teachers should keep the students motivated to keep learning English. In particular, teacher self-efficacy will be a

prominent factor in this regard. Teacher's self-efficacy will determine teacher's level of confidence in teaching English and will show if they can manage the teaching situation and help their students to succeed in their learning process. Those teachers who have high levels of self-efficacy will not give up easily and will persist despite the difficulties and they will assist their students as much as they can.

- To teach in the English language centers there are two groups of teachers: native English speakers (who are very rare) and non-native English teachers whose mother tongue is not English. Some of these teachers have a related TESOL degree and some do not and it can be concluded that some know how to apply instructional strategies, student engagement, classroom management in their classrooms and some do not. Those who do not have a related TESOL degree teach based on their experiences and they have learned English practically, not academically. Some are proficient English speakers and some are not. Based on their profile, different salaries will be paid to them as well.

The research so far shows it would be advantageous for the teachers to have a degree related to their field of teaching and experience (Cooper, 2009; Jimison, 2010; Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010; Turnage, 2011).

- Although a lot of research has been done in Western countries, there is a lack of research done on teacher self-efficacy in Eastern countries, especially in the Asian context. The focus of this present study is on one Middle-east Asian country. Thus, the result of this study will add to the existing literature in the Asian context.

In this regard, the related findings have been summarized and shown in the chart and attached as Appendix E to this study.

By examining the English language center teachers' self-efficacy in relation to other variables of this study, this study can make the following contributions to the TESOL field.

First, the study investigates teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English. Although the powerful impacts of teachers' self-efficacy on different aspects of students and teachers in teaching and learning have been presented by many researchers (Henson, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), some researchers (Cooper, 2009; İlknur Pekkanli, 2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009; Seval Eminoğlu, 2010) have studied it in the TESOL context and just only a few studies (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001) have studied it in relation to teachers' level of proficiency in English. And since literature on language proficiency showed conflicting results, therefore, more research is needed in this area. It is hoped that the results of the current study will provide guidance on how language skills can boost self-efficacy of English teachers.

Moreover, currently very few studies have looked at English teachers' self-efficacy in the English language center context. Given a short explanation on the importance of learning English and the prominent role of language centers in this context, it is of importance to look into the English teachers' self-efficacy in order to give a general picture of the present status of their belief system which guides them through all aspects of their teaching process from the teachers' perspective in the context of English language center in the TESOL field. It is hoped that the results of this study will help to shed light on this issue and encourage additional investigations.

Second, this research studies the interaction effect between teachers' self-efficacy and other factors such as their reported English language skills, their perceived use of strategies, and their personal background characteristics. While the relation of English proficiency skills was checked against teachers' self-efficacy (Chacon, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001), the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their use of strategies has not been investigated before. By including one more variable which is supposed to be related to the teachers' confidence based on the literature

reviewed (Moè et al., 2010), the present study attempts to give a more comprehensive picture of English language center teachers' self-efficacy by considering the possible factors related to it.

Finally, the results of the study will provide useful information for teachers and supervisors in suggesting the possible relationships between different factors which were studied. However, the implications of this research will not be confined to the Middle-East Asian context. But, it is my belief that it might be extended to a broader context of all English language centers where English is taught as a second/foreign language to the students, namely the TESOL field.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter first presents the theoretical framework that guided this study. Then, it presents a review of existing literature on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs which covers the following three major categories: (a) General studies on teachers' self-efficacy, (b) Related studies on English teachers' self-efficacy in the EFL/ESL setting, and (c) Shadow education.

In this study, language proficiency and teaching strategy are considered as two independent variables and their effects on teachers' self-efficacy, as the dependent variable, will be measured. Teachers' level of English proficiency in four skills of writing, listening, reading, and speaking will be assumed as teacher's language proficiency. And teaching strategy refers to the techniques and practical tasks that teachers use during their teaching time to develop learner's understanding of the learning content.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Social cognitive theory

In social cognitive theory a central role is given to cognitive, vicarious, self-regulatory, and self-reflective processes (Bandura, 2001). Bandura said that people are self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating, and they are not just reactive organisms directed by the environmental events or inner forces. Accordingly,

in society the belief that people have in their effectiveness in order to be able to have control over the events in their life is the most important element. If people believe that they can make favorable influences and prevent the unfavorable ones by their performances, they will be motivated enough to act. Bandura (2001) believed that efficacy beliefs affect the way people think either positively or negatively, the kind of aims they would like to achieve and also their commitments to achieve the results of their efforts. Having high levels of self-efficacy motivates people to have higher goals and as the result they persevere if they face any obstacles or adverse situation and also they will perform much better.

Accordingly, Barnyak and McNelly (2009) mentioned that social cognitive theory presents the way people create the beliefs based on their abilities which will ultimately shape their goals in life. In addition, the beliefs that people have about their capabilities will show their success in some situations.

They explained that when people cannot understand something, they think of taking advantage of the learning process in order to increase their understanding in case they are motivated. It is also mentioned that high levels of self-efficacy for specific goals will specify the level of success for those goals. To this end, it is my hypothesis that teachers' self-efficacy leads to successful implementation of strategies in the classroom.

2.2.2 Self-efficacy theory

Self-efficacy is a component of Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). People's thoughts, motivation and actions are influenced by self-efficacy in conjunction with the other elements of the theory. Perceived self-efficacy is the beliefs in one's abilities in order to organize and carry out the actions which are needed to produce the given achievements (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy studies have not only focused on students' performance but also on the effect on the teachers. Self-efficacy of the teachers can be explained as an opinion on abilities to affect student learning and engagement, especially difficult or unmotivated ones (Pajares & Urdan, 2006).

The important determinant of human motivation, well-being, and sense of accomplishment is self-efficacy belief. People will not get motivated to face difficult situations unless they know the things they do will end in a favorable result (Pajares, Johnson, & Usher, 2007).

Bandura's (1977) theory is supported by some practical studies showing that teacher self-efficacy is connected to the efforts that teachers put into their teaching process, the goals they set, and their resilience when things do not go favorably (Tschannen- Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Self-efficacy theory which has been applied in the educational field has shown how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are connected to their performance in addition to the results they gain (Tschannen- Moran et al., 1998). People's motivation, action, thoughts are controlled by self-efficacy through processes such as cognitive, affective, motivational and selective. These four processes influence people's way of thinking, acting, and motivation and they do not work in isolation; instead they work in concert with each other to regulate human functioning (Bandura, 1997).

We should remember that self-efficacy is based on a motivational construct and it is the self perception of competence instead of actual level of competence, so actions and behaviors will be better predicted by beliefs instead of actual performance (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009).

Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, and Benson (2010) found that one's self-efficacy shapes one's actions and decisions. Teachers may perceive their level of competence higher or lower than any other external examination of their teaching skill.

It is beneficial if the teachers could overestimate their real teaching skills; such as their enthusiasm in putting extra effort in dealing with obstacles which will help them to make the most of their skills and abilities (Bandura, 1977; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Meanwhile, self-efficacy would affect teachers' instructional practices (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1992; Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Based on Bandura (1993, 1997); instructional efficacy beliefs will influence the learning environment that teachers create for students' learning. High-efficacious teachers think that challenging students are teachable by putting in some more effort, while the low-efficacious teachers believe that unmotivated students are not teachable (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Those teachers who think they have the ability to increase learning of their students will make mastery experiences for them, while the teachers who are doubtful about their instructional efficacy will create the kind of environments that will decrease the judgments of their students on their skills and their cognitive development (Bandura, 1997).

Teachers' self-efficacy is reciprocally determined because it influences teachers' pedagogical actions and behavior besides their opinions of the results of such actions. Efficacy research pays attention to how efficacy beliefs influence teacher behaviors. Researchers have presented how teaching efficacy influences the effort teachers put into difficult situations and predicts teachers' participation in goal setting, experimentation, planning and organization. Also, effectiveness may predict a teacher's overall motivation for teaching (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen- Moran et al., 1998).

Different researches tried to connect the use of certain kinds of instructional strategies to the self-efficacy of the teachers; but, no such research has been reported in the EFL context, especially in the Middle East which is the aim of this study. In my opinion, self-efficacy determines the kind of strategies used during teaching and

meanwhile, the use of strategies shows the level of self-efficacy of the teachers. I believe that a mutual relationship should exist here.

2.2.3 Theoretical framework

In this study the model proposed by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) is adapted to base and form the theoretical framework of the present study.

Figure 2.1: Adapted teacher efficacy model based on Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998)

Based on their model, self-efficacy is cyclical in nature. Firstly, the four sources of mastery experience, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences and physiological arousal will provide the information about one's efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Later the information is processed by the teachers through the analysis of the teaching task and evaluating personal teaching competence. Teachers generate efficacy judgments after the information is analyzed. After that, teachers use these judgments in order to determine their goals, the amount of effort to achieve the goals, and also their persistence. Teachers' performance and outcomes of their efforts will make new mastery experiences that will cause in future judgments of efficacy (Pajares & Urdan, 2006).

Higher efficacy causes more effort and persistence that will lead to much better accomplishments which will increase efficacy. The opposite of this is also true. Having lower efficacy beliefs causes fewer attempts which end up in poor teaching results and that will in turn produce lower efficacy.

It should be remembered that teacher self-efficacy is context-specific like all self-efficacy judgments rather than a general expectation. Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy level varies in different circumstances (Bandura, 1997).

This model is an improvement over previous models by clarifying the judgment of personal competence with regard to analysis of the task and the situation. Self-perceptions of teaching competence and the beliefs about the demands of the task in a given situation will result in teacher efficacy.

Based on this model, teachers are seen to judge what is expected of them in the expected teaching context, which is called the analysis of teaching task by taking into account factors such as the students' motivation, suitable teaching strategies, management issues, the accessibility of teaching materials, having access to technology, and teaching context.

In addition, assessing the personal teaching competence will influence teacher efficacy too. Teacher efficacy is determined by the individual's comparative assessment of whether their present skills and strategies are appropriate for the needed teaching task. Teachers may feel efficacious in one context and completely ineffective in another. A person's efficacy beliefs are affected by the belief that whether these skills and strategies are fixed or they can be acquired through additional training (Bandura, 1993).

In the assessment of self-efficacy, teachers perceive their personal teaching competence with regard to the assumed requirements of the expected teaching task. Based on this, teachers make a judgment about their abilities which is the self-perception of teaching competence, while the analysis of the teaching task is the judgment concerning the resources and limitations in a given teaching situation.

Language proficiency and teaching strategies, as shown in this study, serve as the assessment of personal teaching competence and analysis of teaching task. It is hypothesized that language skills and teaching strategies are the determinants of teacher self-efficacy.

2.2.4 The role of language proficiency

Language skills form the basis of the professional confidence of non-native English speakers (NNES). Language competence is the most important criteria for a good teacher (Lange, l990) which is the result of Hymes (1966) communicative competence.

Communicative competence is a linguistics term that is related to a language user's syntactic, morphological, phonological knowledge in addition to the social knowledge on how and when to use the utterances properly.

Later, Canale and Swain (1980) explained communicative competence by the use of four elements of discourse competence, grammatical competence, strategic competence, and sociolinguistic competence.

Different researchers have defined language proficiency in different ways. Some of them differentiate speaking skills from the other skills which are related with successful functioning in an academic environment. For instance, Cummins (1979) used the terms Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills **(**BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to differentiate these two viewpoints of language proficiency which makes the basis of theory of language proficiency in this study.

BICS is also referred to as playground English or survival English. It refers to the basic language skills needed in face-to-face communication. BICS is highly contextualized and is sometimes accompanied by gestures and it is also cognitively undemanding and is based on the situation to facilitate understanding. It is acquired much easier and faster than CALP but it is not enough for meeting the linguistic and cognitive needs of an academic classroom (Baker & Jones, 1998; Cummins, 1984). In this study some of the questions asked in the questionnaire are based on BICS and asking for survival English.

CALP is the kind of necessary language skills needed to read textbooks, to take part in conversations and discussions, and in order to answer the tests (Cummins, 1980, 1981; Krashen & Biber, 1988; Rosenthal, 1996; Spurlin, 1995). CALP allows learners to learn in a context that is based on verbal description of abstract ideas such as classroom lectures or the assignments in reading textbooks. In this study, some of the questions are based on the idea of CALP and are more sophisticated compared to the questions about BICS.

BICS and CALP are clear in Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory in which personal, environmental and behavioral factors occur in conjunction.

Here, the teacher language proficiency (personal factor) is affected by the kind of the context available and provided, whether the language is contextualized or decontextualized (environmental factors), and will ultimately affect the way teachers apply instructional strategies in the classroom (behavior).

Teachers' confidence is underestimated by a low knowledge of the English language in the classroom (Doff, 1987). Low knowledge of language may influence the self-esteem of the teachers and disturb their teaching process. In addition, it can also prevent teachers from performing the educational requirements of the communicative approach.

Based on the researches done, perceived proficiency of language is an essential element for NNES teachers and it influences their professional self-esteem (Medgyes, 1994; Reeves & Medgyes, 1994; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). Likewise, it was reported that 72% of the nonnative speaking graduate students accepted that their inadequate language skills prevented their teaching process (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

It is clear that language skills are a factor associated with EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy. As a result, an objective of this research is to investigate how self-efficacy and language proficiency of EFL teachers are related with each other. It is hypothesized that higher language competence will result in higher self-efficacy and in reverse, lower language proficiency will result in lower self-efficacy.

2.2.5 The role of instructional strategy

Meanwhile teaching or instructional strategy is one of the components of the analysis of teaching task. Teaching strategies are influenced by Gagne's theory of instruction in which he considered nine elements of instruction such as gaining

attention, informing learners of objectives, stimulating recall of prior learning, presenting the stimulus, providing learning guidance, eliciting performance, providing feedback, assessing performance, enhancing retention and transfer. According to Gagne, the most important cornerstone of teaching process is the learning situation. As a result, the learning contexts should be further investigated in as much detail as possible.

Gagne created the Instructional Design Model by linking the behavioral and the information processing approaches. He was supporting the behavioral approach at the beginning and later he was in favor of the information processing approach. The main element of the information processing theory is memory which includes the Instructional Design Theory as well.

In this study two main categories of teaching strategies, namely mechanical and communicative, are used. Mechanical and communicative teaching strategies form the two ends of the continuum in the teaching era which is based on rote /meaningful learning of Ausubel (1963).

Mechanical teaching strategies are rote learning which is based on a memorization technique of repetition. The idea is that one will be able to quickly store the meaning of the material the more one repeats it. Here the students will have relevant knowledge but are not able to use this knowledge in solving problems, meaning that they cannot transfer their information to a new situation (Mayer, 1992). Rote learning is not meaningful learning unless it is organized.

The alternative to rote learning is meaningful learning where learning refers to the situation where acquiring the new information is associated with the previous information (Ausubel, 2000). Meaningful learning happens when students make use of the information and the needed cognitive processes to successfully solve problems (Mayer, 1992).

Ausubel (1967) focused on meaningful learning as a clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience. Once meaningful signs, symbols, or propositions are included in a given individual's cognitive structure, meaningful learning will emerge (Takač, 2008).

Meaningful and rote learning have been differentiated in that rote learning is a type of learning where there is no link between the subject learned and other subjects and as a result it is quickly forgotten. Even so, rote learning that is repeated over many times will not be forgotten (for example, the multiplication table).

On the other hand, meaningful learning is a kind of learning where the subject is meaningfully learned by incorporating the new concept into relevant topics and also by making connections between the new subject and the existing information in the learners. As a result, rote learning is forgotten faster while meaningful learning is not (Ausubel, 1963).

So, based on this study, it is hypothesized that teachers who are strong and have high command of language proficiency (CALP) are more able to deal with the higher-demanded strategies in their teaching (communicative). As a result, they have higher self-efficacy.

On the other hand those who are not proficient enough in the English language and have the basic-needed language skills (BICS) to teach will try to use the teaching strategies which are not highly demanding (mechanical) in their classrooms. Consequently, their self-efficacy level will be lower.

2.3 Experimental studies on English Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Along with the growth of teacher efficacy research, teacher's self-efficacy has been investigated in different contexts and subject matters. Researchers in the science education field, in particular, have been actively inquiring into teacher efficacy

(Bleicher, 2004; Riggs & Enochs, 1990). However, in the TESOL field, studies on teachers' self-efficacy are extremely scarce. A library search for this subject yielded only three unpublished doctoral dissertations (Chacón, 2002; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001), some international journal articles (Chacón, 2005; İlknur Pekkanli, 2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009; Seval Eminoğlu, 2010). All of the studies were conducted in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting, where English is not used for daily communication purposes. Here in this part, a brief description on the importance of English language learning will be provided first and later the practical findings on teacher self-efficacy will be explained.

2.3.1 General studies on teachers' sense of efficacy

A summary of the research done on teacher self-efficacy will be provided here.

In a study by Soodak and Podell (1996), the dimensions for teacher self-efficacy were explored. To this purpose, 310 teachers' responses to an adapted form of the Gibson and Dembo (1984) scale were analyzed; factor analysis revealed three factors, namely teaching efficacy, outcome efficacy, and personal efficacy.

Personal efficacy and outcome efficacy are related to teachers' beliefs about themselves and not about their occupation. Personal efficacy relates to teachers' beliefs on the teaching skills that they possess and their capability to perform teaching tasks while outcome efficacy is the belief on their ability to produce favorable students' outcomes. Meanwhile teaching efficacy is the perception that the outside influences could be overcome through teaching, such as the influence of television violence and heredity.

Soodak and Podell's findings were used in later research to verify their findings and see if these sources would be verified in other contexts.

Later, Hoy and Spero (2005) reported the changes in efficacy of the teachers from entrance to a teacher preparatory program to the induction year. It was believed that mastery experiences have the most important effects on the efficacy development during student teaching and the induction year. Based on self-efficacy theory of Bandura, efficacy is mostly influenced in the early stages of learning. As a result, teaching at the first years is important to teacher efficacy development.

Their results showed that efficacy increased significantly in the student teaching period while it decreased in the first year of teaching. The decrease in the efficacy level during the first teaching year was connected with the amount of support received and probably these first-year teachers discovered that teaching is more than method and strategy; as the result their efficacy dropped.

In another study, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, and Malone (2006) investigated self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers as determinants of their job satisfaction and student academic achievement. More than 75 Italian junior high schools and 2000 teachers were contacted and they reported on their self-efficacy perceptions and job satisfaction. Besides that average final grades of the students at the end of junior high school in two following years were collected.

It was found that previous academic achievement of the students contributed to self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers. While previous academic achievement of the students did not have any influence on teachers' job satisfaction.

Moreover, Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007) explored teaching efficacy of the Turkish preservice science teachers and their beliefs on managing the classroom. The data from 584 preservice science teachers were collected by using the Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument and the attitudes and beliefs on classroom control (ABCC) inventory. Analysis of data showed that the teachers stated positive efficacy beliefs on teaching of science. Moreover, the findings indicated that teachers were interventionist

considering instructional management, while they were non-interventionist regarding the people management sub-category of the ABCC inventory. The researchers concluded that preservice science teachers believed that in order to teach effectively, they should keep order and control students' instructional activities strictly.

In terms of gender, no significant differences were found either on the instructional management or on the people management subs-categories of the ABCC inventory of prospective science teachers. Also, no significant difference was found between the third-year and fourth-year preservice science teachers' management styles and efficacy beliefs.

At the same time, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) investigated the different antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers and experienced ones.

Based on the general assumption, mastery experiences are the most potent of all the sources of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. As a result, the other sources of self-efficacy are of large importance at the beginning of learning once not enough mastery experiences are available. Around 255 career and novice teachers took part in the research. And the results of their study indicated that for novice teachers, contextual variables and mastery experience explained 49% of the variation in TSES while only 19% of the variation was due to contextual variables besides the mastery experience for career teachers.

Meanwhile, self-efficacy of the novice teachers was more affected by contextual factors such as verbal persuasion and resource availability in comparison with career teachers. Inputs such as emotional arousal, vicarious experiences, and verbal persuasion are most important for preservice teachers who do not have enough mastery experiences. Also, there was no relation between demographic characteristics (race and gender) and self-efficacy beliefs of novice and career teachers. Besides, the level of teaching is another variable whose relationship to teachers' self-efficacy should be

further examined. My hypothesis is that teachers who teach higher levels should have higher self-efficacy in comparison to those who are teaching lower levels. In this regard, my hypothesis is contradictory to Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's findings that those who teach the youngest students have higher efficacy beliefs. Thus, this study will be conducted to clarify this issue.

In another study, Ladner (2008) investigated how self-efficacy of community college mathematics faculty is related with the effective instructional practice. It was believed that teachers' self-efficacy is related with teachers' success that will impact student learning.

Quantitative data revealed that teachers consider themselves to be highly efficacious. High correlations existed between the self-efficacy and the instructional strategy constructs. The high reliabilities and high correlations could be the result of an exaggerated self-perception of the participants. The quantitative data were supported by the qualitative data from interviews; however, different results were found by observing six teachers. The actual instructional practice of the instructors was less efficacious than their self-reporting perception of efficaciousness in instructional effectiveness and the efficaciousness ranged from "moderately efficacious" to "slightly efficacious". Meanwhile their effectiveness also ranged from "very effective" and "moderately effective" to "slightly effective" and "not effective."

In the same year, Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, and Ellett (2008) differentiated between teacher efficacy and teacher self-efficacy and they described a necessity to have a theory and research-based measurements for self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers which were based on the context of the classroom. As a result, a new measurement of teachers' self-efficacy named Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) was made.

Besides, Chan (2008) examined two global self-efficacy beliefs of general and collective besides seven domain-specific teacher self-efficacy beliefs. He conducted his study among 273 Chinese in-service and prospective teachers in Hong Kong. Based on the results, out of four groups of the teachers, those who were experienced had the highest level of global and domain-specific teacher self-efficacy. This implied that teacher self-efficacy was rising while a teacher was going through preparation and teaching practice in order to become a novice and after that an experienced teacher.

The findings of his study indicated that collective, general, and domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers were different and can be measured separately. His study gave enough evidence that self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers, either global or domain-specific, will increase when teachers go through teacher preparation in order to become novice teachers and later on more experienced ones, unlike the belief that the self-efficacy of prospective teachers is unrealistically high and will decrease with real teaching experience.

According to the result of Chan's study, we can conclude that experienced teachers will consider themselves more efficacious. This result supports Bandura's social cognitive theory that mastery experiences are of much importance to self-efficacy, as mastery experience enhances teachers' self-efficacy. To this end, in this present study, teachers' experience will be considered as a demographic variable whose relationship to teachers' self-efficacy will be further investigated.

Later, Ordonez-Feliciano (2009) considered how mathematics teachers' efficacy and choice of instructional strategies are related. Moreover, the relationship between self-efficacy of the teachers and some of the demographic characteristics, such as race, gender, type of teaching certificate, number of years of teaching mathematics, and highest level of education achieved was measured.

Results showed that teachers with higher TSES scores had significantly higher use of problem-based learning, direct instruction, and communication and study skills. It was also noteworthy that teachers with higher self-efficacy scores used manipulative and multiple representations, and collaborative learning, more than teachers with lower TSES scores. In contrast, the teachers with lower self-efficacy used technology-aided instruction more than teachers with higher self-efficacy.

Hispanic teachers reported greater mean scores than white, black, and other teachers in the efficacy of student engagement factor, but not in the efficacy in instruction and student management factors.

Moreover, teachers who had elementary teaching certificates reported higher self-efficacy than teachers with middle school math certificates. Based on the data, teachers with a master's degree or higher had greater TSES mean scores than teachers holding a bachelors degree; they had especially higher efficacy in student engagement. Regarding years of teaching experience, teachers with 11 to 15 years of experience had higher TSES mean scores compared with teachers who had 16 to 20 years of experience and those with more than 20 years.

The study by Klassen et al. (2009) had two purposes. Firstly, they aimed to check Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale's (TSES) validity in five contexts of Singapore, Korea, the United States, Canada, and Cyprus. Secondly, they wanted to find the importance of the self-efficacy construct of teachers in different teaching situations. After that the three factors of TSES and job satisfaction was explored to check their relationship. The findings demonstrated that the TSES is reliable and the relationship between job satisfaction and the TSES was similar across settings. The research showed that self-efficacy is a valid construct in different cultural contexts and a similar relationship with teachers' job satisfaction in five different settings was found.

Klassen et al. (2009) concluded that job satisfaction is just one possible outcome of the teachers' self-efficacy; we can also have increase in student motivation and performance at the time that the teachers are confident enough to be able to engage the students successfully in various situations.

Probably the most interesting result is that TSES is a valid measurement of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in different settings. Given these results, in this study TSES will be used as a valid and reliable measurement to check for English teachers' self-efficacy.

Highlighting social cognitive theory of Bandura, Saracaloglu and Dinçer (2009) indicated the relationship between academic motivation and teachers' self-efficacy. The relational survey method was used and the participants were 251 prospective teachers from two universities in Turkey. Two questionnaires of Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and Academic Motivational Scale designed of Bozanoglu (2004) were used in the study. Academic motivation and self-efficacy levels of the prospective teachers were examined in relation to their gender, university, grade point average and course times. Results showed that academic motivation and self-efficacy of the prospective teachers are moderately correlated and also there were low positive relationships between GPA and total academic motivation scores.

It was shown that grade point average and course times did not have any influence on academic motivation and self efficacy scores, while a significant relationship was found between academic motivation scores and gender besides university and teachers' self- efficacy scores.

2.3.2 Recent studies on teachers' sense of efficacy

Similarly, Jimison (2010) studied special education teachers' self-efficacy and its effect on student achievement. Seventeen teachers of students with emotional

disturbance who were teaching in a public school system in a southern state formed the sample of the study. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and some demographic variables such as ethnicity, gender, qualification, and years of teaching experience, was also examined.

Self-efficacy scores and the percentage of students passing or failing had a statistically significant relationship. There was no linear correlation between ethnicity, gender, qualification, and teaching experience and teacher self-efficacy. This could be the result of the small sample size (n = 17). In the study, female teachers formed a larger percentage of the sample (n = 11) and reported higher self-efficacy mean scores in comparison with male teachers.

In another study, Wright (2010) investigated the relationship between teacher religiosity and self-efficacy. Independent variables including experience, level taught, teacher age, gender, campus type such as public or private religious, and also teacher religious orientation like intrinsic or extrinsic and also the dependent variable of teacher self-efficacy score were entered into a multiple regression analysis. Grade level taught, teacher age, and intrinsic religious orientation were the three significant variables identified by the study. Based on the comparison of beta weights, teacher intrinsic religious orientation and teacher age were among the important contributors.

Simultaneously, Romeo (2010) examined how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and professional learning community are related together in an exploratory study. No strong positive correlations were found between the School Professional Staff as Learning Community (SPSLCQ) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

Meanwhile, no significant correlation was also found among some of the background characteristics such as gender, school location, grade level taught, experience working at current school, experience as a professional educator and level of education and the subcategories of the TSES (engagement and management) besides the

subcategories of the SPSLCQ (trust, interaction, improvement, and sharing). However, the most interesting finding of the Engagement regression is that teachers' number of years as an educator showed statistical significance. It is a common belief that older teachers who have more experience are more cynical about student engagement and student behaviors. Contrary to the previous studies, in Romeo's research the most experienced teachers have high self efficacy levels considering student engagement.

Besides, Ball (2010) investigated relationships among collective efficacy, teacher self-efficacy, and trust among the teachers in a southwest Texas school area. Factors considered in the analysis of data included gender, years of experience, ethnicity, and the level of mentorship provided.

Significant differences were found between males and females on trust in students, trust in principal, collective efficacy, and student engagement. There was not such a significant difference between female and male teachers regarding classroom management, instructional strategies, and trust in colleagues. The results of MANOVA showed significant differences between trust in colleagues and years of experience. Regarding ethnicity, African Americans had a larger mean difference compared to the other ethnicity groups (Anglo, Hispanic, and other) on both student engagement and collective efficacy. For "teacher certification," however, no significant differences were found.

Schaefer (2010) studied the relationship between teacher attitudes and teacher efficacy toward the inclusive classroom and confirmed the hypothesis that teacher efficacy can predict teacher attitudes toward inclusion. Principal leadership style was found to be the strongest predictor of teacher efficacy. The overall school inclusion climate was also related to the principal's leadership style, which affected individual teacher efficacy in classroom management and instructional strategies.

The correlation analyses provided four significant relationships. A statistically significant relationship was found between integration of students with disabilities and school-wide activities scale, and between principal leadership style and both the efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management scale. Finally, efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management scale were significantly correlated.

In their study, Moè, Pazzaglia, and Ronconi (2010) investigated how good strategies and praxis relate with self-efficacy and positive affect in order to show job satisfaction of the teachers. They hypothesized that effective teaching does not guarantee satisfaction and in fact self-efficacy beliefs and positive affect are needed. They made use of self-assessment scales developed for investigating self-efficacy in teaching, the use of efficient teaching strategies and praxes, job satisfaction and positive affect. Some 399 teachers completed the questionnaires. Structural equation modeling (SEM) showed that both positive affect and self-efficacy beliefs have a mediating role in the relationship between teaching strategies and job satisfaction.

Teaching practice and job satisfaction were indirectly related. It was shown that teaching practice is not directly influencing job satisfaction and the mediation of self-efficacy and positive affect is needed. So, in order to have job satisfaction, we should have both self-efficacy and positive affect. This result means that some of the teachers can teach effectively but they have this belief that they are not capable of teaching as they have low self-efficacy. On the other hand, some other teachers can teach well but they cannot have the positive affect which is resulting from doing well. Consequently, they are not satisfied and the better they teach, the lower their satisfaction. It was concluded that job satisfaction relies on self-efficacy beliefs and positive affect.

The results of this study are of considerable importance to the researcher and is the leading point to conduct the present study to see if any correlation can be found between teaching strategies and teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English in the

language centers in the TESOL context. Meanwhile, I made used of the scale developed by Moe et al. (2010) and adapted it based on the context of this study.

In their study, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010), aimed to examine the factor structure of a newly-developed Norwegian scale to measure teachers' self-efficacy and also to investigate relationships between teachers' belief on the school context, teacher job satisfaction, collective teacher efficacy, teacher burnout, teacher self-efficacy, and teachers' beliefs about the external factors which may limit their accomplishments. A total of 2249 Norwegian elementary and middle school teachers were the participants of the study. Structural equation modeling was used to analyze the data. It was shown that collective efficacy, teachers' self-efficacy, and two dimensions of burnout were variously related to school context variables and also to job satisfaction.

The conceptualization of self-efficacy as a multidimensional construct was supported by the result of their study and it was shown that the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale is a helpful measurement. It was indicated that collective efficacy and teacher self-efficacy are different but correlated constructs. Despite being positively correlated, collective efficacy and teacher self-efficacy were related to the school context in different ways. Teachers' self-efficacy was highly related with teachers' relationships to parents while collective efficacy was related with supervisory support besides being related to relationships of the teachers to parents and also to teacher autonomy.

Besides, Uzun et al. (2010) analyzed teacher candidates' efficacy at the CEIT (Computer Education and Instructional Technologies) department using some variables such as gender and general academic achievement. Moreover, the relationship between educational software development self-efficacy beliefs of the teacher candidates and self-efficacy beliefs were looked into.

Participants of their study were twenty-nine students. The instruments used were the educational software development self-efficacy scale and the self-efficacy scale. Gender had no significant effect on self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers. Self-efficacy beliefs of teacher candidates and their general academic achievement were weakly related. Moreover, high positive relationship was found between self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers and educational software development self-efficacy beliefs of the teacher candidates at CEIT department. The findings were not generalizable due to the limited number of participants which were only from one department.

Recently, Turnage (2011) examined the relationship between teacher efficacy, years of teaching experience and grade level taught in three school areas in north Mississippi. The results of the analysis showed that there was not such a significant difference between teaching experience, grade level taught, and teacher efficacy. Moreover, no significant interaction was shown between the two independent variables of grade level taught and years of teaching experience. Further analysis showed that the difference in teacher efficacy scores for elementary and high school teachers was approaching significance.

Following that, Maguire (2011, unpublished thesis) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student achievement in high school mathematics. The study wanted to determine if a teacher's confidence level has influence on student success in mathematics and also to discover which kind of teacher self-efficacy better predicts student performance. Results indicated that teacher efficacy highly predicted student achievement, while the predictor variables were the subcategories of teacher efficacy in classroom management and student engagement in connection with teacher experience and age. Teacher age and experience were two independent variables which have significant effect on teachers' self-efficacy despite the other opposite findings.

The inconsistent findings of the above-mentioned research regarding the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and teachers' demographic characteristics necessitate the need to replicate the study in other contexts and see whether these findings will be verified or not. Conducting a new study using the above-mentioned teachers' demographic characteristics such as gender, age, level of teaching, years of teaching experience, highest level of education as variables of the study and investigating their relationship with teachers' self-efficacy will clarify the previous studies. By investigating the issue furthermore, we will be able to see whether the previously-found results will be verified or a new aspect will be opened up to the researchers working on teacher self-efficacy. Results of this study will contribute to the literature too.

Language center policy makers and supervisors will benefit most from the findings of this study. Language centers can make use of the results of the present study to increase their productivity and student enrollment and to provide the best learning environment and teaching methods based on their students' needs.

2.3.3 Related Studies on English Teachers' Self-Efficacy in the EFL/ESL Setting

Although there are few studies on self-efficacy of the teachers in TESOL context, I could manage to find the following results:

In a study, Shim (2001) investigated teacher self-efficacy and its relationship with some other variables in Korean public middle and high school English teachers. Out of 121 contacted teachers, just 108 teachers answered the questionnaires. Hoy and Woolfolk's (1993) Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) was employed to measure the self-efficacy of the English teachers. Teachers' self-efficacy was examined in connection with intrapersonal variables of classroom management, role preparedness, teaching

satisfaction, and language skills, besides interpersonal variables such as level of academic emphasis perceptions of school stress, working relationship with peer teachers, and demographic variables like level of educational, grade level of the students, gender, and having the experience of visiting English speaking countries.

Participants had similar aspects of efficacy like the American teachers recognized in Gibson and Dembo (1984). The dimensions were Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE), and General Teaching Efficacy (GTE). It was found that PTE had statistically significant correlations with other variables such as classroom management, academic emphasis, teaching satisfaction, job preparedness, and listening skills. On the other hand, GTE did not have any significant correlation with other independent variables. It was reported that the participants had low levels of GTE. Shim recommended that future research should examine the reasons behind the low scores and they should try to help teachers to increase their GTE level.

Shim (2001) came up with interesting findings on how teachers' sense of efficacy and their language skills are related which are relevant to my study. Not a strong relationship was found between teachers' language skills and sense of efficacy which is not in accord with the assumed relationship between the two in the TESOL context (e.g., Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003). In Shim's study teachers' self-reported proficiency in speaking and listening were the variables that differentiated three sets of teachers who were having high, mid, and low efficacy from each other, but the direction was opposite. It means that more efficacious teachers reported themselves stronger in listening skills than less efficacious teachers. On the other hand, less efficacious teachers reported themselves higher in speaking skills than more efficacious teachers. This result was unexpected, assuming that language skills such as writing, speaking, listening and reading could be critical in forming a strong teacher self-efficacy. Moreover, the two skills of writing and reading had no effect on teachers' sense of

efficacy. As a result, more investigation was recommended to check how teacher efficacy and English language skills are related. Shim (2001) further suggested that language skills are not enough for efficacious language teaching.

In another study, Chacón (2002, 2005) examined Venezuelan English teachers' self-efficacy through modification of different scales of teacher efficacy such as Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001); Science Teacher Efficacy Scale (Riggs & Enochs, 1990); and two Rand items. Job preparedness scales, the five language skills of speaking, reading, writing, listening and culture, besides management and instructional strategies were also added. She could contact 104 English teachers in private and public middle schools in San Cristóbal in Venezuela. Teachers' self-efficacy was examined in relation to their self-reported teaching strategies, self-reported language proficiency, job preparedness, student management strategies, and professional backgrounds. Later on, the interviews with 20 participants were conducted to triangulate the survey data.

Chacón (2002, 2005) noted that the self-efficacy of the Venezuelan English teachers was in relation with their job preparedness. This result corroborated Shim's findings. Unlike Shim (2001), Chacón (2005, 2002) concluded that teacher self-efficacy was positively related with all language skills, meaning that the teachers who had higher efficacy in the language skills had higher self-efficacy in motivating students besides in designing instructional strategies. Considering Bandura's (1997) theory, this finding is important as teachers' judgments on their teaching competence affect EFL teachers' practice regarding their goals and efforts.

It was also shown that teachers' efficacy in instructional strategies was higher than efficacy for student engagement and classroom management. PTE and perceived language proficiency had substantial positive correlations with reading, writing, speaking, listening and culture. Meanwhile, the correlations between GTE and language

proficiency were positive but lower, except for reading. Also, English language proficiency had positive correlations with two of the TSES subscales, namely engagement and instructional strategies but had no correlations with classroom management, except for writing.

These findings indicated that language proficiency is a strong predictor of self-efficacy of the teachers to teach English. This result was not in accord with Shim's findings which necessitates that the study should be done again to check for inconsistent findings.

Moreover, participants showed inclination toward grammar-oriented strategies and most of the interviewees claimed more use of grammar-oriented strategies which emphasized accuracy rather than communication strategies which emphasized meaning. Statistical analyses on participants' language proficiency showed low means on speaking, listening and culture knowledge, highlighting the language deficiencies of the participants. This result was confirmed during the interviews and most of the interviewees indicated their deficiencies in spoken English.

The implications were that the four skills of English proficiency namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing were vital to make sense of efficacy as strong as possible. Remembering the task specificity of perceived efficacy, it can be concluded that without communicative competence, many EFL teachers will not be able to employ communicative language teaching in their English class. In addition to mastery experiences, teachers need vicarious experiences through making a model and observing effective teachers as influential sources which strengthens their self-efficacy.

Considering the background variables, just staff development had a positive correlation with instructional strategies and student engagement dimension of participants' self-efficacy. Years of experience and teachers' perceived efficacy were

not correlated and this supports previously done studies. Meanwhile, participants' self-efficacy was not associated with studying or traveling to English-speaking countries.

Following Shim (2001) and Chacon (2005), Lee (2009) examined teachers' confidence in teaching English in Korean elementary schools. Attitudes of the teachers toward the English language and the current Korean elementary English education policy and practices, besides teachers' English language proficiency were also examined. In addition, their English teaching efficacy was investigated in relation to English proficiency, their attitudes toward the English language and teacher characteristics.

It was found that in the context of foreign language, the significant aspect to examine in teacher self-efficacy to teach the target language is oral target language use. Moreover, current English proficiency level and the attitude toward English as an international language were significant predictors for English teachers' efficacy beliefs.

The result indicated that PTE was positively related with elementary school teaching experience, age, and highest degree earned while PTE was not related with English teaching-specific professional backgrounds such as English teaching experiences, in-service training of English teaching or English education. This finding indicates that the English-teaching specific professional background variables are more likely to be independent of the more global, non-subject area specific teacher efficacy.

Age and elementary teaching experience were negatively related to the instructional strategies and oral English language use while PTE had positive relationships with these two variables. Majoring in English education and teaching experience had significant positive relationships with efficacy dimensions.

It was unexpected that the teachers' participation in in-service teacher training programs (either at basic or advanced programs) had no significant relationship beyond the negligible level with their English teaching-specific efficacy. Lee's findings support

Chacon's, regarding how English teachers' self-efficacy and language proficiency are related together, but on the other hand is in contrast to Shim's findings. These controversial findings between teachers' language proficiency and self-efficacy relationships have encouraged me to conduct this present study.

Later, Cooper (2009) in a correlational exploratory study examined the self-efficacy (SE) levels of elementary ESL teachers and identified the key factors that lead to individual differences in SE. The study investigated if age, teaching experience, and gender contributed to reported levels of SE; besides that, the study also examined if the teachers' type of licensure, ability to speak the students' native language, or number of days of professional development specifically for ESL teaching affected their reported level of self-efficacy. Results showed that age and number of ESL-specific professional development days had the greatest influences on teachers' Self-Efficacy scores.

In another study Rastegar and Memarpour (2009 assessed emotional intelligence and its relationship with Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy. the hypothesis was that developing teachers' emotional intelligence will result in increased self-efficacy levels and vice versa. Moreover, the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were investigated in connection with teaching experience, age and gender. The Emotional Intelligence Scale of Schutte et al. (1998) and Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) were used as the instruments. A positive and significant correlation was indicated between perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy by the use of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, meaning that increase in each of these constructs leads to the development of the other.

Therefore, the assessment of emotional intelligence is highly related to the EFL teachers. In addition, important effects on educational systems can be created by strengthening the healthy beliefs in teachers about their teaching.

No significant difference was found among the teachers with different teaching experiences, ages and genders concerning their self-efficacy and emotional intelligence using *t*-test and ANOVA. As a result, it was concluded that both female and male EFL teachers can succeed in teaching having different age range and experiences.

Similarly, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) examined how self-efficacy and emotional intelligence (EI) are related together in the Iranian EFL teachers working in language institutes. So, 89 EFL teachers working in different language institutes in Mashhad were contacted. The teachers completed the Emotional Intelligence and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale Questionnaire. Data analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy. High levels of emotional intelligence were related with high levels of teacher self-efficacy based on the size of this correlation.

Their result supported Rastegar and Memarpour's study, as both of them came up with the same results concerning how teachers' efficacy is related with their emotional intelligence.

Regression analysis was run to find out emotional intelligence components. It was found that three dimensions of emotional intelligence; namely, problem solving, interpersonal-relationship and emotional self-awareness were significant variables of teacher self-efficacy. Meanwhile, the findings showed a high positive correlation between problem solving and interpersonal-relationship and teacher efficacy.

The negative predictor of teacher self-efficacy was emotional self-awareness. This could be explainable as there is no item related to identifying, stating and sharing teachers' personal emotions in the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale.

İlknur Pekkanli (2009) examined self-efficacy beliefs of the teachers and the influences of the mentors and participating classroom teachers on their self efficacy.

Some 67 undergraduate students at a faculty of education in Turkey were contacted who were in the final year of education in the English language teaching department.

Results showed that students at the ELT department had high self-efficacy beliefs and they seemed confident about their efficacy. It was also shown that low academic achievement could influence the student teachers' self-esteem.

Based on Bandura, teacher self-efficacy is situation-specific; it is also a subject-specific construct and it depends on performance achievement. Later the interviews provided more evidence that efficacy of student teachers depends on the mentor's behavior. So, we can claim that mentor's behavior directly affects the student teachers' professional self-esteem. Mentors are also good models for the student teachers which enhances the vicarious experience of self-efficacy.

In another study, Seval Eminoğlu (2010) checked self-efficacy of preservice English teachers and their tendency for academic dishonesty. The needed data were collected from 239 university students by the use of the Tendency towards Academic dishonesty and Teacher Efficacy Scale.

Gender or school type had no influence on self-efficacy perception and tendency for academic dishonesty. Moreover, academic dishonesty of 4th year students was higher than in first, second and third year students while first, second and third year students' self-efficacy was higher than in 4^{th} year students. Also, self-efficacy perception levels and tendency for academic dishonesty had a weak, negative and meaningful relationship. This means that increase in students' tendency towards academic dishonesty will cause decrease in their self-efficacy perception levels while increase in self-efficacy perceptions will decrease the tendency for academic dishonesty.

In the same year, Rahimi and Gheitasi (2010) studied the effect of sense of efficacy beliefs of the language teachers on their response to learners' writings. It was

considered that providing feedback on the writing of the learners is a meaningful task for language teachers. As a result, a self-efficacy questionnaire was given to 10 female teachers of advanced level and they were put into two groups of high and low self-efficacy. Meanwhile, 157 homogenized subjects were selected for the study. Writing task with the same topic was given to the learners. Teachers collected and checked the papers the next session. Later, the number and the type of feedbacks on each paper were analyzed by the researcher. To determine the learners' writing achievement a post test was administered to them.

The results showed that English teachers' self-efficacy and their feedback on form and content of the writings and the general comments were significantly related. Besides, the mean scores of the writing achievement of the students in each group had statistically significant difference.

The research found that feedback on form constituted 87 percent of the feedback given and just 3 percent of feedback was on the content. So, feedback on form was most liked by the teachers. However, high efficacious teachers used some indirect feedback on form. Some feedback on content was given by the high efficacious teachers, whereas the low efficacious teachers had no feedback on content. Moreover, the teachers with lower self-efficacy gave more direct feedback compared to more efficacious teachers.

The result of the study showed that the highly efficacious teachers used more encouraging comments compared to low efficacious teachers. In addition, it was indicated that teachers' sense of efficacy and the learners' writing achievement had a significant relationship and perceived self-efficacy was found to be a strong predictor of behavior.

2.3.4 Summary

The above literature review of studies on teachers' self-efficacy in the TESOL field helps to identify both the current state of this line of inquiry into TESOL teacher education and a future research direction.

First, the literature review shows the scarcity of research on teachers' self-efficacy in the TESOL context. Given its strong relationships with various aspects of teaching and learning (Henson, 2002; Labone, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006), teacher efficacy deserves more attention in the TESOL field in general.

Second, the review of the existing literature shows that the relationship between language proficiency and teacher efficacy has been the main concern. However, as indicated from the aforementioned study findings, the relationships found were not consistent. While Shim (2001) did not find significant relationships between the two, Chacón (2005) did find significant relationships between the two variables (particularly with PTE). Chacón (2005) also reported a moderate correlation (r = .23) between teacher efficacy measured by the TSES and language proficiency.

These inconsistent relationships found in the studies of English teachers' self-efficacy in the EFL setting highlight a need to further examine this relationship. Especially in the case that lack of English proficiency has been found as one of the biggest obstacles for successful teaching and learning of English (e.g., Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003). It is important to note that researchers have assumed that teachers who lack English proficiency do not feel confident to teach English, yet such an association has been largely assumed without empirical data (e.g., Nunan, 2003). Despite its intuitive appeal, such an association is questionable until we can establish it by an empirical study.

In the same vein, the studies of Chacón (2005) and Shim (2001) were significant in that they provided empirical data driven findings that can shed light on the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their English language skills. The researchers' inconsistent findings thus underline the need for an empirical study on the language center teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English in their specific contexts and its relationship with their perceived language proficiency.

In relation to Chacón's (2005) and Shim's (2001) rather conflicting findings, the present study will measure English teachers' sense of efficacy as English language center teachers to see if the conflicting findings were the result of the different contexts in measuring the teachers' self-efficacy. As mentioned earlier, Chacón (2005) modified the PTE, GTE, and TSES scales to examine Venezuelan middle school English teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English, while Shim (2001) used the 10-item TES scale (Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 1993) without any modification. Thus, the present study will adapt the TSES by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) to the context of English language centers.

Third, the lack of teacher efficacy research in the TESOL field also seems to highlight a need to explore other factors that may be related to teachers' self- efficacy in teaching English in different contexts and levels. Chacon (2005) based on the literature said that "teachers' perceived efficacy is a multifaceted construct that varies across tasks and contexts where teachers do their teaching".

Chacon believed that more research studies are needed to assess the self-efficacy of teachers of English as a foreign/second language. New studies using additional independent variables were recommended to determine predictors of sense of efficacy of English as Foreign Language teachers in other places and other contexts.

Thus, future research may explore teachers' self-efficacy in relation to additional factors. Such a study will inform English teacher educators and policy

makers of the areas that need to be addressed in teacher education programs for English teaching.

The use of strategy while teaching English is another independent variable worth studying for its effect on self-efficacy of TESOL teachers working in the language centers.

Considering the past studies, it is reasonable to expect self-efficacy and teaching strategy to be mutually related. Particularly, good teaching strategy can be a predictor of a teacher's self-efficacy. This result is in accord with the researches on self-efficacy and its sources, but --to the best of my knowledge-- up to now this issue has not been much emphasized with English teachers working in the language centers. A brief summary of the findings done on teacher self-efficacy and the variables affecting it was depicted here in this study as well.

So, for the first time this study will investigate the relationship among self-efficacy, language proficiency, and teaching strategies to see if any relationship does exist among these variables.

2.4 Shadow Education

In the EFL context of this study, going to the language schools or centers is considered under the private supplementary tutoring which is a form of shadow education. Here shadow education will be explained first, followed by different forms of shadow education. Finally, the review of shadow education in the form of the supplementary tutoring of this study will be provided.

2.4.1 Shadow education system of supplementary private tutoring

Private supplementary tutoring has been neglected to be analyzed worldwide but it is of major importance and it is increasingly gaining more attention.

Private supplementary tutoring means having tuition for academic subjects and the tutors will be supported financially. This is additional to the main school program and it is supplementary (Bray, 2003).

For most of the students, learning does not finish by the end of the school day. They should do the homework and get prepared for the next day. They can do their homework either individually or in groups, and sometimes they get help from their parents.

Moreover, the increasing numbers of students get private supplementary tutoring which can be individual, in groups, or sometimes in large classes. The content of the tuition can be connected with the lessons learned at school or it can have extra information. The time of the tuition can be after school hours during weekdays, or at the weekends and public holidays (Bray, 2013).

During the school examinations, tutoring is very common but some of the students receive tuition for all levels. The amounts of tutoring may be even different at different seasons and students may receive different tutoring for various subjects.

Regarding the content of tutoring, subjects such as mathematics are especially in high demand while the selective subjects like religious studies and art are normally more limited.

As mentioned in Bray (2003), in some countries, this is a major industry that uses a lot of household expenditure and also provides income for the private tutors. Private tutoring can influence society concerning social and educational aspects. It worsens the social inequalities; while it helps the students to learn better, it can disturb their educational processes in their school classrooms.

Private supplementary tutoring is considered a shadowy phenomenon and it is difficult to document (Bray, 1999a; Lee, Park, & Lee, 2009; Stevenson & Baker, 1992). In the recent decades it has been called shadow education system of supplementary

private tutoring. This label is proper for some reasons. Firstly, as the mainstream education system exists, so the private supplementary tutoring exists; secondly, the size and shape of supplementary tutoring will change as the size and shape of the mainstream system changes; thirdly, shadow education will not get as much attention as the mainstream education; and fourthly, the features of the shadow system are less clear than the features of the mainstream education.

Shadow education will have various forms in different countries. The main models in East Asia will not be the same as in South Asia; likewise the models in Western Europe will differ from those in Eastern Europe (Bray, 2009, p. 24). We should consider that in different geographic regions, there may be significant variety. For instance, differences in the main models may be found in Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan in East Asia (Dierkes, 2008; Jung & Lee, 2010; Kwok, 2009; Liu, 2009). Meanwhile, there is a range of varieties for various types of clients within each society. However, some similarities are identifiable which makes shadow education a global phenomenon.

Class size determines the nature of tutoring. We have individual tutoring which is often held in the homes of the students or the teachers; and group lecturing with overflow classrooms equipped with closed-circuit television screens which are called “idol tutors” in Hong Kong (Kwok, 2009). Small group, medium-sized and large class forms of tutoring occur as well.

Bray (2013) mentioned that the tutors show diversity in their ages and qualifications. In some contexts, students of higher classes will provide tuitions for the students of lower classes to earn their pocket money. For example the university students teach the secondary students and the secondary students will teach the primary students. Retired people are the other group who would like to earn more by providing

the private tuition. This is against the mainstream educational system where teachers are 21 to 65 years old and they should have formal training.

Bray (2013) found that in some educational systems, school teachers themselves provide the supplementary private tutoring. In Singapore, Australia, and Germany, the teachers are banned from providing paid tutoring to the children of their own classes. On the other hand, in some countries such as Nigeria, India, and Lebanon it is a usual practice of school teachers to provide paid supplementary tutoring for their own mainstream students.

In some contexts, blackmailing will be created where the teachers teach some portions of the book during school hours and then will ask the students to register for the private classes for the rest of the teaching. This usually happens in countries where the school teachers have low salaries and they need to provide supplementary classes to earn more. Blurred boundaries will be created once the teachers in the public schools provide private tutoring. This blurring will be clearer when the teachers are allowed to have private classes in the same school classrooms (Bray, 2013).

Tutoring is changing over time. Because of globalization, societies become more competitive, and the schools will be also more competitive. As a result, the demand for tutoring will increase (Bray, 2009). The influence of new technologies should not be forgotten as well. Telephone tutoring is one choice which has been replaced with internet tutoring. Particularly, with the help of the internet geographic distance has been eliminated. For example, using the internet and web-cameras, students in the USA can pay by credit cards to get the tutor from India (Ventura & Jang, 2010). Internet tutoring facilitates the process and in this way the tutors and tutees are far from each other and most probably even in different countries.

2.4.2 Different forms of supplementary tutoring

It is needed to differentiate between two forms of private tutoring. In the first kind of tutoring, tutoring is given to the students by the same school teacher who teaches the students in the school classes. This pattern can be found in countries such as Romania, Cambodia, and Mauritius (Bray, 1999b; Foondun, 2002; Popa & Acedo, 2003). It causes blackmailing where teachers will teach a part of the school book during school hours and will teach the rest of it to the students who register for the private lessons.

In the second situation, teachers are banned from providing tutoring to their own classroom students. Other classroom teachers or specialist tutors will provide tutoring. This way, parents have more choice to decide; first if they want to have tuition for their children, and second, which kind of tutoring to buy from which tutors.

2.4.3 Supplementary tutoring in the EFL context of this study

In the third kind of tutoring which will be applicable to the EFL context of this study, the students are free either to get help from their own school teachers or other teachers in case of need. The school teachers are not prohibited from giving private tuitions to their own students based upon their needs and demands.

For the students who are studying in the context of this study, they have some options and a lot of tutoring options are available for them

Regarding the subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, physics which are more specialized and technical, students can either get the help of their own school teachers or get other tuition available in the society. Tuition can be private, semi-private or group

teaching. And the place of the tuition can be either at the tutee's house, tutor's house, or the allocated centers.

Regarding English language, a variety of options are open to the learners and depending on their needs, they can decide on their tuition type. Tuition can be private, semi-private or group teaching. And the place of the tuition can be either at the tutee's house, tutor's house, or the allocated centers.

Meanwhile we should bear in mind that for learning English there are two choices ahead; those who just want to get tuition to pass the exams and those who want to expand their knowledge of English and be able to communicate in English.

In the first option that the students just want to pass the school tests; they normally try to get private tuition with their own school teacher to ensure that they have covered all the needed parts which will be asked in the exam.

In the second option the students want to expand their knowledge of English, so they prefer to go to the language schools or centers.

As the context of this study is EFL, the students do not have the chance to practice English outside of the learning classroom. We should bear in mind that the governmental English education of this context has focused more on learning grammar and reading ability of the students and not their listening or speaking abilities; in fact, students will have their school exams just on reading and grammar. So once the students finish their high school, they just know how to read and they can do the grammar exercises well but they do lack speaking and listening skills of English. In order to fill this gap, a variety of language schools and centers which teach different languages of the world like English, French, German, Italian, Chinese, Korean and Japanese, have been established.

Students who are motivated and want to expand their knowledge of languages will start their leaning in any one of the language centers available to them.

2.5 Chapter Summary

In this study, language proficiency and teaching strategy are considered as two independent variables and their effects on teachers' self-efficacy will be measured. It is hypothesized that teachers with high language proficiency will consider themselves more efficacious and will apply more strategies while teaching in their classes. As a result of using more teaching strategies, students' understanding will be increased and the class achievement will be improved which is a very promising outcome of teaching. One hypothesis is that teachers with better and higher class achievement will feel more efficacious than teachers with low-achievement classes; consequently the teacher's self-efficacy will be affected respectively. My hypothesis is that a cyclical relationship exists among the three variables of the study: language proficiency, teachers' self-efficacy and teaching strategy.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the first chapter, the aim of this research was to examine the interaction effect between English teachers' self-efficacy and (a) background characteristics, (b) reported level of English proficiency, and (c) perceived use of teaching strategies. Based on the results mentioned in the literature in Chapter Two, some gaps have been found on the above mentioned relationship which necessitated the need for further research. Therefore, this research was designed to fill in the gaps found in previous studies.

The methods and procedures described in this chapter were employed to collect data in order to answer the questions of this study. The data analysis and the discussion form the basis for making subsequent recommendations for teachers of English in the English language centers in the TESOL context. The context, research design, instrumentation, population and sample, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability of the study will be described in this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

This study included both descriptive and correlational research methods. The study was aimed at exploring the sense of efficacy of the English language center teachers and its interaction effect with English proficiency, teaching strategy, and English teacher background characteristics, so a descriptive correlational design was used.

Explanatory correlation design was the most appropriate design for this research. In an explanatory research design the researchers are interested to see how two variables (or more) co-vary. In other words, they want to see how changes in one variable will affect the changes in the other variables.

In the explanatory correlation design the researchers correlate two or more variables and they collect the data at one point in time. All the participants will be considered as a single group. And at least two points for each participant in the group will be collected, one for each variable. The researcher will use statistical correlation tests and will make interpretations or draw conclusions based on the test results (Creswell, 2008).

3.3 Study Population and Sampling

English teachers working in the English language centers in the TESOL context in one Middle East country in Asia formed the population of this study.

Convenience sampling method was used to distribute as many questionnaires as possible (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). In order to have as many English language center teachers as possible and to provide a more accurate and better basis for further research, convenience sampling method was used.

The ABC English language center teachers were contacted by the researcher and her assistants' help. The questionnaires were distributed and the teachers were asked to complete the questionnaires at their leisure time. The researcher distributed more than 200 sets of questionnaires among teachers. An incentive for the participants was considered in this investigation, only to appreciate their time and effort.

In total 187 teachers, from 10 branches of ABC English language center, answered the questionnaires completely and they were considered as the participants of this study.

3.4 Research Context

The focus of this research was on the English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in English language centers. A brief description of the research context and authorization procedures that English teachers should go through is provided to get a clear picture of the context in which the study took place.

This study was performed in an English language center, in one Middle East country in Asia and a pseudonym, ABC English language center, is used instead of the actual name of this site. It should be noted that the country's official language is not English and English is taught as a foreign language for the students, so that the context of this study is an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting.

So, here a brief introduction to ABC Language Center educational system is provided to inform the readers.

Since its foundation in 2000, ABC Language Center has always been named as a friendly and professional language center. A solid academic, cultural and social experience is given to the students by the dedicated staff and experienced teachers who work very hard

Therefore, ABC English Language Center is chosen for its educational quality and features:

3.4.1 Educational quality

3.4.1.1 Standardized educational system

ABC Language Center has been accredited by the "Management & Planning Organization," the "Ministry of Cultural Affairs," the "Oxford Teachers Academy" and "Trinity College" and "Ministry of Education". It has also obtained accreditation from the French Embassy for teaching excellence.

In addition to the constant development and progression in all aspects in its branches, regular class observations, teacher and course development programs are done to ensure high-quality service delivery (using CCTV system).

Meanwhile, to help learners assess their improvement, pre-planned mid- term, final, and storybook exams are held regularly. In addition, at the completion of the English courses, the official graduate certificates and diplomas are issued.

3.4.1.2 Academic staff

ABC Language Center has caring staff who are interested in supporting the students. Moreover, it is of attention that dynamic, dedicated and enthusiastic teachers work collaboratively to better meet the students' needs.

3.4.2 Educational facilities

3.4.2.1 Classroom environments

Convenient locations in the capital city (East, West, North, and Center) and other cities across the country have set ABC Language Centers apart from the competition.

Besides, the simple transfer of students from branch to branch in the capital and between major cities is another important feature which has facilitated access to the classes. In addition, easy access to in-branch bookshops accelerated the process of access to resources.

It is of the utmost attention that ABC Language Centers offer modern teaching centers providing the latest resources and using technology in the classrooms (DVD player, LCD TV, Amplifiers).

3.4.2.2 English courses

ABC Language center offers a complete range of flexible course options (termic, intensive, weekend, super-intensive) with appropriate number of students to facilitate easier English conversation learning among the students. In addition, IELTS preparation courses are held in the special center with specially trained IELTS teachers.

In addition, exciting, fast-paced and learner-centered lessons are created to provide the best possible learning environment.

Using a variety of teaching and learning materials to help students benefit from all the available linguistics resources, in addition to film sessions and learning content analysis are some of the most important features of ABC Language Center.

Fast and easy web access to test results, 50% discount for students who are top of their class for two consecutive terms, and recruitment opportunities for their graduates makes ABC Language Center attractive to learners.

Based on the above reasons, ABC Language Center has gained a reputation for reliability and customer-friendliness. It has more than 50 branches across the country and over 17 branches in the capital city. For this reason, with the help of my assistants I contacted the branches located in the capital, as they had more teachers and could be of more help to me in the process of data collection. Just that one branch in the capital had over 50 part-time and full-time teachers.

Here in the ABC Language Center, different classes for different levels of language learners are provided. Levels are starters, Elementary, Pre-Intermediate, Intermediate, Upper-Intermediate, Advanced and Upper Advanced. The class time is so flexible and spreads throughout the week and on weekends from morning to night. During weekdays, classes are from 8:00 am to 10:00 p.m. Classes on weekends are from 8.00 am to 6.00 in the evening. Each term consists of 20 sessions and for language

learners' ease different packages and schedules are provided so that they can choose from once a week, twice a week, three times a week, or the whole week packages. Learners can even decide the number of hours to sit in the class from 1.30 hours to 4.30 per session per day. However, the normal class time is one and a half hours; so 90 minutes is considered as one session; language learners can choose different packages based on their needs and suitability.

It should be noted that all students attending the classes are adult learners and over 18 years old and the number of students per class is not more than 17.

Moreover, in the ABC Language Center, the teachers who have applied to get a position and to start teaching will need to go through some steps before obtaining permission to start teaching in the center.

The first step is to take the language proficiency test which is taken from either IELTS or TOEFL. The result of this test indicates teacher proficiency and those who get an acceptable score and meet the criteria of the language center will be then invited to participate in the next phase of the admission process.

The second step after passing the language proficiency test is to participate in the Teaching Training Course (TTC). The TTC will last for one month, consisting of 20 to 25 sessions. During the TTC course the steps and strategies of how to teach the English books will be taught to the teachers. Here teachers will become familiar with different applicable strategies and needed tactics and steps to teach the English books successfully and in the most enjoyable way possible for the students.

The third step is to give a demonstration. After finishing the TTC course, the teachers will need to demonstrate one chosen part of the English book for a group of the teachers. Here the teachers have the chance to show their talents in teaching and use the strategies and techniques learned in their TTC. If they use appropriate strategies during

their demo teaching the teachers will be issued a pass certifying them as ABC English Language Center teachers.

The fourth step before going to the real class is to observe 10 to 15 classes. The supervisor of the selected branches will assign some classes for the future teachers to observe and make a report on the teaching process of the selected classes. The teachers need to comment on the observed classes and give some suggestions for improvement.

The last step is to start teaching in the real class. In the real class, the supervisors will observe the teaching quality of the teachers at least twice a month. Supervisors fill in their evaluation form and the result will be reported to the teachers. Besides, the supervisors will see the teachers in person to comment on their teaching quality and give comments to help the teacher make needed progress and enhance the center's productivity.

3.5 Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study consisted of four questionnaires: 1) Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English 2) Teachers' reported English language proficiency 3) teachers' perceived use of teaching strategies 4) Teachers' personal background information. The first three questionnaires are Likert scale and for the final questionnaire, participants provided the information in the space given.

Part I: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy in Teaching English

To measure English teachers' self-efficacy, the short form of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was used. Its 12 items were adapted based on the English language center context of this study. (Appendix D)

The OSTES items were Likert scale from one to nine. The participants would choose the degree to which they can do with each item. A rating of one indicates that the respondents are able to do nothing shown on the statement. A rating of nine shows that the participant is able to do much about the statement. For example, in answer to the question "How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in your English class?" The answer of 1 means the teacher could not control, while the response 9 means that the teacher could completely control the disruptive behavior of the disruptive behavior.

Construct validity of the OSTES, both short and long, was assessed by the correlation of this new measure and other existing measures of teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The results showed that both forms of OSTES, either short or long one, are reliable and valid and it is a useful tool to measure teacher self-efficacy. Teaching strategies, student engagement and classroom management represented the three dimensions of the effectiveness and the wealth of the working lives of teachers, besides the requirements of good teaching.

OSTES has a uniform and stable factor structure and assesses a wide range of functions that are considered important to good teaching which makes it superior to previous measures of teacher efficacy. In addition, it is not so specific as to render it useless for comparisons across teacher's contexts, levels and subjects (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The three factors identified in TSES were: 1. Efficacy for student engagement, 2.Efficacy for teaching strategies, and 3.Efficacy for classroom management. Reliability of the original TSES was .90 with all the 12 items (.86 with the teaching strategies, .86 with the classroom management, and .81 with the student engagement) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). This showed that TSES would be a reliable measure for teacher self-efficacy.

In order to adapt TSES to this study, in the12 items the word "English", " learning English", "in your English class" or "students" was either added or replaced for "school work", "learning", "the classroom" or "children" to make the items apply to English language centers. These changes were made to the questionnaires to suit them to the EFL context of the study. The comments of the field test participants and experts were also considered in order to check for the face validity of the instruments (refer to Validity p. 79).

Table 3.1 shows the 12 items with the 3 various factors. The changes that were made to adapt the questionnaire to the English language center are *italicized and underlined*.

Table 3.1: Adapted short version of the TSES (Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001)

Factors	Items
Efficacy for student engagement	2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in *learning English*? 3. How much can you do to get students believe they can do well in *English*? 4. How much can you do to help your students value *learning English*? 11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in *learning English*?
Efficacy for classroom management	1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in *your English class?* 6. How much can you do to get *students* to follow classroom rules in *your English class*? 7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in *your English class*? 8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students in *your English class*?
Efficacy for instructional strategies	5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students? 9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies in *your English class*? 10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when *your English* students are confused? 12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your *English* classroom?

Part II: Teachers' Reported English Language Proficiency

This part is based on teachers' beliefs to teach English effectively in the English language centers and it assesses teacher's self-reported current level of English proficiency.

It has the 25 items developed by Chacon (2002, 2005) and Shim (2001), which have been adjusted on the basis of this study. The items asked teachers to assess their

proficiency in English and the scale was a 6-point Likert type from "Strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" to see how teachers are evaluating themselves in listening, speaking, reading and writing (Appendix B).

Table 3.2: Adapted version of the self-reported English proficiency (Chacon, 2002, 2005; Shim, 2001)

Constructs	Items
Listening	1. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully. 2. On the telephone, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully. 3. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine. 4. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker. 5. I understand movies without subtitles. 6. I understand news broadcasts on American television. 7. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.
Speaking	8. I can give simple biographical information about myself (place of birth, composition of family, early schooling, etc). 9. I can talk about my favourite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary. 10. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail. 11. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution). 12. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics. 13. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed. 14. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.

Constructs	Items
Reading	15. I can read and understand magazine articles, such as Time and Newsweek, without using a dictionary. 16. I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary. 17. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary. 18. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English. 19. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.
Writing	20. I can write official (business) letters, which convey meaning accurately and which contain relatively few grammatical errors. 21. Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English. 22. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications). 23. I can write short research papers. 24. I can select proper words in writing. 25. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.

After piloting the test, items number 1, 2, 8, 20 of the language proficiency questionnaire were deleted (Appendix E); it was shown that the reliability increased significantly by deleting these items. So the final version of the language proficiency questionnaire which was later distributed among the participants of this study had 21 items (refer to reliability p. 84).

Part III: Teachers' Perceived Use of Instructional Strategies

This part was based on the Moe et al. (2010) study and the scale on teaching strategy and practices. They adopted self-report measurements instead of observing behaviors in the classroom.

They used the ethnographic method to implement the strategy scale. A large group of the teachers were asked to name all the possible teaching strategies. Based on

the result, a huge number of strategies were collected and later 30 of them were selected. The items were on a 5-point scale from “1= almost never” to “5 = almost always” and the teachers were asked to rate how often they use each strategy. The item-to-total correlations showed that they are all representative strategies and their correlation was at the significant level of $p < .01$.

In this study, the adapted 45-item strategy scale by Moe et al. (2010) was used and respondents were asked to provide their responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale which ranged from "1 = almost never" to "5 = almost always." (Appendix C)

Moe et al. were interested in the construct of the "use of strategies" regardless of the subject taught or individual student or teacher characteristics. However, as the context of the study was EFL, some of the statements were modified for the EFL context. The “use of L1” and “translation” was added to some of the statements to adapt it to the EFL context. Besides, some more items were added to highlight the context of this study. The comments given by the experts in this study (refer to validity p. 79) were also taken into consideration to make the appropriate changes and also assure the validity of the test.

Table 3.3 shows the 45 items used in this study. The changes made to adapt the questionnaire to the ABC English language center are *italicized and underlined*.

Meanwhile, the researcher categorized the strategies to Mechanical and Communicative, as these two categories are the most commonly-used in the English classes.

Table 3.3: Adapted version of the self-reported strategy scale (Moe et al., 2001)

Category	Items
Mechanical	1. Ask students to take notes during the lesson 2. Dictate some definitions. If needed translate in their mother tongue 3. Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained 4. Summarize the content of a book orally. *If necessary L1 will be used* 9. Ask students to read aloud from the book 12. Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson 14. At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing 16. Summarize the concepts taught. *Use L1 to clarify the concepts* 17. Ask students to write down key words on the topic described 23. Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones*, in case of* need will get the help of L1 26. At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught 27. Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself 31. Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books 35. Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book 39. Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain 40. Note rules, formulas or properties on the blackboard 41. Provide summaries of topics to be taught, e.g. outline chart

Category	Items
Communicative	5. Invite students to ask questions during an explanation 6. Introduce the topic covered using a problem-solving strategy, i.e. by asking questions 7. Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously. 8. Students work together in groups of two or three 10. Errors are tolerated and will be notified later 11. Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know 13. Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab 15. Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students. 18. The students discuss what they have learned in the class. 19. Introduce a new topic using familiar examples 20. Create links between different topics and subjects 21. Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs. 22. Activate students' learning through playing English games 24. Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation 25. Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning 28. Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question 29. Organize working groups during the lessons 30. Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson. 32. Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes 33. Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on) 34. The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem 36. A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore it. 37. Build logical chains using temporal links 38. Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs 42. Discuss study topics during lessons 43. Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized 44. Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic 45. The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in class.

The test was given to the pilot group of this study and based on that the reliability was checked. It was shown that items number 1, 2, 6, 9, and 29 of the instructional strategy questionnaire had relatively low correlations with the other items (refer to reliability p. 81). By deleting them, the reliability increased significantly. So the final version of the instructional strategy questionnaire had 40 items and it was later distributed to the participants of this study (Appendix F).

Part IV: Teachers' Personal and Professional Background Information

Information on the teachers' personal and professional background were collected in this part.

The 7 questions were seeking information on the following topics: age, gender, education, years of English teaching, experience traveling or studying abroad, getting IELTS or TOEFL, highest level of education, and type of certificate achieved (Appendix A).

Table 3.4: Teachers' personal and professional background information questions

Factors	Items
Gender	1. I am: ____ male _____ female
Age	2. I am in the: _____early 20s _____ mid 20s _____ Late 20s _____early 30s _____ mid 30s _____ Late 30s _____early 40s _____ mid 40s _____ Late 40s _____early 50s _____ mid 50s _____ Late 50s
Education	3. My highest degree earned and specialization: _____ B.A. in _____ _____ M.A. in _____ _____ Ph.D. in _____ _____ others_____

Factors	Items
Experience teaching English	4. How long have you been teaching English? ---------- Less than 1 year ---------- 1-3 years ---------- 4-6 years ---------- 7-10 years ---------- More than 10 years.
Level of teaching	5. Which level are you currently teaching? (More than one answer can be chosen) ---------- Starter -------- elementary -------- pre-intermediate -------- intermediate --------advanced --------- upper-advanced Have you taught these levels before? .....Yes ……No
Experience travelling or studying abroad	6. Have you ever studied or travelled in an English-speaking country? ---------- Yes ---------- No If yes, please specify the country of visit ---------- The reason of your stay ---------- How long did you stay there? Less than 1 month ---------- 1-6 months ---------- 6-12 months ---------- More than 1 year ----------
Getting IELTS or TOEFL	7. Have you ever taken IELTS or TOEFL certificate? ---------- Yes ----------No If yes, how many times have you taken them? ..... please specify the Years and the Results achieved ----------

3.6 Validity

Validity refers to whether the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure.

To check if the instrument is appropriate, correct, and useful will guarantee the validity of the instrument (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 158).

As in this study the valid instruments were used and adapted, so the researcher was to some degree assured of the validity of the instruments. However, as some elements were changed and some have been included in this research, the validity would need to be checked again. For validation process a panel of experts and field test participants were contacted.

In this research, face and content validity were established by the judgment of a panel of 3 experts and field testing participants. A group of experts was asked to review the instruments with respect to validity, appropriateness and clarity. The experts were of the university lecturers who had practical experience in the field of English teaching in the TESOL context.

After review by the panel of experts, a field test was conducted with 5 English language center teachers who were teaching at different levels. They were requested to comment on appropriateness of expressions and general readability of the instruments. Comments on the instrument's wording, ambiguities, and appropriateness were welcomed. As in this study for self-efficacy (refer to p. 69) and instructional strategy (refer to p. 74) questionnaires, some of the ambiguous or unclear wording were cleared and made appropriate based on the comments and suggestions given.

The advice of the panel of experts and field test participants were considered and the instruments were later modified and the corrected format was distributed among the participants.

3.7 Reliability

Reliability is "maintaining the consistency of the results" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 165). After field testing the instrument, reliability was assessed with coefficient alpha (Cronbach's alpha) in order to measure the internal consistency of the instruments. As the Instructional Strategy (Appendix C) and Language proficiency questionnaires (Appendix B) were the first time to be used in this study, the researcher

decided to check their reliability after checking their validity. So 30 of the participants were considered as the pilot group and the questionnaires were distributed among them. These teachers were teaching at different levels of Elementary to Advanced and they were representative of the final participants of this study.

After distributing the pilot study questionnaires, the reliability coefficient of the tests was measured by using Cronbach alpha coefficient. It was shown that some of the items should have been deleted, as they had low correlations with other questions in the same category. After deleting the items, the reliability coefficient increased significantly (Appendix E & F).

3.7.1 Instructional Strategy Questionnaire

Regarding the Mechanical Category of Instructional Strategy questionnaire, The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .929 and it was noted that the items 1, 2, and 9 in this category had a relatively low correlations with the other items and it was suggested to omit these questions to increase the reliability of the test.

Table 3.5 : Item-Total Statistics of Mechanical instructional strategies

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted
Instructional.Strategy.1	64.40	130.248	-.128	.935
Instructional.Strategy.2	64.80	134.717	-.415	.941
Instructional.Strategy.3	65.07	109.926	.814	.920
Instructional.Strategy.4	65.23	113.426	.681	.923
Instructional.Strategy.9	64.53	128.602	.021	.934
Instructional.Strategy.12	65.17	105.040	.920	.916
Instructional.Strategy.16	65.03	121.826	.458	.928
Instructional.Strategy.23	65.17	111.592	.801	.920
Instructional.Strategy.26	65.67	103.057	.900	.917
Instructional.Strategy.27	65.40	103.834	.869	.918
Instructional.Strategy.35	64.97	118.102	.635	.925
Instructional.Strategy.39	64.93	119.582	.570	.926
Instructional.Strategy.40	64.63	120.792	.529	.927
Instructional.Strategy.41	65.30	108.976	.879	.918
Instructional.Strategy.14	65.50	106.052	.785	.921
Instructional.Strategy.17	65.40	111.145	.802	.920
Instructional.Strategy.31	65.47	107.016	.852	.918

After deleting these three questions, the Cronbach alpha coefficient rose to .955 which is considered an acceptable and high reliability coefficient. So I decided not to include items 1, 2, and 9 in the main study to maintain high reliability. After carrying out the main study, the reliability coefficient was calculated again and it was .954 which was considered a significantly high and acceptable reliability coefficient.

To calculate the reliability coefficient of the communicative teaching strategy instrument, firstly it was given to 30 teachers of ABC Language School as the pilot

group in this study. Then, the reliability coefficient was calculated with the help of Cronbach alpha coefficient and the result was .981. Based on the results, it was found that in the case of deletion of the items 6 and 29, the reliability would be increased.

Table 3.6 : Item-Total Statistics of Communicative instructional strategies

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted
Instructional.Strategy.5	104.63	682.447	.929	.980
Instructional.Strategy.6	104.73	766.961	-.322	.986
Instructional.Strategy.7	104.83	690.006	.838	.980
Instructional.Strategy.8	104.17	703.454	.856	.981
Instructional.Strategy.10	105.17	672.626	.921	.980
Instructional.Strategy.11	104.83	678.695	.900	.980
Instructional.Strategy.13	104.37	695.620	.822	.981
Instructional.Strategy.15	104.40	689.076	.946	.980
Instructional.Strategy.18	104.80	676.234	.905	.980
Instructional.Strategy.19	104.33	706.782	.831	.981
Instructional.Strategy.20	104.27	702.478	.902	.980
Instructional.Strategy.21	104.03	713.344	.828	.981
Instructional.Strategy.22	104.90	683.472	.916	.980
Instructional.Strategy.24	104.43	685.633	.895	.980
Instructional.Strategy.25	104.53	680.464	.925	.980
Instructional.Strategy.28	104.73	679.926	.846	.981
Instructional.Strategy.29	104.30	729.114	.268	.983
Instructional.Strategy.30	105.20	680.786	.908	.980
Instructional.Strategy.32	104.73	685.789	.878	.980
Instructional.Strategy.33	104.13	704.740	.902	.980
Instructional.Strategy.34	104.57	696.392	.827	.981
Instructional.Strategy.36	104.83	684.006	.856	.980
Instructional.Strategy.37	104.83	699.040	.772	.981
Instructional.Strategy.38	104.83	681.454	.894	.980
Instructional.Strategy.42	104.83	685.385	.891	.980
Instructional.Strategy.43	104.10	702.714	.900	.980
Instructional.Strategy.44	104.70	698.010	.896	.980
Instructional.Strategy.45	105.27	686.340	.889	.980

After deleting these two items, the reliability was calculated again and the result was .988 which is considered an acceptable and high reliability coefficient.

After the last administration of the questionnaire to the participants in this study (Appendix F), the reliability coefficient was calculated again and the result was .988 which is a favorable reliability coefficient.

The researchers also calculated the reliability of the entire test and the result was the .989 which is significant and estimated to be high.

3.7.2 English Language Proficiency Questionnaire

Concerning the Language Proficiency questionnaire, the same procedure was done and the reliability coefficient of each of the sub-categories was calculated.

The Cronbach alpha of the Listening part in the pilot group (Appendix B) was .958 and all the items had relatively high correlations with each other except for two of them; item number 1 and 2. After deleting these two items the reliability was again calculated and it was .973 which is considered high and favorable.

Table 3.7 : Item-Total Statistics of Listening skills

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Eng.Proficiency1	24.67	78.782	.865	.962
Eng.Proficiency2	24.67	78.782	.865	.962
Eng.Proficiency3	25.00	73.655	.883	.954
Eng.Proficiency4	26.13	63.223	.959	.943
Eng.Proficiency5	26.73	58.823	.973	.943
Eng.Proficiency6	26.73	57.168	.965	.946
Eng.Proficiency7	26.87	58.395	.953	.946

For the speaking part, the Cronbach Alpha was .912 and it was shown that item number 8 had low correlations with the rest of the items of speaking category. After deleting item number 8 the reliability increased significantly to .920.

Table 3.8 : Item-Total Statistics of Speaking skills

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted
Eng.Proficiency8	26.60	42.179	.609	.920
Eng.Proficiency9	26.63	40.930	.802	.911
Eng.Proficiency10	26.90	39.403	.832	.904
Eng.Proficiency11	27.80	35.131	.809	.893
Eng.Proficiency12	27.80	31.407	.872	.882
Eng.Proficiency13	28.73	26.685	.934	.879
Eng.Proficiency14	29.13	25.361	.933	.885

The Cronbach alpha of the reading category of the pilot group was .947 and all the items had high and significant correlations together, so none of the items was deleted.

Table 3.9 : Item-Total Statistics of Reading skills

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Eng.Proficiency15	18.50	17.569	.857	.935
Eng.Proficiency16	18.50	16.259	.936	.920
Eng.Proficiency17	19.47	14.120	.905	.934
Eng.Proficiency18	18.17	18.626	.808	.945
Eng.Proficiency19	18.17	17.592	.842	.938

Regarding the writing part, the Cronbach alpha was .907 for the pilot group and it was shown that item number 20 had a low correlation with the rest of the items of writing category. After deleting item number 20, the Cronbach alpha increased to .947.

Table 3.10 : Item-Total Statistics of Writing skills

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Eng.Proficiency20	24.83	23.040	.349	.947
Eng.Proficiency21	24.40	18.731	.922	.864
Eng.Proficiency22	23.83	21.454	.848	.885
Eng.Proficiency23	25.17	15.730	.859	.882
Eng.Proficiency24	24.03	20.378	.906	.874
Eng.Proficiency25	24.07	20.064	.830	.880

After conducting the main study (Appendix E), the Cronbach alpha was again calculated for each of the listening, speaking, reading and writing sub-categories of Language Proficiency questionnaire. The Cronbach alpha was .973, .921, .946, and .946 respectively, which were all significant and favorable.

The reliability of the whole test was also calculated and it was .96 which was considered high and favorable.

3. 8 Data Collection and Analysis

For the purpose of data collection, more than 200 sets of questionnaires were distributed among English teachers working in the ABC English language centers in the Capital city. I received help from some assistants to distribute the questionnaires in different language centers.

As it was not possible to explain the purpose of the research and the procedures taken individually to each single teacher, I clarified to each group the purpose of the research, the confidentiality of their answers, the appropriate time of submitting the questionnaires on a paragraph attached to the copies. Also, the teachers were asked to submit the completed forms to the supervisor or distributor upon filling out the questionnaires.

It took almost two months to distribute and retrieve the questionnaires and the final number of questionnaires usable for this study was 187. As some of the questionnaires were not returned and some were answered half-way, these were discarded and just 187 of them could be used for the data analysis in this study.

After collecting the required data, the needed statistical analyzes were performed using statistical analysis program of SPSS. The confidence level of .05 (alpha .05) was used to determine statistical significance.

Research questions 1 to 3:

"1. What are the current levels of self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English among English language center teachers on 12 Likert-type items related to self-efficacy beliefs?

2. What do teachers report to be their English proficiency level on 21 Likert-type items related to English language proficiency?

3. What do teachers report on making use of teaching strategies on 40 Likert-type items related to Teachers' instructional strategy?"

For questions 1 to 3, descriptive statistics were used which included frequencies, central tendency and variability measures in order to analyze the data. The data were presented using bar graphs, pie charts and tables.

Research questions 4 to 6 were:

"4. What is the relationship between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies?

5. What is the interaction effect between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies?

6. What is the interaction effect between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies?"

Correlational statistics were used for answering Research Questions 4 to 6. For answering Research Questions 4 and 5, the Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*) was calculated. The relationship of participants' background characteristics with each of the factors in this research was examined by research question 6. So the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r), Point Biserial correlation coefficient (*rpb*), or phi coefficient (φ) was used when appropriate.

Research question 7:

"7. What are significant predictors of English teachers' sense of efficacy working in English language centers?"

The multiple regression method was used to answer Research Question 7. This question concerns the best predictors for the English teachers' specific self- efficacy (refer to p. 148 of this study).

In this study, the multiple regression for teacher self-efficacy was conducted twice (see p. 148 of this study), first with the teachers' background characteristics as multiple predictors and teacher self-efficacy beliefs as the criterion variable. Predictor variables statistically significant at $p < .05$ were performed on the following multiple regression analysis. In the following regressions, the criterion variable was teacher self-efficacy, and the predictor variables included reported proficiency in English, perceived use of teaching strategies, and the background variables performed in previous multiple regression analysis.

Summary of procedures taken :

Research questions	Data source	Data analysis
1. What are the current levels of the self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English among English language center teachers on 23 Likert-type items related to self-efficacy beliefs? 2. What do teachers report to be their English proficiency level on 25 Likert-type items related to English language proficiency? 3. What do teachers report on making use of teaching strategies on 20 Likert-type items related to Teachers' instructional strategy?	The three questionnaires of : a. Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English b. Teachers' reported English language proficiency c. Teachers' perceived use of instructional strategy	Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, central tendency measures (mean, median, and mode), and variability measures (range and standard deviation) will be used to analyze the questions 1 to 3.
4. What is the relationship between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies? 5. What is the interaction effect between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies? 6. What is the interaction effect between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies?	The four questionnaires of : a. Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English b. Teachers' reported English language proficiency c. Teachers' perceived use of instructional strategy d. Teachers' personal and professional background information	Correlational statistics will be employed to answer research questions 4 to 6. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*), point biserial correlation coefficient (*rpb*), or phi coefficient (φ) will be calculated when appropriate.
7. What are significant predictors of English teachers' sense of efficacy working in English language centers?	The four questionnaires of : a. Teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English b. Teachers' reported English language proficiency c. Teachers' perceived use of instructional strategy d. Teachers' personal and professional background information	The multiple regression method will be used to answer research question 7.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter shows the background characteristics of the participants and the findings of the statistical analyzes performed to find the answer for the research questions. Among the statistical analyses methods in this research; descriptive statistics, factor analyses, correlations, and multiple regression were used.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Characteristics of the participants of this research are presented here like gender, age, educational background. The total participants of this research were 187. They were English teachers in the ABC Language schools in 10 different geographical zones of the capital city.

4.1.1 ABC language center Branches

The questionnaires were distributed in 10 different geographically located branches of the ABC Language schools. These branches were chosen because they were located in the East, West, North, and South of the Capital City and their number of employees was quite considerable. As can be seen in Table 4.1 (p. 91), Branch 5 has the most number of participants (22%) in this research.

Table 4.1: Study participants by branch

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Branch1	6	3.2	3.3	3.3
	Branch 2	18	9.6	9.8	13.1
	Branch 3	8	4.3	4.4	17.5
	Branch 4	24	12.8	13.1	30.6
	Branch 5	42	22.5	23.0	53.6
	Branch 6	13	7.0	7.1	60.7
	Branch 7	21	11.2	11.5	72.1
	Branch 8	14	7.5	7.7	79.8
	Branch 9	30	16.0	16.4	96.2
	Branch 10	7	3.7	3.8	100.0
	Total	183	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.1		
Total		187	100.0		

Branch 5 is one of the biggest branches of ABC Language schools and has over 60 teachers. Branch 5 is located in the East part of the Capital City and in this part of the city; it has the highest number of registered learners. The citizens in this part of the city are usually coming from the middle and upper-middle-social class of society where education is emphasized a lot among the families. As there are more registrations here, so there are more teachers working in this branch and based on the result 22% of the participants are from this branch.

After that, Branch 9 has the most number of participants (16%). Branch 9 is located exactly in the Center of the Capital City, so many learners do register in this branch as this place is quite convenient for everyone to commute and public transportation has made this place strategic. It should be considered that the citizens in this part are from the low and middle-social class of society. These people are so hard-working and although their income is not that much, they prioritize education to their

other needs. They strive to achieve higher education for their children. According to the result 16% of the participants are coming from this branch.

Branch 4 (13%), Branch 7 (11%), and Branch 2 (10%), are the next branches with quite considerable number of participants.

Branch 4 is in the North part of the Capital City and the citizens here are normally the upper-middle and high-social class of the society. Their income is quite good and most of them are coming from educated families. Based on the result 13% of the participants are coming from this branch.

Branch 7 is located in the West part of the Capital City. The citizens here are normally the upper-middle and high social class of the society. They are mostly educated and quite up to date. The data shows that 11% of the participants are coming from this branch.

Branch 2 is in the upper North of the Capital City. The citizens here are quite rich and wealthy. They are mostly educated and quite a huge number of them have been educated or lived abroad. Normally in this part, foreign languages (such as French, Italian, German, etc.) are taught more than in the other parts of the city; it should be mentioned that the majority of the embassies of the foreign countries are situated in this part of the city. Almost 10% of the participants are from this branch.

4.1.2 Gender

Table 4.2 shows the gender distribution of the participants of this research. Female teachers (63%) were about two and half times more than male teachers (25%) and 12% of the participants failed to provide the needed information. It seems that female teachers are dominating the population of teachers in the ABC Language schools society. Here the female teachers are more, as the female learners outnumber the male

learners too. Meanwhile, more of the branches are for female learners than male learners.

It should also be mentioned that teaching in the language schools is not considered a stable job or occupation for males, as the income is low and they cannot afford living with that. In a society where males are financially supporting the families, it is of much importance for males to find a job with better income and salaries. So most of the males will choose teaching in the language schools as the second job not the first job that is why the number of male teachers is smaller than the female teachers.

Table 4.2: Study participants by gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	47	25.1	28.5	28.5
	Female	118	63.1	71.5	100.0
	Total	165	88.2	100.0	
Missing	System	22	11.8		
Total		187	100.0		

4.1.3 Age

The questionnaire provided 12 choices for the age range of the participants: early, mid, late 20s - early, mid, late 30s - early, mid, late 40s - early, mid, late 50s. The teachers who were in their 60s and above were considered to be retired and too old to teach. As a result, they were not included in this research.

Teachers in their 30s were in the majority and comprised almost 50% of the total (see Figure 4.3). The proportion of teachers in their 20s was almost 28%, while those in their 40s made up 13% of the sample. And only 3% of the respondents were in their 50s which is quite understandable. As the teachers get older and more experienced, they prefer to have private classes to earn more and have more peace simultaneously. While

at the age of 30, teachers are more energetic and prefer to have more group classes. Meanwhile, teachers over age 60 have higher positions than teaching, such as supervisors or managers.

It should be remembered that the start age for work in this country is at the time that people have finished their education and have got their bachelor degrees or master degrees. This will explain why most of the teachers are between the ages of 30 to 40 years. Figure 4.3 shows the situation more completely.

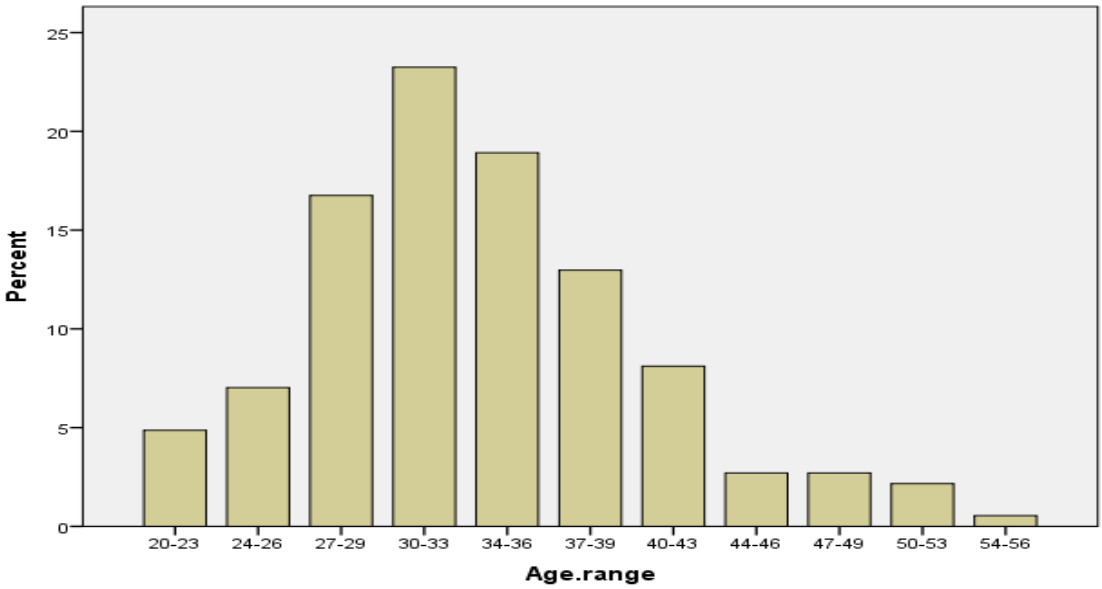

Figure 4.3: Study participants by age.

4.1.4 Highest degree achieved

The majority of participants in this research (almost 74%) have Bachelor degrees. Next, was the Master degree holders (23%), and just 4 participants (2%) hold the PhD. To be able to work in the ABC Language schools having Bachelor degree would be enough if the teacher has mastered English proficiently and is able to speak fluently.

As seen in the findings of this research, the least number of participants was the PhD holders. Those who have PhD will find better jobs and position in universities and will not be willing to come to the language schools to work. Working as a university lecturer is more prestigious and the income is much more than that of language teachers. Having these reasons in mind will explain the low number of PhD holders in the ABC Language schools. In contrast, the Bachelor holders form the majority of the teachers.

Comparing the highest degree earned of the participants of this study and the branches they were working in resulted in the following results:

Master degree holders were coming from Branches 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. The majority of them were from branch 4 and 5. As these branches are near the universities and they are almost located in the heart of the town, so it is expected that the university students or lecturers who are studying or working in the nearby universities apply to work in these branches. It was also noted that the PhD holders in this study who were 4 in number were working in branch 4. This seems quite understandable based on the strategic location of branch 4. We should bear in mind that transportation and commuting in the capital city is quite inconvenient; as a result, applicants prefer to find job either near their houses or near their universities.

Table 4.3: Study participants by degree earned

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor	138	73.8	74.6	74.6
	Master	43	23.0	23.2	97.8
	PhD	4	2.1	2.2	100.0
	Total	185	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
Total		187	100.0		

4.1.5 Participants' Major of study

Considering the Major of the Study of the participants, the following categories had more participants and were in priority respectively: English (57%), Engineering (17%), Social sciences (12%), Science (10%), Bio-Medicine (3%).

As it is clear, most of the participants had been educated in English and were familiar with the culture of English teaching. Being educated in English is one of the necessities of being able to work in the ABC Language schools unless the applicants have a really good command of English. Besides, the least number of teachers had a degree in Bio-Medicine. It was of interest that the second most number of teachers had been educated in Engineering. This shows that having a good command of English is not just limited to those having English degrees; others coming from different majors can possibly master English too.

Table 4.4: Study participants by major of education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Engineering	31	16.6	16.8	16.8
	Science	18	9.6	9.8	26.6
	Bio-medicine	6	3.2	3.3	29.9
	Social sciences	23	12.3	12.5	42.4
	English	106	56.7	57.6	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

4.1.6 Experience in Teaching English

The participants of this study provided their English teaching experience in years; five categories were provided for them to choose from. The majority of the sample had 1-3 years of experience represented by almost 29% of the total. The second

most number (28%) was for those who had 4-6 years of teaching experience. The difference between these two top groups was so near (just 1% difference) and it could be concluded that those having 1-3 and 4-6 years of experience in teaching English had most number of participants altogether. These two groups represented 57% of the total participants of this research. The teachers who were having more than 10 years of experience made up just 4% of the total sample. It is clear that those with more experience will prefer to give private tuition in order to earn more, or they will be given higher positions such as supervisor or the manager of the center.

Investigating further, I found that those who had more than 10 years of teaching experience were working in branches 4 and 9. The result is quite interesting and of value, as branches 4 and 9 are located in the center or business part of the town where all different kinds of transportation are available, so commuting is not a problem. Moreover branch 4 and 9 are located near the biggest universities of the country and the students registered there are mostly from the university. These students are majoring in other areas and are interested to learn and improve their English, so the kind of teachers who are working there should be experienced enough to manage different demands of the students.

Furthermore, it was shown that the teachers who had 7-10 years of experience were coming from branches of 4, 5, 8, 9. The strategic situation of these branches have made them suitable either for the teachers who want to apply for work or the students who want to start learning English. Branches 4 and 9 are near the universities and some of the university lecturers are working in the branches nearby. Branches 5 and 8 are located in the east part of the town which is quite dense and the classes are much bigger and the enrollment is quite high. Having experience in these branches is of much importance, as the teachers should be able to handle the bigger classes with different range of students with different backgrounds.

Table 4.5: Study participants by English teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	49	26.2	26.3	26.3
	1-3 years	54	28.9	29.0	55.4
	4-6years	53	28.3	28.5	83.9
	7-10years	22	11.8	11.8	95.7
	More than 10 years	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
	Total	187	100.0		

4.1.7 Level of Teaching

Table 4.6 presents the percentage of participants teaching different levels. In ABC Language schools there are six levels; starter, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced, upper-advanced. Of all these levels, elementary and pre-intermediate had the highest percentage (22%) of teachers teaching those levels. Both elementary and pre-intermediate accounted for almost 44% of the total. Advanced, intermediate and starter levels had the next most number of participants consecutively. The least number of the participants was for upper-advanced category which was 7% of the total.

This result show that most of the students enroll for elementary and pre-intermediate levels and the least will end up in upper-advanced. One reason can be that most of the students are so enthusiastic at the beginning of learning English, by the time it gets a bit harder and more difficult they stop learning and will just get satisfied by what they have learned. Another reason can be that elementary and pre-intermediate levels are the levels which students cannot do self-study at home and they need to sit in the class in order to learn better. Besides, elementary and pre-intermediate levels are

necessary for mastering Basic English and there is a need to at least finish these two levels to be able to communicate in English.

Meanwhile the teachers were asked to comment whether they had taught that level before or not. The majority (86%) answered “Yes” and just 14% said “No”. This is a promising result and presents that the most number of the teachers are acquainted with what they are teaching and they know what they are supposed to do.

Table 4.6: Study participants by level of teaching

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	starter	21	11.2	11.2	11.2
	elementary	42	22.5	22.5	33.7
	pre-intermediate	41	21.9	21.9	55.6
	intermediate	33	17.6	17.6	73.3
	advanced	37	19.8	19.8	93.0
	upper-advanced	13	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	

4.1.8 Study or Travel in English Speaking Countries

Asked about their stay in English countries (Figure 4.7), 64% the participants had not been in English countries before. Almost 5% missed the question. The rest 31% of the participants had the experience of stay in English speaking countries either to travel or to study. Malaysia and India were the top most stayed or visited countries, with 14% and 7% of the participants having stayed in Malaysia and India respectively. Malaysia was the most visited country, as it is a Muslim country and there is no need to apply for a visa to visit this country. England, Canada, Australia, Singapore, and America were the next most visited countries respectively.

Further investigation showed that except for branches 1, 3 and 10 all other branches had teachers who had the experience of studying or travelling in the English speaking countries. Of these branches branch 4 had the major number of teachers who travelled abroad. After branch 4, branch 9, 2 and 5 had more of the teachers who had the experience of travelling abroad.

As mentioned before, branch 4 and 9 are located near the universities and branch 5 is located in the populated part of the town, these will cause to more number of students and high class variety in these branches. So, it is speculated that the teachers who are working in these branches will have more number of teaching hours and can earn more to afford their overseas trips. On the other hand, branch 2 is located in the wealthy part of the town and normally the students and the teachers are quite rich and they can afford overseas trips easily.

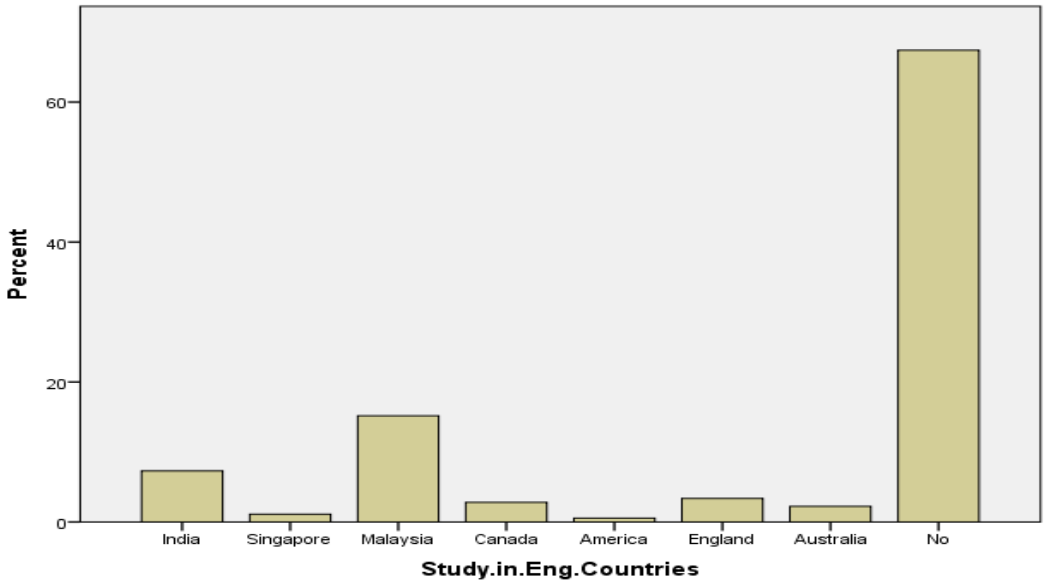

Figure 4.7: Study participants by study or travel in English countries.

Asking the participants on their period of stay in English countries resulted in the following findings: 12% had a stay of 1-6 months and 10% had a stay of 6-12 months in English countries. Just 2% of the whole participants had a stay of more than 1 year.

Table 4.7: Study participants by study or travel in English countries

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	120	64.2	68.2	68.2
	Less than 1 month	10	5.3	5.7	73.9
	1-6 months	23	12.3	13.1	86.9
	6-12 months	19	10.2	10.8	97.7
	More than 1 year	4	2.1	2.3	100.0
	Total	176	94.1	100.0	
Missing	System	11	5.9		
	Total	187	100.0		

4.1.9 Taking IELTS or TOEFL Certificate

Figure 4.8 (Appendix J) demonstrates that almost 60% of the participants had taken IELTS or TOEFL before. And 40% had not taken any one of the tests before. This is quite understandable, as for getting good jobs with higher salaries having a good command of English is necessary and needed.

Table 4.8 shows that of those taken IELTS or TOEFL, 37% got the higher results and just 7% had the low results.

Table 4.8: Study participants by IELTS or TOEFL result

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No result	75	40.1	40.8	40.8
	Top rank	70	37.4	38.0	78.8
	Middle rank	26	13.9	14.1	92.9
	Low rank	13	7.0	7.1	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

Investigating further, Table 4.9 and Figure 4.9 (Appendix J) pictures that 37% had taken IELTS or TOEFL once and 4% had taken the tests more than twice.

Table 4.9: Study participants by frequency of taking IELTS or TOEFL

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No exam	75	40.1	40.8	40.8
	Once	70	37.4	38.0	78.8
	Twice	31	16.6	16.8	95.7
	More than twice	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

Figure 4.10 illustrates that 40% of the IELTS or TOEFL holders had taken their test in the current year and 9% took their tests last year. Almost 6% of the teachers took their test two years ago and just 3% had taken their tests more than two years ago. This shows that the majority of the teachers' information is up to date and they try to compete for excellence.

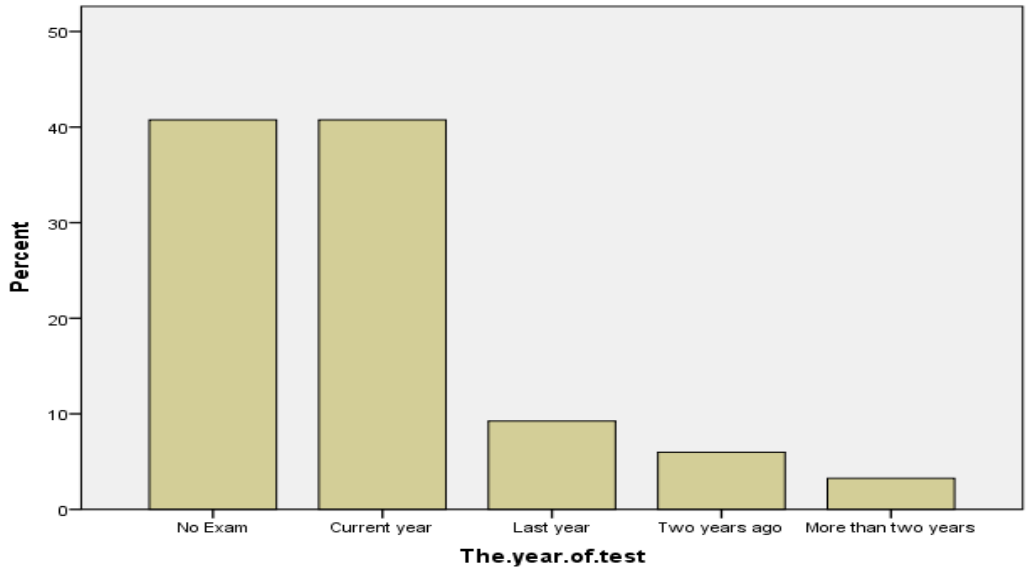

Figure 4.10: Study participants by the year of taking IELTS or TOEFL.

4.1.10 Summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants

As the summary, all the background variables of this research are put in Table 4.10 for easy comparison.

Table 4.10: Background variables of the study participants

Language center Branch		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Branch1	6	3.2	3.3	3.3
	Branch 2	18	9.6	9.8	13.1
	Branch 3	8	4.3	4.4	17.5
	Branch 4	24	12.8	13.1	30.6
	Branch 5	42	22.5	23.0	53.6
	Branch 6	13	7.0	7.1	60.7
	Branch 7	21	11.2	11.5	72.1
	Branch 8	14	7.5	7.7	79.8
	Branch 9	30	16.0	16.4	96.2
	Branch 10	7	3.7	3.8	100.0
	Total	183	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.1		
	Total	187	100.0		

Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	47	25.1	28.5	28.5
	Female	118	63.1	71.5	100.0
	Total	165	88.2	100.0	
Missing	System	22	11.8		
	Total	187	100.0		

Highest degree achieved		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor	138	73.8	74.6	74.6
	Master	43	23.0	23.2	97.8
	Ph.D	4	2.1	2.2	100.0
	Total	185	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.1		
	Total	187	100.0		

Major of Study		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Engineering	31	16.6	16.8	16.8
	Science	18	9.6	9.8	26.6
	Bio-medicine	6	3.2	3.3	29.9
	Social sciences	23	12.3	12.5	42.4
	English	106	56.7	57.6	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

English Teaching Experience		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	49	26.2	26.3	26.3
	1-3 years	54	28.9	29.0	55.4
	4-6years	53	28.3	28.5	83.9
	7-10years	22	11.8	11.8	95.7
	More than 10 years	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
	Total	187	100.0		

Level of Teaching		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	starter	21	11.2	11.2	11.2
	elementary	42	22.5	22.5	33.7
	pre-intermediate	41	21.9	21.9	55.6
	intermediate	33	17.6	17.6	73.3
	advanced	37	19.8	19.8	93.0
	upper-advanced	13	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	

Study or travel in English Countries		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	120	64.2	68.2	68.2
	Less than 1 month	10	5.3	5.7	73.9
	1-6 months	23	12.3	13.1	86.9
	6-12 months	19	10.2	10.8	97.7
	More than 1 year	4	2.1	2.3	100.0
	Total	176	94.1	100.0	
Missing	System	11	5.9		
	Total	187	100.0		

IELTS or TOEFL Result		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No result	75	40.1	40.8	40.8
	Top rank	70	37.4	38.0	78.8
	Middle rank	26	13.9	14.1	92.9
	Low rank	13	7.0	7.1	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

frequency of taking IELTS or TOEFL		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No exam	75	40.1	40.8	40.8
	Once	70	37.4	38.0	78.8
	Twice	31	16.6	16.8	95.7
	More than twice	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	184	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	1.6		
	Total	187	100.0		

4.2 Teachers' Sense of Efficacy in Teaching English

This section presents the findings related to Research Question 1: "What are the current levels of the self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English among English language center teachers?"

As stated in Chapter 3, the self-efficacy questionnaire was made ready by adapting the short form of TSES by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). As the result, the questionnaire reflects the specific setting of English teaching in EFL context of the ABC English Language Centers.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on 12 questions of the Self-Efficacy questionnaire to reduce them to a smaller set of derived and uncorrelated components which could keep the maximum information in the original set of variables. In other words, PCA was performed to load the factors. PCA was also performed in order to have a comparison between the extracted factors of this research and the original TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Later, the factors derived were named and the component scores were calculated. The scores showed the confidence of the teachers in English teaching in each one of the dimensions. To check the correlations

with the other variables of this research such as background variables, English language proficiency, Instructional strategies, the component scores were used.

4.2.1 Principal Component Analysis

Mean and standard deviation of the items are shown in Table 4.11. Based on the means, the teachers assessed their self-efficacy pretty high. The mean values of the 12 items varied from 7.02 (question no. 9 and 12) to 7.66 (question no. 8), which means that their English teaching self-efficacy was in a fairly high level in the classroom.

Table 4.11: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Self-Efficacy Items

Self-Efficacy Items	Mean	SD
1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in your English class?	7.41	1.501
2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?	7.20	1.614
3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in English?	7.03	1.799
4. How much can you do to help your students value learning English?	7.27	1.584
5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7.20	1.747
6. How much can you do to get students to follow classroom rules in your English class?	7.56	1.600
7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your English class?	7.54	1.549
8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students in your English class?	7.66	1.548
9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies in your English class?	7.02	1.874
10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when your English students are confused?	7.18	1.917
11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English?	7.34	1.236
12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your English classroom?	7.02	1.927

Note: 1 = Nothing/not at all, 3 = Very little, 5 = Some influence, 7 = Quite a bit, and 9 = A great deal

This showed that the English teachers were less confident considering the tasks related to English strategies (e.g., using a variety of assessment strategies, implementing alternative strategies) than others (e.g., establishing a classroom management system with each group of the students) in the English classroom. It means that the teachers had high skills and confidence in managing their classrooms.

The correlations among the items are presented in Table 4.12. The matrix of correlation noted that the correlation was very high and so many items were correlated with each other. Most of the loadings were higher than .60.

Table 4.12: Correlation Matrix of the Self-Efficacy Items

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1.000											
2	.787	1.000										
3	.776	.878	1.000									
4	.793	.860	.918	1.000								
5	.750	.846	.894	.836	1.000							
6	.915	.847	.861	.836	.820	1.000						
7	.920	.715	.777	.850	.721	.885	1.000					
8	.746	.725	.877	.802	.766	.812	.771	1.000				
9	.829	.769	.817	.808	.865	.793	.784	.762	1.000			
10	.861	.827	.832	.883	.838	.826	.852	.772	.905	1.000		
11	.681	.806	.834	.840	.775	.716	.655	.707	.690	.763	1.000	
12	.819	.818	.874	.867	.863	.785	.796	.746	.917	.935	.740	1.000

Principal Component Analyses were performed by the help of an orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation method. Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was used in orthogonal rotation method and Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization was employed in oblique rotation method. As the findings of the Oblimin rotation was the same as the Varimax rotation, the PCA results with the orthogonal rotation method were analyzed. Table 4.13 shows that three components are pulled out. The three components explained

about 91% of the total variance. In this regards, 83% of the total variance was explained by the first component while the Eigenvalue was 9.9. About 5% was explained by the second component and the Eigenvalue was .5. And about 3% was explained by the third component with Eigenvalue of .4.

Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.950	82.919	82.919	4.036	33.633	33.633
2	.563	4.695	87.614	3.628	30.233	63.866
3	.405	3.371	90.985	3.254	27.119	90.985
4	.309	2.576	93.561			
5	.247	2.061	95.622			
6	.157	1.309	96.930			
7	.129	1.073	98.003			
8	.079	.660	98.664			
9	.066	.549	99.213			
10	.047	.391	99.604			
11	.028	.236	99.839			
12	.019	.161	100.000			

It shows that approximately 91% of the total variance was explained by retaining three components with the application of PCA.

In statistics, we can use three methods to decide: Kaiser Criterion, Scree test, and maintaining as many factors that accounts for at least 70% of the total variance (Stevens, 1996). But in this research, the last method was used. Based on the Table 4.13, the first three components, which counted for at least 90% of the total variance, were considered.

Components whose Eigenvalue is more than one will be chosen in Kaiser Criterion. Furthermore, in Scree test the Eigenvalue are plotted against the ordinal number of the Eigenvalue in a graphical representation. In a Scree plot, we should keep all the components which their Eigenvalues are in the sharp descent of the curve before

it starts to level off (see Figure 4.11). By considering Figure 4.11, the first three items should be kept as they are located in the sharp descent of the curve before the Eigenvalues begin to stabilize. Finally, Stevens (1996) suggests that the components which meet at least 70% of the total variance should be kept. In addition to the three criteria in selection of the three-component model, the conceptual consideration was also considered.

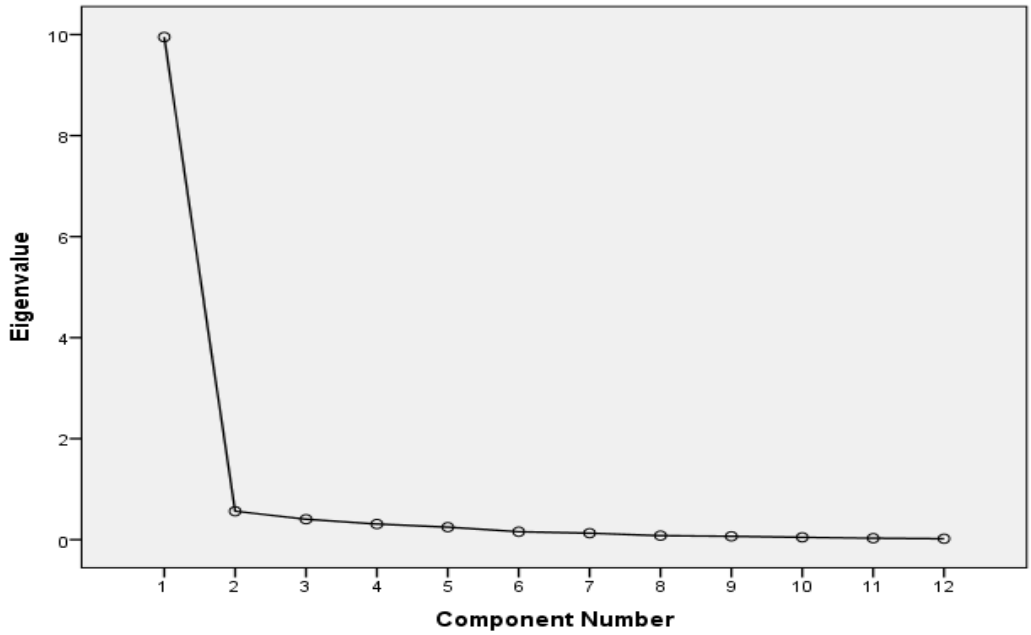

Figure 4.11: Scree plot of the self-efficacy items

In order to interpret the extracted components, factor loadings were used (Table 4.14). Factor loading describes the magnitude and direction of the relationship between an item and a derived component and it is a product moment correlation coefficient.

The loadings of 0.32 or above specified the items that were loaded on each component (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, cited in Lee, 2009). Items 2, 3, 4, and 11 loaded on component 1; Items 1, 6, and 7on component 2; Items 5, 9, 10, and 12 on component 3 and all the loadings were positive. Component 1 was named *student*

engagement; component 2, *classroom management*; and component 3, *instructional strategies*.

During the first PCA phase , Item 8 was loaded on student engagement which was not in accord with the previous studies performed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), Chacon (2002, 2005), and Lee (2009). As a result, Item 8 requires a closer look, as it was loaded on *student engagement* and *classroom management* with almost the same strengths.

Item number 8 was categorized into *classroom management* with reference to the results of the rotation examined and regarding the conceptual consideration. The Rotation findings showed that item number 8 loaded on *student engagement* with the loading of .618 more clearly than *classroom management* with the loading of .598. Establishing a classroom management system with each group of students in the English class did not seem to be connected to the student engagement and as the loading did not conceptually make sense, the researcher decided to load item number 8 on the classroom management factor. Thus, these loadings would accord with the previous studies.

Table 4.14: Rotated Component Matrix

Self-Efficacy Items	Component 1	2	3
1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in your English class?		.782	.467
2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?	.705	.401	.447
3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in English?	.750	.447	.425
4. How much can you do to help your students value learning English?	.673	.497	.451
5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	.607	.335	.609
6. How much can you do to get students to follow classroom rules in your English class?	.510	.742	.342
7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your English class?		.824	.398
8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students in your English class?	.618	.598	.
9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies in your English class?	.381	.450	.769
10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when your English students are confused?	.450	.514	.684
11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English?	.833		
12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your English classroom?	.468	.408	.753

It shows the findings of the Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization. Each loading is a Person Product-moment correlation between an item and a component (1.Efficacy for student engagement 2.Efficacy for classroom management 3.Efficacy for instructional strategies). Note that loadings below 0.32 were deleted.

Table 4.14 summarized variables that were loaded on the three factors. Note that Chacón (2002), Lee (2009) and this research adapted the 12 items in order to fit to the English teaching context while Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) used the original 12-item TSES. It is of concern, as shown in Table 4.14, that all items of the TSES loaded on the same factors across different studies. This proposed that the dimensions of teacher efficacy were quite consistent in different settings, as Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) studies were in the U.S., Chacón's (2002) in Venezuela, Lee's (2009) in Korea, and this research in the Middle East.

In summary, three components were extracted by the help of PCA on the 12 items of the English teacher self-efficacy beliefs. They were instructional strategies,

classroom management, and student engagement. The findings showed that, except for one item, all the items of the self-efficacy beliefs loaded on the same dimensions the same as in the previous studies which were performed in different cultures. Although some changes were made in the items used in this research, 11 out of the 12 items loaded on the same factors as in the previous studies.

Item 8, which asked about establishing a classroom management system with each group of students in the English class, loaded on the student engagement factor in this research, while it loaded on the classroom management in Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), Chacon (2002, 2005), and Lee (2009). Since the loading did not make sense, I decided to load item 8 on the classroom management which looked more logical and in accord with the studies done before.

4.2.2 Level of English Teacher Efficacy Dimensions

To investigate the teachers' level of self-efficacy in teaching English, the average value of each component was calculated (Table 4.15).

The mean score of the individual components was measured by first adding up the value of the items that loaded on the component and after that dividing the summed score by the number of the items.

In this study, the English teachers assessed their self-efficacy at quite a high level in all sub-categories of instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement (Table 4.15), meaning that the teachers believed in their influence in the three sub-categories. They felt more confident in classroom management (M = 7.54) than in all other dimensions. On the other hand, the teachers felt least confident in their instructional strategies (M = 7.10).

Table 4.15: Means and standard deviation of teacher efficacy in teaching English

	Mean	STD
Student Engagement	7.21	1.558
Classroom Management	7.54	1.550
Instructional Strategies	7.10	1.870

Note: 1 = Nothing/not at all, 3 = Very little, 5 = Some influence, 7 = Quite a bit, and 9 =A great deal

In checking the English teachers' reported efficacy, this research did not report the total teacher efficacy level by summing up the three factors, because I believed that each dimension had its own unique domain.

Meanwhile, Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were: .96 (instructional strategies), .95 (classroom management), and .95 (student engagement) for the present research. It showed that the Self-efficacy questionnaire was completely reliable, as the reliability coefficients were quite high.

Besides that, the researcher decided to calculate the inter-item correlation of the self-efficacy items for each sub-category.

Table 4.16 demonstrates that the items in student engagement sub-category have quite high correlation together and all the correlations are above .80 which is considered high.

Table 4.16 :Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of student engagement

	Self.efficacy.2	Self.efficacy.3	Self.efficacy.4	Self.efficacy.11
Self.efficacy.2	1.000			
Self.efficacy.3	.878	1.000		
Self.efficacy.4	.860	.918	1.000	
Self.efficacy.11	.806	.834	.840	1.000

Table 4.17 pictures the correlation among the items in classroom management sub-category. The correlations are considered high and significant. Except for item 8, all the other three items have correlations above .80.

Table 4.17: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of classroom management

	Self.efficacy.1	Self.efficacy.6	Self.efficacy.7	Self.efficacy.8
Self.efficacy.1	1.000			
Self.efficacy.6	.915	1.000		
Self.efficacy.7	.920	.885	1.000	
Self.efficacy.8	.746	.812	.771	1.000

Table 4.18 depicts the correlations matrix of the items in instructional strategy sub-category of the self-efficacy questionnaire. Here the correlations are quite high and all are above .80 which is significant.

Table 4.18 :Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of instructional strategies

	Self.efficacy.5	Self.efficacy.9	Self.efficacy.10	Self.efficacy.12
Self.efficacy.5	1.000			
Self.efficacy.9	.865	1.000		
Self.efficacy.10	.838	.905	1.000	
Self.efficacy.12	.863	.917	.935	1.000

Meanwhile, the researcher checked the correlation among the three sub-categories of student engagement, classroom management, instructional strategy. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .956 which is significant and considered high (Table 4.19). It means that all the three sub-categories of self-efficacy beliefs are highly correlated and this number supports that the whole test is a reliable measurement of self-efficacy beliefs.

Table 4.19: Reliability Statistics of Self-efficacy beliefs

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items
.956	.960

Later, I examined the correlations among all three subcategories of self-efficacy. It was shown that all of them are highly correlated together. The highest correlation was between Self-efficacy and Instructional strategy dimensions.

Table 4.20: Correlations among dimensions of self-efficacy

	SE	CM	IS
Student Engagement	1		
Classroom Management	.880**	1	
Instructional Strategies	.905**	.883**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

4.2.3 Summary of the teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English

To see into the English teacher self-efficacy levels, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on the self-efficacy items to reduce them into a smaller set of derived components that hold the maximum information in the original set of variables. As a result, three components were extracted: instructional strategies, classroom management, and student Engagement, which was in accord with the previously done studies (e.g., Chacón, 2002; Lee, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

As for the three dimensions of instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement, the PCA results of this research demonstrated that the factor structure of the TSES was stable across different studies which were performed in various cultures. Despite some of the changes of the items in this research, 11 out of the 12 items from the TSES loaded on the same factors in line with the past studies (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

The English teachers in this research rated their self-efficacy at a high level in all three sub-categories of instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement. This meant that the teachers had a major impact in these three dimensions. The teachers felt more confident in classroom management (M = 7.54) than in all the other dimensions. Also, they felt least confident in their instructional strategies (M = 7.10).

4.3 English Teachers' Proficiency Variables

This part shows the research findings to answer Research Question 2: **"**What do teachers report to be their English proficiency levels?**"** This research adopted the instruments used in Chacon (2005) and Shim (2001) and modified it to fit into EFL context of teaching English.

4.3.1 Mean and Standard Deviation of the Language Skills

The participants assessed their current English proficiency levels on a 6-point Likert scale from "Strongly Agree" (6) to "Strongly Disagree" (1) in Part II of the questionnaire. If the score was higher, the teachers would be more proficient in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Means and standard deviations for each of the 25 items is shown in Table 4.21 .

Regarding listening proficiency, teachers were less proficient to understand two native speakers while they are talking quickly with one another with the Mean = 3.24. And they were more proficient in understanding a telephone message in English on an answering machine with the Mean = 5.11.

Considering speaking proficiency, they rated themselves less proficient in giving lectures to their students in English without any difficulty (Mean = 3.10) and more proficient in talking about their favorite hobbies while using appropriate vocabulary with the Mean = 5.63.

For reading proficiency, most teachers reported that reading highly technical material with no use of a dictionary as the most difficult item (Mean = 3.70). On the other hand, drawing inferences or conclusions from what they read in English and

figuring out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context had the highest Mean = 5.02, meaning that these two tasks were more manageable for the teachers.

Regarding writing proficiency, writing short research papers had the lowest Mean = 4.09 and filling in different kinds of applications in English such as credit card applications, had the highest Mean = 5.44.

Table 4.21: Mean and Standard Deviation of English proficiency items

English Skills	Mean	*SD*
Listening:		
3. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine.	5.11	1.02
4. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker.	3.97	1.59
5. I understand movies without subtitles.	3.37	1.85
6. I understand news broadcasts on American television.	3.38	1.98
7. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.	3.24	1.90
Speaking:		
9. I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.	5.63	0.48
10. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.	5.35	0.61
11. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution).	4.45	1.02
12. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics.	4.43	1.32
13. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed.	3.50	1.68
14. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.	3.10	1.81
Reading :		
15. I can read and understand magazine articles, such as Time and Newsweek, without using a dictionary.	4.70	0.99
16. I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary.	4.68	1.09
17. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary.	3.70	1.41
18. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.	5.02	0.93
19. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.	5.02	1.03
Writing:		
21. Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English.	4.86	1.02
22. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).	5.44	0.76
23. I can write short research papers.	4.09	1.46
24. I can select proper words in writing.	5.22	0.84
25. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.	5.19	0.94

By considering Table 4.22, it can be concluded that the variety of scores in listening skill of the participants is more than the other skills (*SD* = 8.11). It means that we have different levels of listening proficiency among the participants of this research.

On the other hand, the standard deviation of the speaking, reading, and writing is lower, 6.40, 5.03, and 4.70 respectively. It shows that the variety of scores is lower and most of the teachers are relatively at the high level of their speaking, reading, and writing skills compared to their listening.

Based on the value of Mean/Max, we can conclude that the participants are stronger in writing skills (.82) and weaker in Listening skills (.63). So, for the participants of this research the order of Language skills from the strongest to the weakest is Writing, reading, speaking, and listening respectively.

This result is understandable, as the context of this research is EFL and English is not used in the society and daily lives of the participants. The participants have quite limited access to English in their daily lives, so they cannot improve their listening and speaking.

Table 4.22: Mean and standard deviation of English language proficiency

	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Mean/Max	Std. Deviation
Listening Score	22	8	30	19.06	0.63	8.118
Speaking Score	20	16	36	26.46	0.73	6.408
Reading Score	17	13	30	23.11	0.77	5.031
Writing Score	14	16	30	24.80	0.82	4.700

4.3.2 Correlation coefficient on Each Language Skill Domain

Meanwhile, Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were calculated here again after deleting the items in the pilot study. The result for English skills of listening (.973), speaking (.921), reading (.946), and writing (.946) was so promising and significant. It was shown that English proficiency questionnaire is a reliable measurement in this research.

In addition, I decided to calculate the inter-item correlation of the language proficiency items for each skill of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Table 4.23 demonstrates that the items in Listening skills have quite high correlations with each other and all the correlations are above .83 which is considered high and significant.

Table 4.23: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of the listening skill

	Eng. Pro 3	Eng. Pro 4	Eng. Pro 5	Eng. Pro 6	Eng. Pro 7
Eng.Proficiency3	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency4	.880	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency5	.851	.959	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency6	.830	.931	.973	1.000	
Eng.Proficiency7	.836	.941	.964	.956	1.000

Correlation among the speaking skill items are presented in the following Table 4.24. The correlations are relatively high and significant.

Table 4.24: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of the speaking skill

	Eng. Pro 9	Eng. Pro 10	Eng. Pro 11	Eng. Pro 12	Eng. Pro 13	Eng. Pro 14
Eng.Proficiency9	1.000					
Eng.Proficiency10	.686	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency11	.681	.755	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency12	.740	.760	.764	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency13	.727	.791	.786	.857	1.000	
Eng.Proficiency14	.735	.806	.760	.843	.963	1.000

Table 4.25 pictures the correlation among reading proficiency items. All the correlations are above .65 and are considered significant.

Table 4.25: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of the reading skill

	Eng. Pro 15	Eng. Pro 16	Eng. Pro 17	Eng. Pro 18	Eng. Pro 19
Eng.Proficiency15	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency16	.909	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency17	.853	.934	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency18	.659	.735	.721	1.000	
Eng.Proficiency19	.692	.780	.766	.902	1.000

The correlation matrix of the writing proficiency is shown in Table 4.26. As it can be seen, the correlations are high and significant.

Table 4.26: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of the writing skill

	Eng. Pro 21	Eng. Pro 22	Eng. Pro 23	Eng. Pro 24	Eng. Pro 25
Eng.Proficiency21	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency22	.886	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency23	.865	.821	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency24	.884	.824	.861	1.000	
Eng.Proficiency25	.816	.751	.794	.856	1.000

Meanwhile, I checked the correlation among the four skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 which is significant and considered high (Table 4.27). It means that all the four skills of English language proficiency are highly correlated and this number supports that the whole test is a reliable measurement of English skills.

Table 4.27: Reliability Statistics of English language proficiency skills

Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha Based on Standardized Items
.961	.978

Table 4.28 shows that to what degree the four skills are related together. The correlation among the skills is relatively high and significant.

Table 4.28 : Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Listening.Score	Speaking.Score	Reading.Score	Writing.Score
Listening.Score	1.000			
Speaking.Score	.925	1.000		
Reading.Score	.927	.947	1.000	
Writing.Score	.924	.868	.913	1.000

4.3.3 Frequency and Percentage on Each Language Skill Domain

Considering the listening proficiency, Table 4.29 pictures that 49% of the participants Strongly Agree with understanding an English message on an answering machine. While, just 16% of the teachers were able to understand movies without subtitles and they could understand two native speakers talking rapidly with one another. It seemed that these last two tasks were challenging for the teachers. As they are in EFL context and are not exposed to every day English, these results could have been expected.

Table 4.29: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item of Listening skill

Listening												
Qs	SD		D		SLD		SLA		A		SA	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
3	0	0.00	0	0.00	19	10.2	32	17.1	45	24.1	91	48.7
4	0	0.00	57	30.5	20	10.7	31	16.6	30	16.0	49	26.2
5	50	26.7	20	10.7	25	13.4	25	13.4	37	19.8	30	16.0
6	57	30.5	25	13.4	6	3.2	25	13.4	37	19.8	37	19.8
7	57	30.5	18	9.6	39	20.9	0	0.00	43	23.0	30	16.0

Note: SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, SLD = Slightly Disagree, SLA = Slightly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, Freq= Frequency, and Perc =Percentage.

Regarding speaking proficiency, 63% of the teachers commented that they can talk about their favorite hobbies using appropriate vocabulary. On the other hand, almost 10% of them had been able to give lectures to their students in English without any difficulty. Giving lectures was found out to be the most difficult task for the teachers.

Table 4.30: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item of Speaking skill

Speaking												
Qs	SD		D		SLD		SLA		A		SA	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
9	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	69	36.9	118	63.1
10	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	14	7.5	94	50.3	79	42.2
11	0	0.00	0	0.00	38	20.3	64	34.2	48	25.7	37	19.8
12	0	0.00	19	10.2	33	17.6	32	17.1	54	28.9	49	26.2
13	19	10.2	57	30.5	20	10.7	24	12.8	37	19.8	30	16.0
14	56	29.9	33	17.6	13	7.0	24	12.8	43	23.0	18	9.6

Note. SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, SLD = Slightly Disagree, SLA = Slightly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, Freq= Frequency, and Perc =Percentage.

In terms of Reading, 43% of the teachers were able to find out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context. In the contrary, only 13% of them could read highly technical materials in a particular academic field without use of a dictionary.

Table 4.31: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item of Reading skill

Reading												
Qs	SD		D		SLD		SLA		A		SA	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
15	0	0.00	0	0.00	24	12.8	58	31.0	56	29.9	49	26.2
16	0	0.00	0	0.00	31	16.6	59	31.6	36	19.3	61	32.6
17	0	0.00	52	27.8	44	23.5	24	12.8	43	23.0	24	12.8
18	0	0.00	7	3.7	0	0.00	37	19.8	81	43.3	62	33.2
19	0	0.00	7	3.7	0	0.00	56	29.9	44	23.5	80	42.8

Note. SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, SLD = Slightly Disagree, SLA = Slightly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, Freq= Frequency, and Perc =Percentage.

Concerning writing proficiency, 60% of the participants were able to fill in different kinds of applications in English such as credit card applications. While only 22% could write short research papers. Writing research papers needed more challenge and seemed the most difficult writing activity for the participants.

Table 4.32: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item of Writing skill

Writing												
Qs	SD		D		SLD		SLA		A		SA	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
21	0	0.00	0	0.00	25	13.4	37	19.8	64	34.2	61	32.6
22	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	31	16.6	43	23.0	113	60.4
23	0	0.00	37	19.8	38	20.3	26	13.9	44	23.5	42	22.5
24	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	50	26.7	45	24.1	92	49.2
25	0	0.00	0	0.00	6	3.2	51	27.3	32	17.1	98	52.4

Note. SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, SLD = Slightly Disagree, SLA = Slightly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, Freq= Frequency, and Perc =Percentage.

4.3.4 Summary of the English teacher's proficiency variables

The teachers in the present research assessed their competency levels of writing and reading skills as higher than for speaking and listening. While the variety of scores in listening was high, the variety of scores in reading, writing and speaking was low and considerable, meaning that the range of scores in listening is more than for any other skills.

Besides, the Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were calculated for listening (.97), speaking (.92), reading (.94), and writing (.94). The result was so promising and significant. In addition, the reliability coefficient of the whole test was .96. Based on the findings, it was concluded that the English proficiency questionnaire is a reliable measurement in this research.

Meanwhile, the frequency and percentage of the responses to each of the items of the English language proficiency was shown in respective tables.

4.4 Teachers' Instructional Strategies Related Variables

This part shows research results for Question 3: "What do teachers report on making use of teaching strategies on 40 Likert-type items related to Teachers' instructional strategy?" This research adopted the instruments which were used in Chacon (2005) and Moe et al. (2010) and modified them in order to fit into EFL context of teaching. Meanwhile more items on instructional strategies were added to make the picture as clear as possible.

The questionnaire reliability was checked through the pilot study which was conducted before running the main phase of the research. During the pilot study 5 questions were deleted (Mechanical category = 1, 2, 9; Communicative category = 6,

29), as they had low correlation with the rest of the questions of this research. The total number of items in the Instructional Strategy questionnaire came out 40 out of the first 45 questions.

4.4.1 Mean and Standard Deviation of Instructional Strategy Items

In part III, the participants reported their instructional strategies used in the classrooms which ranged from “Almost Never” (1) to “Almost Always” (5). The higher the score, the more frequent the use of instructional strategies reported by the teachers. The strategies here focused on two categories of Mechanical and Communicative. As these two categories are the most common among English language teachers.

Means and standard deviations of the items on mechanical category of the instructional strategy questionnaire are shown in Table 4.33. It shows that the majority of the teachers almost always write down the rules, formulas on the blackboard (Mean = 4.53). Board using is the most common strategy among the participants. Meanwhile the participants of this research sometimes list the topics that must be taught at the beginning of the lesson (Mean = 3.48) and this strategy is the least common strategy among the teachers. The means ranged from 3.48 to 4.53, meaning that most of the teachers are sometimes to almost always using the mechanical strategies.

Table 4.33 : Mechanical Instructional Strategies

Mechanical strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation
3. Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained	4.09	1.044
4. Summarize the content of a book orally. If necessary L1 will be used	3.94	.987
12. Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson	3.98	1.189
14. At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing	3.65	1.313
16. Summarize the concepts taught. Use L1 to clarify the concepts	4.13	.676
17. Ask students to write down key words on the topic described	3.76	.979
23. Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones, in case of need will get the help of L1	3.98	.967
26. At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught	3.48	1.329
27. Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself	3.74	1.315
31. Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books	3.67	1.163
35. Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book	4.19	.757
39. Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain	4.23	.715
40. Note rules, formulas or properties on the blackboard	4.53	.666
41. Provide summaries of topics to be taught, e.g. outline chart	3.85	1.026
Total (average)	3.94	1.01

Considering the communicative strategies, Table 4.34 shows that the majority of the teachers very often agree that education is effective when it is based on experience and when it relates to the real needs of the students (Mean = 4.47). Teachers reported that students' interaction in their groups is very often emphasized (Mean = 4.38). In contrast, the students are sometimes invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class (Mean = 3.22) and this was the least-used communicative strategy reported by the teachers of this research. The means ranged from 3.22 to 4.47, meaning that most of the teachers are sometimes to very often using these communicative strategies.

Table 4.34 : Communicative Instructional Strategies

Communicative strategies	Mean	*SD*
5. Invite students to ask questions during an explanation	3.86	1.260
7. Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously.	3.65	1.228
8. Students work together in groups of two or three	4.33	.908
10. Errors are tolerated and will be notified later	3.29	1.479
11. Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know	3.65	1.369
13. Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab	4.11	1.136
15. Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students.	4.08	1.116
18. The students discuss what they have learned in the class.	3.69	1.414
19. Introduce a new topic using familiar examples	4.15	.861
20. Create links between different topics and subjects	4.21	.889
21. Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs.	4.47	.713
22. Activate students' learning through playing English games	3.58	1.265
24. Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation	4.04	1.239
25. Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning	3.96	1.307
28. Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question	3.75	1.434
30. Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson.	3.28	1.315
32. Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes	3.73	1.263
33. Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on)	4.34	.855
34. The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem.	3.91	1.099
36. A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore it.	3.64	1.342
37. Build logical chains using temporal links	3.64	1.115
38. Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs	3.65	1.333
42. Discuss study topics during lessons	3.64	1.242
43. Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized.	4.38	.886
44. Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic	3.78	.980
45. The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class.	3.22	1.227
Total (Average)	3.85	1.16

In order to examine if there is any difference in the mean frequencies of use between communicative and mechanical teaching strategies, a Paired Sample *t*-test was

applied to compare the means of communicative and mechanical teaching strategies with each other.

Table 4.35 : Paired Samples *t*-test

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	*t*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communicative	3.8470	1.03687	.07582	-.09649		
Mechanical	3.9435	.81782	.05980		-3.865	<.001

Table 4.35 shows the means difference of communicative and mechanical teaching strategies with each other. The difference was statistically significant (t = -3.865; p < .001). Data indicated that among the population (N = 187) although teachers self-reported both kinds of strategies, teachers were more into the use of mechanical strategies than communicative strategies. Overall, the mean of mechanical teaching strategies (Mean = 3.94) was higher than communicative teaching strategies (Mean = 3.84).

4.4.2 Correlation Coefficient of teaching strategy items

Meanwhile, Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were calculated for each of the categories of mechanical (.954) and communicative (.988). The result was significant and favorable. It was shown that the Instructional Strategy questionnaire is a reliable measurement in this research.

In addition, I calculated the inter-item correlation of the Instructional Strategy items for mechanical and communicative categories.

The inter-item correlation of mechanical instructional strategy items is shown in Table 4.36. Magnitude of the correlations ranged from low to high. The lowest was between items number 3 and 16 and the magnitude was .20 which was considered as a

low correlation. On the other hand, the highest was between items number 12 and 26 and the magnitude was .90 which was a very high correlation.

Table 4.36 : Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Mechanical Instructional Strategies

IS 3	IS 4	IS 12	IS 14	IS 16	IS 17	IS 23	IS 26	IS 27	IS 31	IS 35	IS 39	IS 40	IS 41
1													
.699	1												
.859	0.636	1					.						
.646	0.526	0.792	1										
.205	0.464	0.364	0.463	1									
.626	0.685	0.708	0.741	0.494	1								
.684	0.573	0.729	0.722	0.506	0.699	1							
.811	0.597	0.906	0.734	0.369	0.675	0.761	1	.					
).87	0.613	0.905	0.791	0.328	0.674	0.79	0.904	1					
.737	0.539	0.848	0.722	0.369	0.719	0.773	0.798	0.851	1				
.626	0.405	0.577	0.375	0.121	0.461	0.549	0.622	0.605	0.615	1			
.334	0.257	0.485	0.339	0.417	0.456	0.435	0.563	0.423	0.448	0.655	1		
.406	0.347	0.554	0.278	0.193	0.388	0.31	0.428	0.305	0.466	0.526	0.576	1	
.725	0.596	0.827	0.763	0.354	0.788	0.674	0.845	0.724	0.756	0.521	0.553	0.59	1

The inter-item correlation of communicative instructional strategy items is shown in Table 4.37. Magnitude of the correlations ranged from substantial to very high (Davis's criteria, 1971, mentioned in Lee, 2009, p. 78). The lowest was between items number

37 and 28 and the magnitude was .53 which was considered as a substantially significant correlation. On the other hand, the highest was between items number 15 and 25 and the magnitude was .95 which was a very high correlation.

Table 4.37: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of communicative Instructional Strategies

Besides that, I checked the correlation among all the items. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .989 which is significant and considered high (Table 4.38), meaning that instructional strategy items are highly correlated and this supports that the whole test is a reliable measurement of Instructional Strategies used by teachers in English classrooms.

Table 4.38: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha Based on Standardized Items
.989	.989

I also checked the correlation between the two categories of communicative and mechanical. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 which is significant and considered high (Table 4.39), meaning that the two categories of Instructional Strategies are highly correlated.

Table 4.39: Correlations between Mechanical and communicative teaching strategies

	Mechanical	Communicative
Mechanical	1	
Communicative	.960**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

4.4.3 Frequency and percentage on each Instructional strategy items

Table 4.40 shows that 63% of the teachers almost always follow the rules, formulas on the board. It means that using the board is important for most teachers. After using the board, drawing a graph, outline or table on the blackboard based on the read topics in the book are some of the most practiced strategies in the classroom (Table 4.40). On the contrary, the least number of teachers almost always asked the students to write down the key words of the described topic (22%).

Meanwhile, just 10% of the teachers almost never ask the students to summarize the main points orally or in writing at the end of an explanation. Moreover, 11% of the participants reported that they almost never list the topics that should be taught at the beginning of the lesson.

Table 4.40: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item of Mechanical Instructional Strategies

Mechanical Instructional Strategies										
Qs	Almost Never		Only Occasionally		Sometimes		Very Often		Almost Always	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
3	0	0.00	18	9.6	40	21.4	37	19.8	92	49.2
4	6	3.2	6	3.2	43	23.0	71	38.0	61	32.6
12	0	0.00	38	20.3	19	10.2	38	20.3	92	49.2
14	19	10.2	20	10.7	31	16.6	55	29.4	62	33.2
16	0	0.00	0	0.00	32	17.1	99	52.9	56	29.9
17	6	3.2	12	6.4	45	24.1	82	43.9	42	22.5
23	0	0.00	13	7.0	50	26.7	52	27.8	72	38.5
26	20	10.7	25	13.4	44	23.5	42	22.5	56	29.9
27	13	7.0	25	13.4	38	20.3	32	17.1	79	42.2
31	6	3.2	27	14.4	50	26.7	44	23.5	60	32.1
35	0	0.00	0	0.00	39	20.9	74	39.6	74	39.6
39	0	0.00	0	0.00	31	16.6	82	43.9	74	39.6
40	0	0.00	0	0.00	18	9.6	51	27.3	118	63.1
41	6	3.2	13	7.0	39	20.9	74	39.6	55	29.4

Considering Table 4.41, 62% of the teachers said that students' interaction in their groups is almost always emphasized. After that 60% of the participants commented that students almost always work together in groups of two or three. In contrast, only 13% of the teachers reported that the students are almost always invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class. Besides that, 17% self-reported that students are almost never invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson.

Table 4.41: Frequencies and percentage on Each Item Communicative Instructional Strategies

Communicative Instructional Strategies										
Qs	Almost Never		Only Occasionally		Sometimes		Very Often		Almost Always	
	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc	Freq	Perc
5	6	3.2	32	17.1	31	16.6	32	17.1	86	46.0
7	6	3.2	33	17.6	50	26.7	30	16.0	68	36.4
8	6	3.2	0	0.00	38	20.3	31	16.6	112	59.9
10	26	13.9	45	24.1	25	13.4	30	16.0	61	32.6
11	12	6.4	32	17.1	51	27.3	7	3.7	85	45.5
13	7	3.7	12	6.4	33	17.6	37	19.8	98	52.4
15	0	0.00	26	13.9	31	16.6	32	17.1	98	52.4
18	18	9.6	26	13.9	38	20.3	19	10.2	86	46.0
19	0	0.00	0	0.00	57	30.5	45	24.1	85	45.5
20	0	0.00	6	3.2	40	21.4	50	26.7	91	48.7
21	0	0.00	6	3.2	6	3.2	70	37.4	105	56.1
22	6	3.2	46	24.6	31	16.6	42	22.5	62	33.2
24	12	6.4	14	7.5	25	13.4	39	20.9	97	51.9
25	12	6.4	20	10.7	31	16.6	25	13.4	99	52.9
28	18	9.6	33	17.6	13	7.0	36	19.3	87	46.5
30	31	16.6	19	10.2	34	18.2	73	39.0	30	16.0
32	6	3.2	33	17.6	45	24.1	24	12.8	79	42.2
33	0	0.00	7	3.7	26	13.9	50	26.7	104	55.6
34	0	0.00	32	17.1	25	13.4	57	30.5	73	39.0
36	13	7.0	39	20.9	18	9.6	49	26.2	68	36.4
37	0	0.00	39	20.9	45	24.1	48	25.7	55	29.4
38	13	7.0	31	16.6	38	20.3	31	16.6	74	39.6
42	12	6.4	20	10.7	57	30.5	32	17.1	66	35.3
43	0	0.00	6	3.2	33	17.6	32	17.1	116	62.0
44	0	0.00	19	10.2	58	31.0	56	29.9	54	28.9
45	25	13.4	25	13.4	45	24.1	68	36.4	24	12.8

The table presents the number and the percentage of the respondents by the choice on each item.

4.5 Relationships between teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies

This part shows research findings to answer Question 4: "What is the interaction effect between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies?" To find the answer for this question, the correlation matrix (Table 4.42) was consulted.

In order to interpret the correlations in this research r = .70 or higher means that the correlation is very high; .50 to .69 shows a substantial correlation; .30 to .49 means that the correlation is moderate; .10 to .29 is considered low; and .01 to .09 is a negligible correlation (based on Davis, 1971, mentioned in Lee, 2009, p. 78).

Table 4.42: Correlation Matrix between teachers' proficiency in English and teaching strategies

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Mechanical	Communicative
Listening	1.000					
Speaking	.925	1.000				
Reading	.927	.947	1.000			
Writing	.924	.868	.913	1.000		
Mechanical	.837	.875	.867	.841	1.000	
Communicative	.883	.895	.882	.876	.960	1.000

Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

There were very strong positive relationships between the four dimensions of the English language skills; such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing and the two dimensions of teaching strategies; such as mechanical, communicative. The strongest link was between speaking and communicative instructional strategies (r = .895), while the smallest (still very high) was between listening and mechanical instructional strategies (r = .837).

The teachers' reported English proficiency in four domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing was all positively related with each other. The magnitudes were all very high; the strongest was found between speaking and reading (r = .947), and the smallest (yet still very high) was between speaking and writing (r = .868).

Besides, mechanical and communicative instructional strategies had high relationships together (r = .960).

4.6 Relationships between teachers' sense of efficacy, proficiency in English, and teaching strategies

In this section the results to answer Question 5: "What is the interaction effect between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies?" is shown. To find the answer for this question, the correlation matrix (Table 4.43) was used.

Table 4.43 : Correlation Matrix of teachers' sense of efficacy, proficiency in English, and teaching strategies

	L	S	R	W	ME	CM	SE	CM	IS
Listening	1.000								
Speaking	.925	1.000							
Reading	.927	.947	1.000						
Writing	.924	.868	.913	1.000					
Mechanical	.837	.875	.867	.841	1.000				
Communicative	.883	.895	.882	.876	.960	1.000			
Student Engagement	.842	.811	.831	.916	.801	.830	1.000		
Classroom Management	.816	.826	.800	.880	.797	.816	.880	1.000	
Instructional Strategy	.798	.779	.815	.898	.791	.796	.905	.883	1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
L = Listening, S = Speaking, R = Reading, W = Writing
ME = Mechanical, CM = Communicative
SE = Student Engagement, CM = Classroom Management, IS = Instructional Strategies

Very high positive relationships were found between the three sub-categories of self-efficacy; namely, instructional strategies, classroom management, student engagement and the four dimensions of English proficiency; such as, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The strongest relationship was between student engagement and writing (r = .916) which was considered very high. The weakest relationship which was still very high was between instructional strategy and speaking (r = .779).

In addition, the student engagement had a stronger relationship with English proficiency dimensions (r = .811 to .916) than with classroom management (r = .800 to .880) and instructional strategy (r = .779 to .898). It could be inferred that those teachers who are more proficient in English would engage students more in the English classrooms than managing the class and using the instructional strategies.

Regarding the relationship between self-efficacy and teaching strategies, the three sub-categories of self-efficacy (i.e., instructional strategies, student engagement, classroom management) and the two dimensions of teaching strategies (i.e., mechanical and communicative) were highly and positively related with each other. The strongest relationship was between student engagement and communicative teaching strategies (r = .830) which was considered very high. The weakest relationship which was still very high was between instructional strategy and mechanical teaching strategies (r = .791). The teachers who engaged students more applied more of communicative strategies than mechanical. This result is quite plausible, as communicative strategies might engage students more than mechanical ones.

Moreover, the student engagement had a stronger relationship with teaching strategy dimensions (r = .801, .830) than with classroom management (r = .797 to .816) and instructional strategy (r = .791 to .796).

4.7 Relationships between teachers' background characteristics and other variables of the study

Here the research results for Question 6: "What is the interaction effect between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies?" will be presented.

Background variables included gender, age range, and degree, major, experience, and level of teaching, taught that level before, IELTS, TOEFL, and grade.

All background variables except for gender, taught that level before, and taking IELSTS or TOEFL were interval. As the result, Pearson correlations coefficient (r), Phi coefficient (φ) or Point Biserial correlation coefficients (r_{pb}) were used in case they were needed.

Pearson correlations coefficient (r) was used to check the relationship between two interval or ratio variables, like age and the instructional strategies. Point Biserial coefficient (r_{pb}) was used for the relationship between one dichotomous variable and one interval or ratio variable, such as gender and instructional strategies. Also, the relationship between two dichotomous variables (e.g., gender and taking IELTS or TOEFL) was checked with Phi coefficient (φ).

4.7.1 Teachers' background characteristics and self-efficacy in teaching English

Table 4.44 summarizes the correlations of the background variables with the three dimensions of the teachers' self-efficacy; namely, instructional strategies, student engagement, and classroom management. Overall, the correlations were significant and ranged from low (r = .202) to very high (r = .844).

Table 4.44: Correlation Matrix between teachers' background characteristics and self-efficacy

	SE	CM	IS
Gender	-.273**	-.486**	-.343**
Age.range	.668**	.600**	.584**
degree	.562**	.451**	.584**
Major	.474**	.541**	.584**
Experience	.834**	.766**	.757**
Level.of.teaching	.844**	.769**	.783**
Taught.that.level.b4	-.672**	-.627**	-.576**
IELTS.or.TOEFL	-.531**	-.522**	-.514**
Grade	.202**	.204**	.222**

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Gender had a stronger relationship with classroom management (r = .486, p < .001) than with instructional strategies (r = .343, p < .001) or with student engagement (r = .273, p < .001) but the magnitude was moderate, following Davis (1971). The

direction of the correlations indicated that male teachers considered themselves more efficacious than females in all three sub-categories of self-efficacy; such as, instructional strategies, student engagement, and classroom management, and they were more confident in managing their classrooms than females.

Age had statistically significant and substantial correlations with student engagement (r = .668, p < .001), classroom management(r = .600, p < .001), and instructional strategy(r = .584, p < .001) but the magnitude was the highest for student engagement. The direction showed that the older teachers were more confident in applying the dimensions of self-efficacy in the English classroom.

Highest degree achieved had positive relationships with all dimensions of teacher efficacy. This meant that those who had higher degrees were more confident in using instructional strategies, managing their classroom, and engaging the students in the English classrooms. However, the relationship was stronger and substantial with instructional strategy (r = .584, p < .001). It seemed plausible, as the teachers who have higher degrees like master or PhD might be more familiar with instructional strategies and would apply more strategies than the others in their English classrooms.

Similarly to degree, major had the highest correlation with instructional strategy (r = .584, p < .001). Based on the result it could be concluded that those who majored in English, reported themselves more efficacious in applying instructional strategy, managing their classroom, and engaging students respectively.

Also, teaching experience had positive and high relationships with all sub-categories of the teacher self-efficacy, meaning that the more experienced teachers were more efficacious. Though, the correlation was stronger with student engagement (r = .834, p < .001). It meant that more experienced teachers engage students more than less experienced ones.

The level of teaching had high positive relationships with all of the teacher efficacy dimensions. Though, the higher the level of teaching was, the more efficacious teachers were in engaging the students. The correlation was very high (r = .844, p < .001).

In addition, asking the teachers on if they had taught that level before, gave negative results. It meant that those who had the experience of teaching that level before reported themselves more efficacious. The correlation was higher with student engagement and the magnitude was substantial (r = .672, p < .001). So, it could be concluded that those teachers who had already taught that level before were more confident in engaging students, compared to those who hadn't already taught that level before.

Taking IELTS or TOEFL had negative corrections with the three dimensions of self-efficacy. It meant that those who had taken the tests considered themselves more efficacious than those who had not taken any one of the tests before. The correlations were substantial. It was noted that the correlation was higher with student engagement (r = .531) than the other aspects of teachers' self-efficacy; classroom management (r = .522) and instructional strategy (r = .514).

It was noted that Grade had a low positive-significant correlation with all aspects of self-efficacy. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would result in higher self-efficacy.

4.7.2 Teachers' background characteristics and teaching strategies

The correlations between the background variables and the two sub-categories of the teaching strategies used in the English classrooms are shown in Table 4.45.

Table 4.45: Correlation Matrix between teachers' background characteristics and teaching strategies

	Mechanical Teaching Strategies	Communicative Teaching Strategies
Gender	-.184*	-.235**
Age.range	.622**	.609**
degree	.510**	.540**
Major	.516**	.566**
Experience	.800**	.826**
Level.of.teaching	.833**	.879**
Taught.that.level.b4	-.612**	-.632**
IELTS.or.TOEFL	-.567**	-.492**
Grade	.208**	.077

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Based on Table 4.45, almost all the correlations were significant and the magnitude ranged from low (r = .184) to very high (r = .833).

Gender had significant but low relationship with both mechanical (r = .184, p = .018) and communicative teaching strategies (r = .235, p = .002). The direction was negative, meaning that men tended to apply teaching strategies more than women. Moreover, male teachers preferred to use communicative strategies more than mechanical ones.

Age had significant and substantial relationship with both dimensions of teaching strategies. It was shown that the older the teacher was, the more use of teaching strategies in the English classrooms.

By looking at Table 4.45, we could conclude that having higher degrees of education (Master or PhD) helped the teachers to use more teaching strategies in the classrooms. The magnitude was substantial following Davis's criteria. So it could be concluded that having higher degrees did not highly affect the kind of strategies used in the classroom.

Major had positive substantial relationship with mechanical (r = .516, p < .001) and communicative teaching strategies (r = .566, p < .001). The direction was positive, saying that those who were majored in English reported making more use of teaching strategies. This result was understandable, as those who are majored in English would be more familiar with the kind of useful strategies in the English classrooms.

The result showed that experience and level of teaching had significantly high correlations with the dimensions of teaching strategies. It could be inferred that the teachers who had more experience and were teaching the higher levels were applying more teaching strategies in their classrooms. Though the magnitude of communicative teaching strategies was higher (r = .826, p < .001 with experience, r = .879, p < .001 with level of teaching) than mechanical ones (r =.800, p < .001 with experience, r = .833, p < .001 with level of teaching).

Moreover, it was shown that the teachers who had already taught that level before were getting more use of teaching strategies in their classes. The magnitude was higher for communicative strategies (r = .632, p < .001) than mechanical ones (r = .612, p < .001). It meant that teachers who had the experience of teaching that level before applied more communicative strategies in their classes than mechanical ones.

Taking IELTS or TOEFL had significantly substantial relationship with both dimensions of teaching strategies. The direction was negative, meaning that those who had taken any one of the tests before were applying the strategies more in their classrooms compared to those who hadn’t taken any one of the tests before.

It was noted that Grade had a low positive-significant correlation with mechanical teaching strategies. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would result in more use of mechanical teaching strategies. Meanwhile, grade had an insignificant relationship with communicative teaching

strategies, meaning that the result of IELTS or TOEFL cannot determine the communicative teaching strategies used in the classrooms.

4.7.3 Teachers' background characteristics and English language proficiency

Table 4.46 summarizes the relationships of background variables with the teachers' reported English proficiency. Almost all the correlations were significant and ranging from low to high magnitude.

Gender had a low relationship with all the dimensions of language proficiency, except with writing. Gender was moderately related with writing ability of the teachers. The direction showed that men were more proficient than women in all aspects of the language proficiency.

Table 4.46: Correlation Matrix between teachers' background characteristics and language proficiency

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Gender	-.243**	-.201**	-.231**	-.298**
Age.range	.597**	.609**	.650**	.656**
degree	.691**	.691**	.699**	.565**
Major	.519**	.468**	.555**	.546**
Experience	.865**	.873**	.860**	.842**
Level.of.teaching	.881**	.865**	.864**	.853**
Taught.that.level.b4	-.501**	-.510**	-.461**	-.546**
IELTS.or.TOEFL	-.638**	-.542**	-.557**	-.619**
Grade	.155*	0.096	0.144	.224**

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Age was substantially and positively related with the four dimensions of language proficiency. Teachers who were older reported themselves more proficient in

all aspects of language proficiency. The magnitude showed that those who were older were better in their writing skills ($r = .65$, $p < .001$).

Concerning the degree earned, teachers who had higher degrees considered themselves more proficient than those who did not. The relationship was much stronger with reading skills. Highly educated teachers reported to be more proficient in reading.

Concerning the major of the study of the teachers, those who had been educated in English majors reported themselves more proficient in the four skills of language proficiency. Moderate to substantial relationships ($r = .468$ with speaking, $r = .519$ with listening, $r = .546$ with writing and $r = .555$ with reading) were found out. The relationship was stronger with the reading dimension of language proficiency.

Experience and level of teaching had significant and high correlations with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The direction was positive, meaning that more experienced teachers and those who were teaching higher levels reported themselves more proficient in the four aspects of language proficiency. Though, the magnitude of the correlation was higher between experience and speaking ($r = .873$) and level of teaching and listening ($r = .881$).

Asking teachers on if they had already taught that level before had a moderate to substantial relationships with the four language skills.

Taking IELTS or TOEFL had significant and substantial relationships with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The direction showed that those who had taken the tests reported themselves more proficient than those who hadn’t taken any tests.

It should be noted that grade had a low positive-significant correlation with listening and writing skills. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would indicate for better listening and writing proficiency. Meanwhile, grade had an insignificant relationship with speaking and reading language

proficiency, meaning that the result of IELTS or TOEFL cannot determine the speaking and reading proficiency of the teachers.

4.8 Significant Predictors for English Teachers' Self-Efficacy

This section shows research results for the Question 7: **"**What are significant predictors of English teachers' sense of efficacy working in English language centers?"

Multiple regression analyses were performed to find the answer. The first multiple regression analysis was performed to find out the background variables which were significant to predict each dimension of the teachers' self-efficacy. Once the significant predictor variables were indicated, they were carried over to the next multiple regression analysis as predictor variables.

Table 4.47 presents the background variables ($p < .05$) which were significant for each sub-category of the self-efficacy beliefs.

Table 4.47: Significant background variables carried over to the next multiple regression analyses

Criterion Variable	Significant Background Variable ($p < .05$)
Student Engagement	Taught that level before ($p < .001$) Grade ($p = .015$) Experience ($p < .001$) Age range ($p < .001$) Gender ($p < .001$)
Classroom management	Taught that level before ($p < .001$) IELTS or TOEFL ($p < .001$) Experience ($p < .001$) Gender ($p < .001$)
Instructional Strategies	Level of teaching ($p < .001$) Grade ($p = .006$) Taught that level before ($p < .001$) Major ($p < .001$) Gender ($p < .001$) Degree ($p < .001$)

Based on Table 4.47 , various sets of background variables were found to predict the degree of self-efficacy significantly. As an example, teacher's age was a significant predictor for student engagement but not for the other sub-categories. The two background characteristics of taught that level before and gender were significant predictors for all three sub-categories of self-efficacy beliefs.

The background variables which were significant were transferred to the next multiple regression analysis as predictors. For instance, regarding the instructional strategies, the six significant background variables (i.e., level of teaching, grade, taught that level before, major, gender, degree) were the predictor variables in the next level of multiple regression. In the next level of multiple regression, the criterion variable was

instructional strategies and the predictors were mechanical and communicative teaching strategies, listening, speaking, reading, writing and the six background variables which were transferred from the earlier multiple regression analysis (see Table 4.47). For the other dimensions of the self-efficacy, the same procedure was performed for the multiple regression analysis.

For student engagement, a significant model emerged ($F_{11, 150}$ = 135.309, p < .001, R^2 = 0.908) by using the simultaneous method. This showed that the model accounted for 91% of the variation in student engagement.

Standardized partial coefficients were examined to evaluate the relative importance of the different predictors in the explanation of the variance in the criterion variable (Table 4.48). As presented in the table, while the teachers writing language proficiency, mechanical teaching strategies, age range, experience, grade, and taught that level before contributed significantly to the model (p < .05), mechanical and communicative teaching strategies, the teachers' gender, listening, speaking, and reading language proficiency do not contribute significantly.

Table 4.48: Partial regression coefficients of the model for student engagement

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	(Beta)		
(Constant)	4.420	.602		7.344	.000
Taught that level before	-1.255	.160	-.302	-7.863	.000
Gender	-.125	.087	-.038	-1.432	.154
Age range	.074	.028	.099	2.651	.009
Experience	.411	.076	.323	5.410	.000
Grade	.144	.053	.089	2.720	.007
Listening	-.056	.087	-.062	-.645	.520
Speaking	.033	.132	.024	.247	.805
Reading	-.055	.149	-.038	-.372	.710
Writing	.944	.134	.608	7.045	.000
Mechanical	-.332	.208	-.182	-1.599	.112
Communicative	-.019	.180	-.013	-.104	.918

The teachers' writing language competence (β = .608, p < .001) and experience (β = .323, p < .001) were stronger predictor variables (p < .001). So, the findings proposed that the teachers who have higher writing language competence perceived to believe that they were more able to engage the student. It was also suggested that the teachers who taught that level before tended to believe more in their capabilities to engage their students in their classrooms.

The same non-background variables and the background variables which were transferred from the earlier multiple regression analysis were entered by using the simultaneous method for the multiple regression analysis with the classroom management dimension of the self-efficacy as the criterion variable (see Table 4.49). Like the student engagement model, a significant model resulted for classroom management ($F_{10, 153}$ = 181.859, p < .001, R^2 = 0.922). About 92% of the variation in managing the English classroom was accounted by the model.

Table 4.49: Partial regression coefficients of the model for classroom management

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	(Beta)		
(Constant)	4.955	.710		6.980	.000
Taught that level before	-.832	.141	-.203	-5.911	.000
IELTS or TOEFL	-.262	.119	-.087	-2.195	.030
Experience	.098	.069	.078	1.429	.155
Gender	-.978	.080	-.300	-12.162	.000
Listening	-.240	.084	-.268	-2.858	.005
Speaking	.981	.120	.713	8.172	.000
Reading	-.566	.136	-.388	-4.172	.000
Writing	.921	.119	.598	7.710	.000
Mechanical	.260	.194	.144	1.344	.181
Communicative	-.293	.165	-.206	-1.774	.078

Table 4.49 shows the relative importance of each predictor variables in explaining the variation of the classroom management score. It was found that the teachers' reported English proficiency in all four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, communicative teaching strategies besides the background variables of gender, taught that level before, taking IELTS or TOEFL were all significant predictors for classroom management ($p < .05$). Speaking proficiency ($\beta = .713$, $p < .001$) was the strongest predictor which was followed by writing proficiency ($\beta = .598$, $p < .001$) among all those variables.

The findings showed that the teachers who had higher English proficiency in the productive skills believed that they were more able in classroom management. While, English teaching experience and the use of mechanical teaching strategies did not contribute significantly to the classroom management dimension of self-efficacy.

The model for instructional strategies was also significant ($F_{12, 149}$ = 96.882, P < .001, R^2 = .886). To analyze, the same non-background and the background variables carried over from the earlier multiple regression analysis were entered as predictor variables and the instructional strategy dimension of self-efficacy was entered as the criterion variable (see Table 4.50). About 89% of the variation in instructional strategy in the English classroom was accounted by the model.

Table 4.50: Partial regression coefficients of the model for Instructional Strategies

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	(Beta)		
(Constant)	-1.551	.814		-1.905	.059
Level of teaching	.003	.097	.003	.031	.976
Grade	-.033	.074	-.017	-.440	.660
Taught that level before	-.595	.210	-.118	-2.837	.005
Major	.085	.042	.076	2.002	.047
Gender	-.408	.123	-.104	-3.326	.001
degree	1.007	.174	.285	5.795	.000
Listening	-.439	.121	-.404	-3.642	.000
Speaking	.235	.184	.141	1.279	.203
Reading	-.517	.214	-.290	-2.419	.017
Writing	2.048	.188	1.092	10.904	.000
Mechanical	.982	.288	.444	3.411	.001
Communicative	-.677	.252	-.392	-2.689	.008

As shown in Table 4.50, nine predictors significantly contributed to the model (p < .05) which are teachers' reported English proficiency in listening (β = -.404, p < .001) , reading (β = -.290, p = .017), and writing (β = 1.092, p < .001), mechanical teaching strategies (β = .444, p = .001), communicative teaching strategies (β = -.392, p = .008), taught that level before (β = -.118, p = .005), major (β = .076, p = .047), gender (β = -.104, p = .001),and degree (β = .285, p < .001). The teachers' reported proficiency in the writing skills was stronger predictor than the other skills. These findings showed

that the teachers who had higher proficiency in the writing skills believed more in their abilities in applying instructional strategies in English classrooms.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 4 reported the findings for the quantitative data analysis. In this research with the assumption of the explanatory correlation method, the quantitative data were used to answer the research questions.

In this part summaries and discussions of the study's findings, implications of the present research and conclusion as well as recommendations for further research will be provided.

5.1 Summaries of the findings and discussion

This research has adopted teachers' sense of efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) as the theoretical framework, and examined language center teachers' confidence in teaching English. Their efficacy in teaching English was examined in relation to the factors that may affect their efficacy in performing English teaching-related tasks such as, their English proficiency, teaching strategies used in the classrooms, and characteristics of the teachers.

In this section, I summarize the results in terms of the research questions and discuss the results by integrating them within a broader theoretical and practical perspective. The discussions are based on the research questions.

5.1.1 Research Question 1

"1. What do teachers report on

a. their current levels of self-efficacy beliefs for teaching English on 12 Likert-type items related to self-efficacy beliefs?

b. their English proficiency level on 21 Likert-type items related to English language proficiency?

c. their making use of teaching strategies on 40 Likert-type items related to teachers' instructional strategy?"

5.1.1.1 Teachers' report on their current levels of self-efficacy beliefs

After modifying the 12-item TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), the self-efficacy questionnaire was developed, making it specific to the context of teaching English in EFL setting of ABC English Language Centers in one of the Middle-East countries (Appendix D).

By employing the 12-item scale, three dimensions of English teachers' self-efficacy were identified: instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement. The present research revealed the same factors as the previously done researches that accepted the TSES (Chacón, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Unlike past studies using the TSES (Chacón, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), Lee (2009) found one more factor, Oral English Language Use, which emphasized context specificity. It means that in a foreign language context, oral target language use is a significant factor in the examination of the self-efficacy of teachers who are teaching the target language.

This research confirmed the unity and stability of the TSES across different studies and different cultures. Some 11 out of the 12 items from the TSES loaded on the same factors as in the previous studies although there have been some changes in the items (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

The English teachers in this research rated their self-efficacy at a relatively high level. They believed they could be efficient in the three dimensions of classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement. The teachers were more efficacious in classroom management (M = 7.54) than in the other dimensions. Meanwhile, they were least confident in their instructional strategies (M = 7.10) (Table 4.15 p. 114).

Teacher self-efficacy levels in this study were higher than in previous studies. For example, Venezuelan middle school English teachers in Chacón's (2002, 2005) study rated their self-efficacy at the "quite a bit" level (M = 7.13 for instructional strategies*;* M = 7.00 for classroom management*;* M = 6.59 for student engagement). Taking a non-subject specific approach, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) have reported similar degrees of self-efficacy beliefs. Besides, Lee (2009) reported lower results in comparison with the others. Her teachers rated their self-efficacy at the "some influence" level (M = 5.53 for student engagement; M = 5.70 for classroom management; M = 5.36 for instructional strategies).

The result of this study supports the literature in which self-efficacy is considered a motivational construct based on self perception of competence rather than actual level of competence. Barnyak and McNelly (2009) further commented that actions and behaviors are better predicted by beliefs rather than actual accomplishments. Meanwhile the findings of this study are supported by the self-efficacy theory of Bandura (1997) who suggested that it is most fruitful when teachers slightly overestimate their actual teaching skills.

Before comparing the scores reported in different cultures, we should pay attention to some points because cultural biases may possibly affect survey responses (King, Murray, Salomon, & Tandon, 2004). Useful information can be provided based on the reported teacher efficacy levels in this study compared to the others, especially when no studies have been performed in the Middle-East EFL context so far. Regarding teacher efficacy beliefs, the results in this study indicated that the teachers had more confidence in performing the teaching tasks compared to the teachers in previous studies.

The high reported self-efficacy levels for the participants of this study may be due to the fact that the teachers are working in one of the most famous language centers of the country. This language center and all its branches are quite reputable and getting admission to start working there is highly competitive and not just anyone can be a teacher there. Having the position of English teacher in ABC Language Center gives enough confidence to the teachers to claim to be among the best. This can be a probable speculation for the high levels of self-efficacy of the participants of this study compared to the other studies.

In sum, the participants in this research describe themselves as very effective. In particular, they reported feeling more confident in classroom management.

5.1.1.2 Teachers' report on their English proficiency level

The present research employed self-assessment survey of teachers to examine their English proficiency levels. This research found that the teachers' proficiency levels were higher in writing skills compared to the other skills of listening, speaking and reading. Based on the value of Mean/Max, it was concluded that the participants were stronger in writing skills (.82) and weaker in Listening skills (.63). So, for the participants of this research the order of Language skills from the strongest to the

weakest was Writing (.82), reading (.77), speaking (.73), and listening (.63) respectively (Table 4.22, p. 120).

This result supports the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) of Cummins (1980) which is the type of language proficiency needed to read textbooks, to participate in dialogue and debate, and to respond to writing tests. CALP relies heavily on oral explanation of abstract or decontextualized ideas such as classroom lectures and textbook reading assignments.

Besides that, the results of this study partly support Lee's (2009) study in that the teachers' proficiency levels in receptive skills of listening and reading were higher than for productive skills of speaking and writing. Using another instrument, Park (2006) also found that the productive skills of the Korean secondary English teachers were lower than their receptive skills.

Meanwhile, Chacon's (2002) study revealed low means for self-reported language deficiencies particularly in listening and speaking. Furthermore, findings showed a positive significant correlation between speaking, listening and Personal Teaching Efficacy. This suggested that those teachers who reported being more proficient in English language skills had higher sense of efficacy. English language deficiencies in speaking were mentioned as a factor affecting teachers' confidence to teach oral English.

It was also shown that the four skills were related and the correlation among the skills was relatively high and significant.

A likely reason for the teachers' lower proficiency in listening and speaking skills in this research could be the English education that the teachers had as students. English education in the EFL context of this research emphasized grammar and reading comprehension, not listening or speaking (Kwon, 2000). Meanwhile, in the EFL setting

of this study, both the students and the teachers did not have the chance to speak or listen to English in their daily lives or to communicate with the others.

English is not used in daily interactions, but both the students and the teachers can easily get access to writing and reading English books (Park, 2006). Hence the teachers reported feeling less competent in listening and speaking skills than in their reading and writing skills.

In sum, participants perceived themselves more proficient in writing skills and less proficient in listening skills.

5.1.1.3 Teachers' report on their making use of teaching strategies

When means for mechanical and communicative teaching strategies were compared with a Paired Sample *t*-test, it was found that the difference between both types of strategies was statistically significant. The mean of mechanical strategies was higher (Mean = 3.94) than the mean of the communicative strategies (Mean = 3.84). In other words, mechanical strategies were reported to be predominantly used by the participants to help the students learn the instructional objectives in English (Table 4.34, p. 129).

This supports the rote learning of Ausubel (1963) which is a kind of learning where the subject is learnt without making connection to the other subjects and so it is forgotten rapidly. However, rote learning which is repeated many times (like the multiplication table) is not forgotten.

In this Middle Eastern country English is a mandatory subject from the age of 12, at the time students are attending middle school. The students will have English class for 4 to 6 hours a week. In the light of the above result, it may be argued that one reason graduates from high school do not seem to acquire communicative competence stems from the fact that they are mostly taught under the mechanical teaching strategies.

That can explain why the participants are quite strong in reading and writing but lack proficiency in listening and speaking language skills and it seems they still continue applying more mechanical teaching strategies in their classrooms. But the teachers of ABC Language Center are supposed to employ more of the communicative teaching strategies in their classrooms than mechanical ones and they are supposed to make the students more involved through communicative language teaching. This result gives the alert to the supervisors to keep an eye on the actual happenings in the classrooms.

Besides, the correlation between the two categories of communicative and mechanical was checked. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 which was significant and considered high. It meant that the two categories of Instructional Strategies were highly correlated (Table 4.39, p. 134).

In sum, the English teacher participants of this research made more use of mechanical strategies than communicative ones while teaching in their classrooms.

5.1.2 Research Question 2

"What is the relationship between English language center teachers' reported proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies?"

By considering Davis's (1971, mentioned in Lee, 2009, p. 78) criteria, the four dimensions of the English language proficiency (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and two dimensions of teaching strategies (mechanical, communicative) very highly and positively related with each other. Speaking and communicative instructional strategies had the strongest relationship (r = .895), while listening and mechanical instructional strategies had the smallest but still very high relationship (r = .837) (Table 4.42, p. 137).

It seems rational that the teachers who are applying communicative instructional strategies should be strong in speaking. This is because activating the learners' communicative competence requires using speaking ability. This result is supported by theory of language proficiency or CALP (Cummins, 1979) and Ausubel's meaningful learning theory (1963) which is portrayed in the theoretical framework of this study (refer to p. 25).

Besides, the teachers' reported English proficiency in four domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing were all positively related with each other. The magnitudes were all very high; speaking and reading had the strongest relationship (r = .947), and speaking and writing had the smallest (yet very high) relationship (r = .868) (Table 4.42, p. 137). Based on the result, it can be deduced that those who are strong in speaking will be strong in reading or those who are weak at speaking will be weak at reading as well. On the other hand, the relationship between speaking and writing shows that being strong in speaking does not imply being strong at writing as the relationship is weak.

Besides, mechanical and communicative instructional strategies had high relationships (r = .960) (Table 4.42, p. 137).

In sum, in this study, the four dimensions of English language proficiency were highly correlated with the two dimensions of teaching strategies. Based on this result, the first null hypothesis was rejected (refer to p.12) and the theoretical framework of this study was supported.

5.1.3 Research Question 3

" What is the relationship between English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and a) reported proficiency in English, b) perceived use of teaching strategies?"

5.1.3.1 Teachers' sense of efficacy and English language proficiency

This research shows that English proficiency levels were highly related to all the dimensions of the self-efficacy (r = .779 to r = .916). In other words, teachers were highly proficient in all four skills of English proficiency and they were able to teach English. This result is in accordance with the theoretical framework of this study (refer to p. 25) and the related literature in which perceived language proficiency is considered an important issue for NNES teachers and has an impact on their professional self-esteem and confidence (Medgyes, 1994; Reeves & Medgyes, 1994; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

The results of this study confirms the previously done studies which reported a significant relationship between self-efficacy in teaching English and English proficiency (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Kim, 2001; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001).

English proficiency levels were strongly related to student engagement (r = .811 to .916) compared to classroom management (r = .800 to .880) and instructional strategy (r = .779 to .898) dimensions (Table 4.43, p. 139). This meant that those who had sufficient English language proficiency believed they could perform tasks related to student engagement more than tasks associated with classroom management and instructional strategy.

Such findings seem plausible as, for the context of this study; tasks on student engagement are as English language-specific as those of instructional strategies in the classroom. For an English-only class, as in this study, the teachers cannot depend on their native language in order to handle disruptive student behaviors of the students or increase student motivation to learn English. English is the only medium of communication.

In sum, this research supports those researches that have demonstrated a significant relationship between knowledge of English and teacher efficacy (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Kim, 2001; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001). Increasing English proficiency can also improve teacher efficacy or confidence in teaching English. Consequently, the second null hypothesis of this study was rejected too (refer to p. 12).

5.1.3.2 Teachers' sense of efficacy and teaching strategies

Regarding the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and teaching strategies, very high positive relationships were found between the three sub-categories of self-efficacy and the two dimensions of teaching strategies. This result is supported by self-efficacy theory. In Bandura's words, teachers' sense of efficacy is reciprocally determined for it affects teachers' behavior and pedagogical actions as well as their perceptions of the consequences of such actions.

The strongest relationship was between student engagement and communicative teaching strategies (r = .830) which was considered very high. The weakest relationship was between instructional strategy and mechanical teaching strategies (r = .791) which was still very high (Table 4.43, p. 139). The teachers who engaged students more applied more of communicative strategies than mechanical. This result is quite plausible, as communicative strategies might engage students more than mechanical ones, as supported by Ausubel's (1963) theory of meaningful learning.

Moreover, student engagement had a stronger relationship with teaching strategy dimensions (r =.801, .830) than classroom management (r = .797, .816) and instructional strategy (r = .791 to .796) (Table 4.43, p. 139). It can be concluded that teachers who are applying the teaching strategies, either mechanical or communicative,

can perform tasks related to student engagement more than classroom management and instructional strategy.

In sum, three dimensions of self-efficacy had high correlations with the two dimensions of teaching strategies in this study. So the second null hypothesis was rejected (refer to p. 12).

5.1.4 Research Question 4

"What is the relationship between English teachers' background characteristics and a) self-efficacy beliefs, b) reported proficiency in English, and c) perceived use of teaching strategies?"

5.1.4.1 Teachers' background characteristics and sense of efficacy in teaching English

Overall, the correlations were significant and ranged from low (r = .202) to very high (r = .844) (Table 4.44, p. 141). Based on the result of this study, the third null hypothesis was rejected (refer to p. 12).

Gender: The teachers' gender had a stronger relationship with classroom management (r = .486, p < .001) than instructional strategies (r = .343, p < .001) or student engagement (r = .273, p < .001) but the magnitude was moderate, following Davis (1971, mentioned in Lee, 2009, p. 78). The direction of the correlations indicated that male teachers considered themselves more efficacious than females in all three sub-categories of self-efficacy and they were more confident in classroom management than females. However, Chacon (2002, 2005) and Lee (2009) found no correlation between gender and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Table 4.44, p. 141).

Age: Age had significant and substantial correlations with student engagement (r = .668, p < .001), classroom management (r = .600, p < .001), and instructional strategy (r = .584, p < .001) but the magnitude was the highest for student engagement. The correlations showed that the older teachers were more confident in applying the dimensions of self-efficacy in the English classroom (Table 4.44, p. 141).

Lee (2009) found a negative relationship between age and instructional efficacy, which means that older teachers were less confident in implementing instructional strategies. On the other hand, Chacon (2002, 2005) suggested that age did not seem to have an impact on Venezuelan EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Highest degree earned: A positive relationship was found between the highest degree earned and all dimensions of the teacher efficacy. This meant that the teachers, who were teaching the higher levels, were more confident in applying instructional strategies, implementing classroom management, and engaging students in the English classrooms. However, the relationship was stronger and substantial with instructional strategy (r = .584, p < .001). It seemed plausible, as the teachers who have higher degrees such as master or PhD might be more familiar with instructional strategies and would apply more strategies than the others in their English classrooms (Table 4.44, p. 141).

Lee's (2009) findings confirmed the result of this research although she found a very low positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and the highest degree earned.

Major: Similar to highest degree earned, major had the highest correlation with instructional strategy (r = .584, p < .001). Based on the result it could be concluded that those who majored in English reported themselves more efficacious in applying instructional strategy, classroom management, and engaging the student respectively (Table 4.44, p. 141). This result completely supports Lee's (2009) study. Among her

variables, majoring in English had significant positive relationships with all dimensions of teacher self-efficacy.

Teaching experience: Also, experience in teaching English had positive and high relationships with the subcategories of teacher efficacy. Meaning that the more experienced the teachers, the more efficacious they considered themselves to be. Though the correlation was stronger with student engagement (r = .834, p < .001); it meant that more experienced teachers engage students more than less experienced ones (Table 4.44, p. 141).

Lee (2009) reported a negative relationship between experience in teaching English and self-efficacy beliefs. She found that those having more experience in teaching felt less confident. In contrast, Chacon's (2002, 2005) studies reported that experience in teaching English was not systematically related with English teachers' self-efficacy.

Level of teaching: The level of teaching had high positive relationships with sub-categories of teacher efficacy. The higher the level of teaching, the more efficacious teachers were in engaging the students. The correlation was very high (r = .844, p < .001) (Table 4.44, p. 141). This result confirmed those in Lee's (2009) study. Having experience as a specialist teacher was significantly related with all dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs. However, the relationships were beyond the negligible level only with instructional strategies (r = .18).

Taught that level before: Asking teachers whether they had taught that level before had negative results. It meant that those who had the experience of teaching that level before reported themselves more efficacious. The correlation was higher with student engagement and the degree was substantial (r = .672, p < .001). So, it could be concluded that those teachers who had already taught that level before were more

confident in engaging students, compared to those who had not already taught that level before (Table 4.44, p. 141).

IELTS or TOEFL: Taking IELTS or TOEFL had negative correlations with the three dimensions of self-efficacy. It meant that those who had taken the tests considered themselves more efficacious than those who had not taken any one of the tests before. The correlations were substantial. It was noted that the correlation was higher with student engagement (r = .531) than the other aspects of teachers' self-efficacy; classroom management (r = .522) and instructional strategy (r = .514) (Table 4.44, p. 141).

Grade: It was noted that Grade had a low positive-significant correlation with all aspects of self-efficacy. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would result in higher self-efficacy (Table 4.44, p. 141).

5.1.4.2 Teachers' background characteristics and teaching strategies in teaching English

Almost all the correlations were significant and the magnitude ranged from low (r = .184) to very high (r = .833) (Table 4.45, p. 144). According to this result, the third null hypothesis was rejected (refer to p.12).

Gender: Gender had significant but low relationship with both mechanical (r = .184, p = .018) and communicative teaching strategies(r = .235, p = .002). The direction was negative, meaning that men tended to apply teaching strategies more than women. Moreover, male teachers preferred to use communicative strategies more than mechanical ones (Table 4.45, p. 144).

Age: Age had significant and substantial relationship with both dimensions of teaching strategies. It was shown that the older the teacher, the more the use of teaching strategies in the English classrooms (Table 4.45, p. 144).

Highest degree earned: Based on the result, it could be concluded that having higher degrees of educations (Master or PhD) helped the teachers to use more teaching strategies in the classrooms. The magnitude was substantial following Davis's criteria (Table 4.45, p. 144). So it could be concluded that having higher degrees did not highly affect the kind of strategies used in the classroom.

Major: Major had positive substantial relationship with mechanical (r = .516, p < .001) and communicative strategies (r = .566, p < .001). The direction was positive, meaning that those who were majored in English reported making more use of teaching strategies. This result was understandable, as those who majored in English would be more familiar with the kind of useful strategies in the English classrooms (Table 4.45, p. 144).

Teaching experience and level of teaching: The results showed that experience and the level of teaching had significantly high correlations with the dimensions of teaching strategies. It could be inferred that the teachers who had more experience and were teaching the higher levels were applying more teaching strategies in their classrooms, though the magnitude of communicative teaching strategies was higher (r = .826, p < .001 with experience, r = .879, p < .001 with level of teaching) than for mechanical ones (r = .800, p < .001 with experience, r = .833, p < .001 with level of teaching) (Table 4.45, p. 144).

Taught that level before: Moreover, it was shown that the teachers who had already taught that level before were using more teaching strategies in their classes. The magnitude was higher for communicative strategies (r = .632, p < .001) than mechanical ones (r = .612, p < .001). It meant that teachers who had the experience of

teaching that level before applied more communicative strategies in their classes than mechanical ones (Table 4.45, p. 144).

IELTS or TOEFL: Taking IELTS or TOEFL also had significantly substantial relationship with both dimensions of teaching strategies. The direction was negative, meaning that those who had taken any one of the tests before were applying the strategies more in their classrooms compared to those who had not taken any one of the tests before (Table 4.45, p. 144).

Grade: It was noted that grade had a low positive-significant correlation with mechanical teaching strategies. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would result in more use of mechanical teaching strategies. Meanwhile, grade had an insignificant relationship with communicative teaching strategies, meaning that the result of IELTS or TOEFL cannot determine the communicative teaching strategies used in the classrooms (Table 4.45, p. 144).

5.1.4.3 Teachers' background characteristics and English language proficiency

Almost all the correlations were significant and ranging from low to high magnitude (Table 4.46, p. 146), so the third null hypothesis was rejected (refer to p. 12).

Gender: Gender had a low relationship with all dimensions of language proficiency, except with writing. Gender was moderately related with writing ability of the teachers. The direction showed that men were more proficient than women in all aspects of language proficiency (Table 4.46, p. 146)

Age: Age was substantially and positively related with the four dimensions of language proficiency. Older teachers reported themselves as more proficient in all

aspects of language proficiency. The magnitude showed that those who were older were better in their writing skills (r = .65, p < .001) (Table 4.46, p. 146).

This result goes against Lee's (2009) study in which she reported that older teachers rated their own levels of English proficiency lower.

Highest degree earned: Concerning the degree earned, teachers who had higher degrees considered themselves more proficient than those who did not. The relationship was much stronger with reading skills. Highly educated teachers were reported to be more proficient in reading (Table 4.46, p. 146).

Major: Concerning the teacher's major of study, those who had majored in English reported themselves more proficient in the four skills of language proficiency. The magnitudes of the correlations showed moderate to substantial relationships (r = .468 with speaking, r = .519 with listening, r = .546 with writing and r = .555 with reading). The relationship was stronger with the reading dimension of language proficiency (Table 4.46, p. 146)

This result confirms Lee's (2009) study, in which a positive relationship was found between English proficiency levels and majoring in English education.

Teaching experience and level of teaching: Experience and the level of teaching had significant and high correlations with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The direction was positive, meaning that more experienced teachers and those who were teaching higher levels reported themselves more proficient in the four aspects of language proficiency. The magnitude of the correlation, however, was higher between experience and speaking (r = .873) and level of teaching and listening (r = .881) (Table 4.46, p. 146).

In contrast, Lee suggested a negative but significant relationship between experience in teaching English and English language proficiency. It was shown that the teachers with longer experience in teaching English rated their levels of English

proficiency lower. Besides, she found a positive relationship between English proficiency level and experience in teaching English as a specialist.

Taught that level before: The question of whether teachers had already taught that level before had moderate to substantial relationships with the four language skills (Table 4.46, p. 146)

IELTS or TOEFL: Taking IELTS or TOEFL had significant and substantial relationships with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The direction showed that those who had taken the tests reported themselves more proficient than those who had not taken any tests (Table 4.46, p. 146).

Grade: It should be noted that grade had a low positive-significant correlation with listening and writing skills. Although the correlation value was low, having higher grades in IELTS or TOEFL would indicate for better listening and writing proficiency. Meanwhile, grade had an insignificant relationship with speaking and reading language proficiency, meaning that the result of IELTS or TOEFL cannot determine the teachers' speaking and reading proficiency (Table 4.46, p. 146).

In sum all the background variables of this research had low to very high significant correlations with teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teaching strategies, and English language proficiency.

5.1.5 Research Question 5

"What are significant predictors of English teachers' self-efficacy working in English language centers?"

English proficiency and teaching strategies were the significant predictors of teacher efficacy beliefs (refer to p. 148). This result supports the theoretical framework of this study.

This finding is in accord with Chacón (2002, 2005). As for personal teaching efficacy, speaking was the significant predictor and for general teaching efficacy, reading had a significant role. On the other hand, Shim (2001) reported different results. In his study, none of the language skills were significant predictors of English teachers' self- efficacy beliefs. Shim found that the teachers who had low efficacy were more proficient in the speaking skills compared with the teachers who had high efficacy. So he suggested duplicating the study again to check how language proficiency and a teacher's sense of efficacy are related. Given the results of this research and Chacón's study, Shim's results seemed unexpected and it could be the result of measuring teacher self-efficacy by a non-subject specific approach.

Based on Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs are highly domain-specific. So, in teacher efficacy beliefs, teachers evaluate their perceptions of their teaching competence considering the anticipated teaching tasks required of them in their specific context (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 220). Considering that, English teachers' self-efficacy can be better checked by questioning them on their beliefs about their capabilities to perform the required tasks in the class as an English teacher.

In this study, English proficiency was a significant predictor of teacher efficacy for classroom management. The productive skills of speaking and writing were stronger predictors than receptive skills of reading and listening (Table 4.49, p. 152).

In contrast to classroom management, only writing skill was the significant predictor of student engagement; listening, reading, speaking skills were not significant predictors of student engagement dimension of English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Table 4.48, p. 151).

However, only listening, reading and writing were significant predictors of instructional strategies and speaking ability was not a significant predictor of efficacy for instructional strategies (Table 4.50, p. 153). This finding deserves attention because

it might show that teachers assume that the ability in English speaking is not necessary in instructional strategies. Since the context of the study is EFL, the teachers may get the help of the students' mother-tongue to explain the instructional strategies in their classrooms.

It should be noted that in this research writing skill was the strongest predictor of all dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs. This result is plausible, as in the EFL context of this research more emphasis is on writing and reading skills of English language proficiency during the years of middle and high school education.

Teaching strategies were also the significant predictors of English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Both mechanical and communicative teaching strategies were significant predictors of the instructional strategies dimension of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (refer to p. 153). This seems quite rational, as the teachers' beliefs on their ability to use instructional strategies ultimately means using mechanical and/or communicative teaching strategies while teaching.

Only communicative teaching strategies were the significant predictors of efficacy for classroom management in contrast to efficacy for instructional strategies (Table 4.49, p. 152).

However, mechanical teaching strategies were just significant predictors of student engagement. This means that in this research teachers get more use of mechanical teaching strategies in order to get students engaged in the classroom activities (Table 4.48, p. 151).

In sum, English proficiency, teaching strategies and some of the background characteristics were significant predictors of English teacher self-efficacy beliefs in this study.

5.2 Implications of the Study

In this section, I discuss the implications based on the findings of the study to enhance the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English. The findings of the present study provide important insights into the effect of language proficiency and teaching strategies on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In light of the findings of the present study, some theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings are discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1 Theoretical implications

This study provides evidence for Bandura's self-efficacy theory, Gagne's theory of instruction, and Canale and Swain's Communicative competence theory and their extension to teacher's self-efficacy in teaching English in the foreign language context that suggests language proficiency and teaching strategies affect teacher's self-efficacy beliefs.

The English teachers in this research assessed their self-efficacy at the high level. Efficacy in classroom management, and students' engagement was higher than for instructional strategies. Their relatively low confidence in performing teaching tasks in connection with instructional strategies in an English class shows that the teachers should be supported in improvement.

Meanwhile, we should remember that the efficacy in instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement were at high levels in this study. In fact, the results of this research were higher than in the previous studies in this field such as Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's TSES (2001). This suggests that in this

research the teachers felt more efficacious in performing English teaching tasks in the EFL language center.

Based on the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002), the beliefs that we have on our ability to accomplish a task can predict how we perform much better than what we really achieve. This has been validated in the field of education based on the research on teacher self-efficacy and it was shown that teacher's self-efficacy has a strong influence on different aspects of teaching and learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006).

Based on all these findings on teacher's self-efficacy, it is important to make teachers ready to have strong positive beliefs about their ability to teach English in the EFL language centers. Therefore, the high self-efficacy levels of teachers in this research are so promising but there may still be room for some more improvements.

5.2.2 Pedagogical implications

To improve English teacher's efficacy levels, we should remember the findings of the present research. This research found that teachers' English proficiency (especially writing skill domain) and teaching strategies used in the English classrooms (mechanical and communicative) were significant predictors of English teaching efficacy. As a result, we can improve teachers' confidence in teaching English by improving their language proficiency and for sure applying more mechanical and communicative teaching strategies. This supports the theoretical framework of this study, as it was assumed that teaching strategy and language proficiency will affect the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

While in the TESOL field, language proficiency and self-efficacy were related without having any empirical data support, the present research gives research evidence to support the relationship in an EFL context.

Therefore, if we improve either language proficiency of the teachers or their use of teaching strategies, the pedagogical implication is this would increase teacher's self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English.

5.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Studies

Adopting the descriptive correlational design (Creswell, 2008), the present research has investigated English language center teachers' self-efficacy, level of proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies. It has also looked into the association between teachers' self-efficacy with factors including their reported level of proficiency in English, their perceived use of teaching strategies, and teacher characteristics.

Some limitations have been identified in this study which are:

First, this study was mainly based on the self-report measurements of teachers' conceptions on their levels of self-efficacy, language proficiency and teaching strategies used in the classrooms. Future studies should bear this limitation in mind and try to apply qualitative measures as well, such as interviews with a selected number of teachers from different self-efficacy levels. Class observation is another possibility which should be considered too.

Second, to measure the language proficiency of the participants of this study, the teachers self-reported their conceptions on their levels of English proficiency and the actual level of their proficiency was not checked. Further studies can measure the real level of teacher proficiency by applying any one of the TOEFL or IELTS exams and

comparing their results with their self-perceived conceptions and investigate whether any relationship does exist or not.

Third, the participants of this study self-reported the kinds of strategies they used in their classrooms. Further studies are recommended to observe the classes and see if the teachers are applying the strategies they reported in their classrooms and see if any relationship exists between the teachers' perceptions and their actual practice in the classrooms.

As a study based on the idea of teacher self-efficacy in teaching English in the EFL language center, this research gives some directions for future research:

1. As noted in the literature, teachers' perceived efficacy is a multifaceted construct that varies across tasks and contexts where teachers do their teaching. Additional research needs to be conducted to assess teachers' capabilities to teach English as a situated activity immersed in a sociocultural milieu. It would be useful to explore teachers' perspectives through additional studies that provide in-depth understanding of how teachers' self-efficacy influences their actions and decision-making in planning and conducting lessons. Observations of teaching performance, teaching techniques as well as multiple interviews should be used as another source of data to explore teachers' self-efficacy and the teaching of foreign languages, English and others.

2. The suggestion is to replicate the study with different participants from English language center teachers. When this is done, the results of this research on the relations of efficacy in teaching English with English proficiency and teaching strategies will be comparable with the future studies.

3. To see how English teaching efficacy is formed, much research is needed (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). In this study, English proficiency and the teaching strategies significantly predicted English teaching confidence. Exactly how

these two factors shape the confidence in teaching English has remained unanswered. Four sources of efficacy beliefs, namely mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousals should be focused on in future research (Bandura, 1997; Labone, 2004).

4. Further studies are required to determine the levels of English proficiency needed for language center teachers to teach English. Apart from extensive needs analyses, future research needs to make in-depth observations of the actual English classes in different settings and contexts.

5. Given that this research was based exclusively on self-reported data, additional research is needed that could include qualitative data on teachers' perceived efficacy in teaching English as a foreign language using independent measures to investigate the relationship on this variable and student outcomes (e.g., ability to speak English as measured by purposeful sampling interviews). This type of study is needed to determine if teachers' sense of efficacy correlates in statistically significant ways with student learning of EFL in certain contexts (e.g., language centers in EFL context).

6. Based on the result of this study, the teachers reported more use of mechanical teaching strategies than the communicative ones. This result is a kind of alert to the supervisors and the management of the ABC Language Center. As the educational system in the context of this study is more based on the mechanical than communicative teaching, so the learners are mostly encountered with the routine learning of the language, although their reason for attending the language center is to be educated in the communicative way of learning language. If the students are still going to be educated in a mechanical way, sooner or later they will get demotivated and they will quit learning. Supervisors and managers should take this result seriously and try to ask the teachers to use more of communicative teaching strategies to keep the learners motivated.

7. More studies are needed to measure the sense of efficacy of TEFL teachers. The questionnaires used in this research were designed to assess self-efficacy in EFL teaching for engagement, management, and instructional strategies. New studies using additional independent variables are recommended to determine predictors of EFL teachers' self- efficacy in the EFL context and elsewhere.

8. Longitudinal studies are also recommended to investigate whether teachers' perceived efficacy to teach EFL varies across time. It is recommended to follow-up teachers to investigate whether or not and how their efficacy changes over the years. This type of study should also include an investigation of student achievement as a variable.

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Appendix A

Part I: Background information

Instruction: This section asks for your personal and professional information. Please respond to each question.

Name ----------

Name of school(s) where you currently work ----------

Branch ----------

Phone (in case needed) ----------

Email address (if you have one) ----------

Code number ----------

(Please choose your own code number. The code number is used in order to keep track of each questionnaire in the data analysis process. Numbers protect the participants' confidentiality.)

1. I am: ____ male _____ female

2. I am in the: _____early 20s _____ mid 20s _____ Late 20s

_____early 30s _____ mid 30s _____ Late 30s

_____early 40s _____ mid 40s _____ Late 40s

_____early 50s _____ mid 50s _____ Late 50s

3. My highest degree earned and specialization:

_____ B.A. in _____

_____ M.A. in _____

_____ Ph.D. in _____

_____ others_____

4. How long have you been teaching English?

---------- Less than 1 year

---------- 1-3 years

---------- 4-6 years

---------- 7-10 years

---------- More than 10 years.

5. Which level are you currently teaching? (More than one answer can be chosen)

---------- Starter -------- elementary -------- pre-intermediate

-------- intermediate --------advanced --------- upper-advanced

Have you taught these levels before? .....Yes ……No

6. Have you ever studied or traveled in an English-speaking country?

---------- Yes ---------- No

If yes, please specify the country of visit ----------

The reason of your stay ----------

How long did you stay there?

Less than 1 month ----------

1-6 months ----------

6-12 months ----------

More than 1 year ----------

7. Have you ever taken IELTS or TOEFL certificate?

---------- Yes ----------No

If yes, how many times have you taken them? .....

Please specify the **Years** and the **Results** achieved ----------

Appendix B (Pilot study)

Part II: Reported English proficiency

Instruction: in this part you are asked to assess your own proficiency in English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Please choose the correct number from the following answer key that best describes your best judgment about level of proficiency in the following English skills .

Answer key:

1= Strongly Disagree (SD) 2= Disagree(D) 3= Slightly Disagree(SLD)

4= Slightly Agree (SLA) 5= Agree(A) 6 = Strongly Agree (SA)

1. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully. 1 2 3 4 5 6

2. On the telephone, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully.

1 2 3 4 5 6

3. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine. 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker. 1 2 3 4 5 6

5. I understand movies without subtitles. 1 2 3 4 5 6

6. I understand news broadcasts on American television. 1 2 3 4 5 6

7. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.

1 2 3 4 5 6

8. I can give simple biographical information about myself (place of birth, composition of family, early schooling, etc). 1 2 3 4 5 6

9. I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.

1 2 3 4 5 6

10. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.

1 2 3 4 5 6

11. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution). 1 2 3 4 5 6

12. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics. 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed. 1 2 3 4 5 6

14. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.

1 2 3 4 5 6

15. I can read and understand magazine articles, such as *Time and Newsweek*, without using a dictionary. 1 2 3 4 5 6

16. I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary.

1 2 3 4 5 6

17. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary. 1 2 3 4 5 6

18. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English. 1 2 3 4 5 6

19. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.

1 2 3 4 5 6

20. I can write official (business) letters, which convey meaning accurately and which contain relatively few grammatical errors. 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English. 1 2 3 4 5 6

22. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).

1 2 3 4 5 6

23. I can write short research papers. 1 2 3 4 5 6

24. I can select proper words in writing. 1 2 3 4 5 6

25. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge. 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix C (Pilot study)

Part III: Perceived use of instructional strategies

For each of the following statements, please *select the correct choice* from the following *answer key* that best indicates the number of times you use these teaching strategies during one term of English language teaching. For example if you use this strategy almost every session, please select 6 from the following answer key. If you never use this strategy or practice, please select 1.

Answer key:

1= Almost never 2= Only occasionally 3= Sometimes

4= Very often 5= Almost always

Strategy scale:

1. Ask students to take notes during the lesson 1 2 3 4 5

2. Dictate some definitions. If needed translate in their mother tongue 1 2 3 4 5

3. Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained 1 2 3 4 5

4. Summarize the content of a book orally. If necessary L1 will be used 1 2 3 4 5

5. Invite students to ask questions during an explanation 1 2 3 4 5

6. Introduce the topic covered using a problem-solving strategy, i.e. by asking questions 1 2 3 4 5

7. Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Students work together in groups of two or three 1 2 3 4 5

9. Ask students to read aloud from the book 1 2 3 4 5

10. Errors are tolerated and will be notified later 1 2 3 4 5

11. Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know 1 2 3 4 5

12. Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson 1 2 3 4 5

13. Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab 1 2 3 4 5

14. At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing 1 2 3 4 5

15. Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students. 1 2 3 4 5

16. Summarize the concepts taught. Use L1 to clarify the concepts 1 2 3 4 5

17. Ask students to write down key words on the topic described 1 2 3 4 5

18. The students discuss what they have learned in the class. 1 2 3 4 5

19. Introduce a new topic using familiar examples 1 2 3 4 5

20. Create links between different topics and subjects 1 2 3 4 5

21. Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs. 1 2 3 4 5

22. Activate students' learning through playing English games 1 2 3 4 5

23. Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones, in case of need will get the help of L1 1 2 3 4 5

24. Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation 1 2 3 4 5

25. Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning 1 2 3 4 5

26. At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught 1 2 3 4 5

27. Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself

1 2 3 4 5

28. Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question 1 2 3 4 5

29. Organize working groups during the lessons 1 2 3 4 5

30. Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson. 1 2 3 4 5

31. Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books 1 2 3 4 5

32. Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes 1 2 3 4 5

33. Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on)

1 2 3 4 5

34. The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem. 1 2 3 4 5

35. Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book

1 2 3 4 5

36. A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore it.

1 2 3 4 5

37. Build logical chains using temporal links 1 2 3 4 5

38. Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs 1 2 3 4 5

39. Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain 1 2 3 4 5

40. Note rules, formulas or properties on the blackboard 1 2 3 4 5

41. Provide summaries of topics to be taught, e.g. outline chart 1 2 3 4 5

42. Discuss study topics during lessons 1 2 3 4 5

43. Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized. 1 2 3 4 5

44. Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic 1 2 3 4 5

45. The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class. 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D

Part IV: English teacher self-efficacy beliefs

Instruction: this part contains statements about the kinds of difficulties you may face when teaching English in your classrooms. Answer the questions based on your usual way of teaching English. Please use the answer key below and circle the number that best expresses your opinion about each of the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Nothing/ Not at all		very little		some influence		quite a bit		a great deal

1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in your English class?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in English?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. How much can you do to help your students value learning English?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6. How much can you do to get students to follow classroom rules in your English class? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your English class? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students in your English class? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies in your English class?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when your English students are confused?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your English classroom?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Appendix E (Main study)

Part II: Reported English proficiency

Instruction: in this part you are asked to assess your own proficiency in English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Please choose the correct number from the following **answer key** that best describes your best judgment about level of proficiency in the following English skills .

Answer key:

1= Strongly Disagree (SD) **2= Disagree(D)** **3= Slightly Disagree(SLD)**

4= Slightly Agree (SLA) **5= Agree(A)** **6 = Strongly Agree (SA)**

1. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine. 1 2 3 4 5 6

2. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker. 1 2 3 4 5 6

3. I understand movies without subtitles. 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. I understand news broadcasts on American television. 1 2 3 4 5 6

5. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.

1 2 3 4 5 6

6. I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.

1 2 3 4 5 6

7. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.

1 2 3 4 5 6

8. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution). 1 2 3 4 5 6

9. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics. 1 2 3 4 5 6

10. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed. 1 2 3 4 5 6

11. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.

1 2 3 4 5 6

12. I can read and understand magazine articles, such as *Time and Newsweek*, without using a dictionary. 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary.

1 2 3 4 5 6

14. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary. 1 2 3 4 5 6

15. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English. 1 2 3 4 5 6

16. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.

1 2 3 4 5 6

17. Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English. 1 2 3 4 5 6

18. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).

1 2 3 4 5 6

19. I can write short research papers. 1 2 3 4 5 6

20. I can select proper words in writing. 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.

1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix F (Main study)

Part III: Perceived use of instructional strategies

For each of the following statements, please *select the correct choice* from the following *answer key* that best indicates the number of times you use these teaching strategies during one term of English language teaching. For example if you use this strategy almost every session, please select 6 from the following answer key. If you never use this strategy or practice, please select 1.

Answer key:

1= Almost never 2= Only occasionally 3= Sometimes 4= Very often 5= Almost always

Strategy scale:

1. Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained 1 2 3 4 5

2. Summarize the content of a book orally. If necessary L1 will be used 1 2 3 4 5

3. Invite students to ask questions during an explanation 1 2 3 4 5

4. Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously. 1 2 3 4 5

5. Students work together in groups of two or three 1 2 3 4 5

6. Errors are tolerated and will be notified later 1 2 3 4 5

7. Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know 1 2 3 4 5

8. Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson 1 2 3 4 5

9. Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab 1 2 3 4 5

10. At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing 1 2 3 4 5

11. Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students. 1 2 3 4 5

12. Summarize the concepts taught. Use L1 to clarify the concepts 1 2 3 4 5

13. Ask students to write down key words on the topic described 1 2 3 4 5

14. The students discuss what they have learned in the class. 1 2 3 4 5

15. Introduce a new topic using familiar examples 1 2 3 4 5

16. Create links between different topics and subjects 1 2 3 4 5

17. Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs. 1 2 3 4 5

18. Activate students' learning through playing English games 1 2 3 4 5

19. Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones, in case of need will get the help of L1 1 2 3 4 5

20. Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation 1 2 3 4 5

21. Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning 1 2 3 4 5

22. At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught 1 2 3 4 5

23. Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself

1 2 3 4 5

24. Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question 1 2 3 4 5

25. Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson. 1 2 3 4 5

26. Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books 1 2 3 4 5

27. Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes 1 2 3 4 5

28. Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on)

1 2 3 4 5

29. Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book

1 2 3 4 5

30. The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem. 1 2 3 4 5

31. A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore it.

1 2 3 4 5

32. Build logical chains using temporal links 1 2 3 4 5

33. Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs 1 2 3 4 5

34. Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain 1 2 3 4 5

35. Note rules, formulas or properties on the blackboard 1 2 3 4 5

36. Provide summaries of topics to be taught, e.g. outline chart 1 2 3 4 5

37. Discuss study topics during lessons 1 2 3 4 5

38. Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized. 1 2 3 4 5

39. Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic 1 2 3 4 5

40. The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class. 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G

Review of Findings from Investigations of the studies done on Teacher Self-Efficacy (journal articles)

Authors	*Participants*	*Title of the journal*	*Methodology*	*Relevant Findings*
Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, and Ellett (2008)	2373 K-6 teachers (United States)	Measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Development and use of the TEBS-Self	Quantitative	They distinguished between teacher efficacy and teacher self-efficacy beliefs and described a need for theory and research-based measures of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs that were grounded in the context of the classroom. To meet this need, a new measure of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, the Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self), was described by the authors. Principal components analysis results were presented from three independent studies performed in the United States using the TEBS-Self.
Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005)	53 prospective teachers in the Master's of Education initial teaching certification program (United stated)	Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures	Quantitative	Results indicated significant increases in efficacy during student teaching, but significant declines during the first year of teaching. Changes in efficacy during the first year of teaching were related to the level of support received. Perhaps these first-year teachers were discovering that teaching is more than method and strategy, thus the drop in their other efficacy scores.
Moè, Pazzaglia, and Ronconi (2010)	399 K-12 teachers (Italy)	When being able is not enough. The combined value of positive affect and self-efficacy	Quantitative	An indirect relationship between teaching practice and job satisfaction was hypothesized and has been confirmed. Teaching practice, given by self-rated use of strategies and praxes does not affect job

		for job satisfaction in teaching		satisfaction directly - the mediation of positive affect and self-efficacy is required. In other words, for there to be job satisfaction both positive affect and self-efficacy are required. Teaching practice alone is even detrimental to job satisfaction. Teachers should also experience positive affect and feel self-efficacy in order for there to be a beneficial effect on job satisfaction from their perceived teaching well. However, the total effect is also significant. High perceived teaching practice alone is a good thing, but not sufficient to give teachers job satisfaction: feeling well (positive affect plus self-efficacy) is needed.
Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010)	2249 Norwegian teachers in elementary and middle school (Norway)	Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations	Quantitative	They aimed partly to test the factor structure of a recently developed Norwegian scale for measuring teacher self-efficacy and partly to explore relations between teachers' perception of the school context, teacher self-efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, teacher burnout, teacher job satisfaction, and teachers' beliefs that factors external to teaching puts limitations to what they can accomplish. Teacher self-efficacy, collective efficacy and two dimensions of burnout were differently related both to school context variables and to teacher job satisfaction. The study supports the conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy as a multidimensional construct and shows that the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale may be a useful measure of the construct. The results also indicated that teacher self-efficacy and collective teacher efficacy should be conceptualized as different, but correlated constructs. The results reveal that external control should be

				distinguished from both teacher self-efficacy and perceived collective teacher efficacy. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) regarded emotional exhaustion and depersonalization as the central elements of burnout. Emotional exhaustion was most strongly related to time pressure whereas depersonalization was most strongly related to teachers' relations to parents. Job satisfaction was positively related to teacher self-efficacy and negatively related to both dimensions of teacher burnout with emotional exhaustion as the far strongest predictor. Job satisfaction was also related to autonomy, both directly and indirectly. An analysis of both direct and indirect relations reveals that autonomy, time pressure, and teachers' relations to parents stand out as the most important school contextual variables affecting teachers' job satisfaction.
Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong, Huan, Wong, and Georgiou (2009)	1212 teachers from five countries teaching in elementary/ middle schools (n = 709) and secondary schools (n = 502) (Canada, Cyprus, Korea, Singapore, and the United States)	Exploring the validity of a teachers' self-efficacy scale in five countries	Quantitative	The result indicated that the Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) showed convincing evidence of reliability and measurement invariance across the five countries, and the relationship between the TSES and job satisfaction was similar across settings. The study provides general evidence that teachers' self-efficacy is a valid construct across culturally diverse settings and specific evidence that teachers' self-efficacy showed a similar relationship with teachers' job satisfaction in five contrasting settings. The current study confirms that each of the three factors of the TSES is positively related to teachers' job satisfaction in each of the settings explored,

				with consistent correlations between the TSES total and job satisfaction in elementary/middle school and secondary samples in five countries. The results from the study suggest that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy experience greater job satisfaction in a wide variety of school and national settings.
Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, and Malone (2006)	2000 teachers in 75 Italian junior high schools (Italy)	Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level	Quantitative	As expected, previous student's academic achievement predicted subsequent achievement as well as teacher's self-efficacy beliefs, which, in turn, contributed significantly to student's achievement and teacher's job satisfaction. In contrast with researchers' expectations, previous academic achievement did not contribute to teacher's job satisfaction, nor did satisfaction contribute to student's later academic achievement. It is likely that job satisfaction results from evaluative judgments that depend on other sources beyond students' achievement such as on evaluations that crystallize over time through repeated experiences of success and gratification. Furthermore, it is unlikely that teachers derive great satisfaction from students' achievement unless they believe that it depends on their competence.
Saracaloglu, Dinçerb (2009)	251 senior prospective teachers at the Faculty of Education (Turkey)	A study on correlation between self-efficacy and academic motivation of prospective teachers	Quantitative	Results of the study indicated that prospective teachers' levels of sense of efficacy and academic motivation are moderately correlated and there was low but positive relation observed between total academic motivation scores and GPA. The result of the study shows that prospective teachers' both self efficacy and academic motivation scores were not affected by course times

				and grade point average. On the other hand, it has been observed a significant relation between academic motivation scores of the prospective teachers & gender and also between university and prospective teachers' self- efficacy scores. One of the significant findings of the study was that academic motivation, teachers' self-efficacy and GPA of the prospective teachers had a significant relation with each other. As much research shows, self-efficacy influences academic motivation, learning, and achievement.
Uzun, Özkiliç, and Sentürk (2010)	29 teacher candidates in fourth grade studying at Computer Education and Instructional Technologies (CEIT) Department (Turkey)	A case study: Analysis of teacher self-efficacy of teacher candidates	Quantitative	No significant difference was found between teacher self-efficacy perceptions of teacher candidates according to their gender. There was weak relationship between teacher self-efficacy perception of teacher candidates and their general academic achievement. Also there was a high positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy perception and educational software development self-efficacy beliefs of the teacher candidates at CEIT department.
David Chan (2008)	273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers (Hong Kong)	General, collective, and domain-specific teacher self-efficacy among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong	Quantitative	Among the seven domain-specific teacher self-efficacy, teachers seemed to be most confident in teaching highly able students and in guiding and counseling students, and least confident in managing student problems in classrooms and in engaging students to value schooling; there were significant teacher group differences. Specifically, the present findings supported that general, collective, and domain-specific teacher self-efficacy beliefs were distinct and could be assessed independently. Contrary to the conjecture

				that the self-efficacy beliefs of prospective teachers could be unrealistically high and would be adjusted downward with actual teaching experience, this study provided supporting evidence that teacher self-efficacy beliefs, global as well as domain-specific, tend to rise as teachers go through teacher preparation to become novice teachers and more experienced teachers.
Gencera and Cakiroglu (2007)	584 preservice science teachers enrolled in teacher education programs (Turkey)	Turkish preservice science teachers' efficacy beliefs regarding science teaching and their beliefs about classroom management	Quantitative	Data analysis indicated that preservice science teachers generally expressed positive efficacy beliefs regarding science teaching. In addition, results revealed that participants were interventionist on the instructional management dimension, whereas they favored non-interventionist style on the people management dimension of the ABCC inventory. The results also revealed no significant differences between efficacy beliefs of prospective science teachers in terms of gender. In terms of classroom management beliefs, it is interesting to note that no significant differences regarding gender were revealed, neither on the instructional management nor on the people management subscales of the ABCC inventory.
Tschannen-Morana and Woolfolk Hoy (2007)	255 novice and careers teachers (United States)	The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers	Quantitative	In examining the self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers compared to experienced teachers, they found somewhat lower mean self-efficacy beliefs among the novices than among the career teachers. The experienced teachers in their sample were found to have higher self-efficacy beliefs than the novice teachers in two of the three subscales of the TSES: Efficacy for Instructional Strategies and

				Efficacy for Classroom Management. It is interesting, however, that there were no differences between novice and experienced teachers in Efficacy for Student Engagement. Demographic variables such as race and gender were not found to be systematically related to the self-efficacy beliefs of either novice or career teachers. It is of interest that the contextual variable of school setting was unrelated to the self-efficacy beliefs of both novice and career teachers. This study has demonstrated that, compared to career teachers, novice teachers' self-efficacy does seem to be more influenced by contextual factors such as verbal persuasion and the availability of resources. Inputs such as verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and emotional arousal may well be most salient for preservice teachers who lack significant-mastery experiences.
Rastegar and Memarpour (2009)	72 English teachers (Iran)	The relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among Iranian EFL teachers	Quantitative	The results showed that there was a positive significant correlation between perceived emotional intelligence (EI) and self-efficacy. The researchers also found that there was no significant difference among EFL teachers with different genders, ages and teaching experiences concerning their EI and self-efficacy. Therefore, it is suggested that both male and female EFL teachers with different age range and experiences can be successful in teaching.
Küçüktepea (2010)	239 university students from the Department of	A study on preservice English teachers' self-efficacy perceptions	Quantitative	Data were gathered by using the "Teacher Efficacy Scale" and "Tendency towards Academic dishonesty Scale".

	English Language Teaching (Turkey)	and tendency towards academic dishonesty		The results revealed no meaningful difference between tendency for academic dishonesty and self-efficacy perception levels by gender or school type. Additionally, 4th year students had a higher tendency for academic dishonesty than 1st, 2nd and 3rd year students; 1st, 2nd and 3rd year students had higher self-efficacy perception levels than 4th year students; and a weak, negative and meaningful relationship was found between tendency for academic dishonesty and self-efficacy perception levels.
Rahimi and Gheitasi (2010)	10 female teachers of advanced level and 157 homogenized students (Iran)	The interface between English teachers' sense of efficacy and their feedback on learners' writing, and learners' writing achievement	Quantitative	Based on the results, the relationship between English teachers' sense of efficacy and the feedback on form and content of the writings and also those in the form of general comments turned out to be statistically significant. The present research got to the findings with about 87 percent of feedback on form and 3 percent of feedback on content. Whole teachers tended more to direct feedback especially feedback on form. However teachers with high sense of efficacy used some indirect feedback on form. In addition feedback on content was in minority and in most of the parts were through requests for clarification; a little feedback on content was given by the teachers in the high self efficacy group, whereas the low self efficacy group had no feedback on content. In sum the result of this study emphasized the idea that perceived self-efficacy is a strong predictor of behavior, and that the different ways of providing written feedback on the part of the teachers can be originated from their belief on the effectiveness of

				their actions.
İlknur Pekkanli (2009)	67 senior undergraduate students in an English language teaching department (Turkey)	The prospective English language teacher's reflections of self efficacy	Mixed method	Results show that self efficacy beliefs of the students at the ELT department are high and that they seem rather confident about their efficacy. The present research shows that poorer academic achievement can affect the self esteem and confidence of the student teacher. Based on the interview done, it is possible to claim that mentor's behavior directly has as impact on the professional self esteem and confidence of the student teachers. Mentors are also influential in terms of modeling for the student teachers. When a person sees another person accomplish a task, the vicarious experience of observing a model can also have a strong influence on self-efficacy.
Chacon (2005)	100 EFL middle school teachers (Venezuela)	Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela	Mixed method	Results showed that teachers' perceived efficacy was correlated with self-reported English proficiency. In other words, the higher the teachers' perceived efficacy in the language skills (speaking, listening, writing, and reading), the higher their sense of efficacy to motivate students and to design instructional strategies. Results also indicated that teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than efficacy for classroom management and engagement. Statistical analysis showed the participants' tendency towards grammar-oriented strategies. Data from the interviews seem to support quantitative analyses as the majority of interviewees reported using more grammar-oriented strategies (accuracy) than strategies conducive to communication (meaning).

Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009)	89 EFL teachers (Iran)	The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in Language Institutes	Quantitative	Data analysis and statistical calculations revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy. The size of this correlation indicates that generally high levels of EI are related to high levels of teacher efficacy. Three subscales of emotional intelligence – emotional self-awareness, interpersonal-relationship, and problem solving – were found to be good predictors of teacher self-efficacy. On the other hand, it was found that, among the components of EQ, emotional self-awareness is a negative predictor of teacher self-efficacy.

Appendix H

Review of Findings from Investigations of studies done on Teacher Self-Efficacy (unpublished PhD theses)

Authors	***Participants***	***Methodology***	***Relevant Findings***	***Self-Efficacy Measure***
Ayanna C. Cooper (2009)	105 ESL teachers in kindergarten through Grade 5 (northern Georgia)	Quantitative	Most ESL teachers (70%) felt they had sufficient foundation training, 48% desired further training, and that the lowest levels of reported SE were associated with teaching math and science. Results indicated that the greatest influences on teachers' SE scores were age and number of ESL-specific professional development days.	Researcher's self- made questionnaire based on Teacher Efficacy Scale by Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001
Carmen T. Chacon (2002)	100 Venezuelan EFL middle school teachers (Venezuela)	Mixed methods	Results showed that teachers' perceived efficacy was correlated with self-reported English proficiency. Results also indicated that teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than efficacy for management and engagement. With regard to demographic variables, only staff development was found to be positively correlated with participants' self-efficacy for engagement and for instructional strategies. No correlations were found between teachers' perceived efficacy and years of experience. Traveling or studying into English-speaking countries was not associated with the participants' self-efficacy.	Researcher adapted the short form of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

David B. Morris (2010)	144 elementary and middle school teachers (K-12) (Southeastern United States)	Quantitative	Social persuasions and physiological and affective states predicted teachers' overall self-efficacy. Teachers who had more than five years of experience reported more positive and less negative mastery experiences and social persuasions than did those with five or less years of experience. The hypothesized sources did not differ as a function of teachers' level of education. Teaching self-efficacy was weakly and often non-significantly related to positive psychology constructs (i.e., teachers' authenticity, optimism, and invitations). The four hypothesized sources tended to be moderately associated with these variables.	The short form of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)
Irene Walton Turnage (2011)	123 elementary, middle, and high school teachers (north Mississippi)	Mixed methods	Analysis showed that there was no significant difference between teacher efficacy, years of teaching experience, and grade level taught. In addition, there was no significant interaction between the two independent variables, years of teaching experience and grade levels taught.	The modified version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Morgan and Hoy (2001)
Jeanette Ball (2010)	746 K-12 teachers (Southwest Texas)	Quantitative	Significant differences were found between males and females on trust in students, trust in principal, collective efficacy, and student engagement. No significant difference was found between male and female teachers in instructional strategies, classroom management, and trust in colleagues. The results of the MANOVA showed significant differences between trust in colleagues and years of experience. Regarding ethnicity, African Americans had a larger mean difference compared to the other	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001)

			ethnicity groups (Anglo, Hispanic, and other) on both student engagement and collective efficacy. For "teacher certification," no significant differences were found.	
Juana (Patricia) Ordonez-Feliciano (2009)	101 middle school mathematics teachers (Florida)	Quantitative	Results indicated that instructional strategies chosen by teachers with higher self-efficacy differed by frequency of use from those employed by teachers with lower self-efficacy. Teachers with higher TSES scores demonstrated a significantly higher use of problem-based learning, direct instruction, and communication and study skills. Although not significant, it was notable that teachers with higher self-efficacy scores (TSES scores) used manipulative and multiple representations, and collaborative learning, more often than teachers with lower TSES scores during self- reported five period days. Nevertheless, teachers with lower self-efficacy tended to use technology aided instruction more often than teachers with higher self-efficacy.	The short form of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)
Julie Schaefer (2010)	13 general and special elementary education teachers (Wisconsin)	Quantitative	The hypothesis that teacher efficacy can predict teacher attitudes toward inclusion was confirmed. The strongest predictor of teacher efficacy was principal leadership style. The overall school inclusion climate was also found to be related to the principal's leadership style, affecting individual teacher efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management.	The short form of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

Kanisha A. Jimison (2010)	17 self-contained teachers of students with emotional disturbance (southern state of Korea)	Quantitative	Statistical significance was shown between teachers' self-efficacy scores and the percentage of students passing/failing. It was hypothesized that there was no linear correlation of ethnicity, gender, qualification, and years of teaching experience with teacher self-efficacy and the results coincided with the hypothesis.	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001)
Karen K. Wright (2010)	232 elementary, middle, and high school teachers (North Texas Western Washington)	Quantitative	Three significant variables were identified--grade level taught, teacher age, and intrinsic religious orientation. Teacher age and teacher intrinsic religious orientation were the two most important contributors according to a comparison of beta weights. Intrinsic religious orientation contributed to the equation, but it acted as a suppressor variable in the study, having little predictive value by itself but contributing to the predictive value of the model.	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001)
Kristopher Maguire (2011)	12 high school mathematics teachers (Southeastern United States)	Quantitative	Indicated that teacher efficacy significantly predicted student achievement, with the best combination of predictor variables being the subcategories of teacher efficacy in student engagement and teacher efficacy in classroom management combined with teacher age and experience.	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001)
Jeong-Ah Lee 2009	quantitative phase, 1,327 elementary school teachers	Mixed methods	Efficacy for oral English language use was found as an additional dimension of teacher efficacy in teaching English, indicating that in a foreign language context, oral target language	The short form of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

	qualitative phase, semi-structured interviews , 23 teachers classroom observation,5 teachers' English classes (South Korea)		use would be a significant dimension to be considered in examining teachers' self-efficacy in teaching the target language. Also, it was found that teachers' current level of English proficiency and EIL (English as an International Language) attitude toward the English language were the significant predictors for teachers' English teaching-specific efficacy beliefs or confidence.	
Oghwa Ladner (2008)	50 community college mathematics faculty (Southern California)	Mixed methods	The results of the quantitative data reveal that teachers perceive themselves to be highly efficacious. It is evident from this study that high correlations exist within the self-efficacy constructs and the instructional strategy constructs. The high reliabilities and high correlations could be the result of an exaggerated self-perception of the participants. The qualitative data from interviews support the quantitative data; however, a discrepancy is found from the observation data of the six teachers. The instructor's actual instructional practice tends to be less efficacious or less effective than their self-reporting perception of efficaciousness in instructional effectiveness	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001)
Susan M. Romeo (2010)	163 teachers elementary K-6 teachers (suburban Kansas City)	Quantitative	The results of the study did not find strong, positive correlations between the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and the School Professional Staff as Learning Community (SPSLCQ). Not a significant correlation was also found	The long form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy(2001)

			among school location, gender, grade level/content area taught, total number of years as a professional educator, total number of years working at current school and education level and subscales of the TSES (Engage and Management) and the subscales of the SPSLCQ (Interaction, Sharing, Improvement, and Trust) .	
Jae-woo Shim (2001)	106 middle and high school English teacher (Korea)	Quantitative	Factor analytic procedures revealed that Korean teachers of English had two dimensions of efficacy beliefs: personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. Listening, speaking, peer relationship, academic emphasis, classroom management, role-preparedness and teaching satisfaction were the variables that distinguished 3 clusters of highest personal efficacy, highest general efficacy and lowest efficacy from each other. The study did not find a strong relationship between the two variables of teachers' sense of efficacy and their language skills.	Woolfolk and Hoy's (1993) version of Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES)

Appendix I

Review of the findings from investigations of the studies done on the relationship between Teachers' Background Characteristics and Teacher Self-Efficacy (unpublished PhD theses)

The relationship between **teacher age** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Wright (2010)	Teacher age was one of the most important contributors according to a comparison of beta weights.
Lee (2009)	PTE was positively related with age, while Age was negatively related to the Instructional Strategies and Oral English language Use.

The relationship between **gender** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Jimison (2010)	There was no linear correlation of gender with teacher self-efficacy.
Wright (2010)	No relationship was found.
Romeo (2010)	Not a significant correlation was found between gender and subscales of the TSES (Engagement and Management).
Ball (2010)	Significant differences were found between males and females on student engagement. No significant difference was found between male and female teachers in instructional strategies, classroom management.

The relationship between **years of teaching experience** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Turnage (2011)	Analysis showed that there was no significant difference between teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience.
Ordonez-Feliciano (2009)	Teachers with 11-15 years of experience reported greater TSES mean scores than teachers with 16-20 years of experience and those with 20+ years of experience.

Jimison (2010)	There was no linear correlation of years of teaching experience with teacher self-efficacy.
Wright (2010)	No relationship was found.
Romeo (2010)	Not a significant correlation was found between total number of years as a professional educator and subscales of the TSES (Engagement and Management).
Chacon (2002, 2005)	No correlations were found between teachers' perceived efficacy and years of experience.
Morris (2010)	Teachers who had more than five years of experience reported more positive and less negative mastery experiences and social persuasions than did those with five or less years of experience.
Ball (2010)	No significant difference was found between teachers' years of experience and teacher self-efficacy.
Romeo (2010)	A significant relationship was found. The most experienced teachers apparently had high levels of self efficacy regarding student engagement.
Lee (2009)	Another variable that had significant relationships with all of the teacher efficacy dimensions was one's English teaching experience as a specialist teacher.

The relationship between **grade level taught** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	**Relevant Findings**
Turnage (2011)	Analysis showed that there was no significant difference between teacher efficacy and grade level taught.
Wright (2010)	There was a significant difference between teacher efficacy and grade level taught.
Romeo (2010)	Not a significant correlation was found between grade level/content area taught and subscales of the TSES (Engagement and Management).
Lee (2009)	PTE was positively related with elementary school teaching experience while elementary teaching experience was negatively related to the Instructional Strategies and Oral English language Use.

The relationship between **highest level of education achieved** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Ordonez-Feliciano (2009)	Teachers holding a masters degree or higher reported greater TSES mean scores than teachers holding a Bachelors degree. Additionally, teachers with higher degrees scored significantly higher than teachers with a Bachelors degree in efficacy of student engagement.
Romeo (2010)	Not a significant correlation was found between education level and subscales of the TSES (Engagement and Management).
Morris (2010)	The hypothesized sources of teaching self-efficacy did not differ as a function of teachers' level of education.
Lee (2009)	PTE was positively related with highest degree earned.

The relationship between **race/ethnicity** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Ordonez-Feliciano (2009)	Hispanic teachers reported greater self-efficacy mean scores than White, Black, and Other teachers. They also reported the greatest mean scores in the efficacy of student engagement factor, but not in the efficacy in instruction and student management factors.
Jimison (2010)	There was no linear correlation of ethnicity with teacher self-efficacy
Ball (2010)	African Americans had a larger mean difference compared to the other ethnicity groups (Anglo, Hispanic, and other) on both student engagement and collective efficacy.

The relationship between **type of teaching certificate** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	Relevant Findings
Ordonez-Feliciano (2009)	Teachers holding elementary teaching certificates reported greater self-efficacy mean scores than teachers with middle school math certificates. These teachers also reported the greatest mean scores in the efficacy in student engagement and efficacy of instruction factors.
Jimison (2010)	There was no linear correlation between qualification and teacher self-efficacy.

Ball (2010)	No significant differences were found between teacher certification and teacher self-efficacy.
Lee (2009)	Whether or not one had majored/minored in English education was one that had significant positive relationships with all of the dimensions of the teachers' English teaching-specific efficacy.

The relationship between **teacher training courses** and **self-efficacy**:

Authors	**Relevant Findings**
Chacon (2002, 2005)	Staff development was found to be positively correlated with participants' self-efficacy for engagement and for instructional strategies.
Lee (2009)	An unexpected yet highly informative finding was that the teachers' participation in in-service teacher training programs (either at basic or advanced programs), as with PTE, had no significant relationships beyond the negligible level with their English teaching-specific efficacy.

The relationship between **experience travelling or studying abroad** and **self-efficacy:**

Authors	**Relevant Findings**
Chacon (2002, 2005)	Traveling or studying into English-speaking countries was not associated with the participants' self-efficacy.

Appendix J

The list of figures on participants' descriptive characteristics.

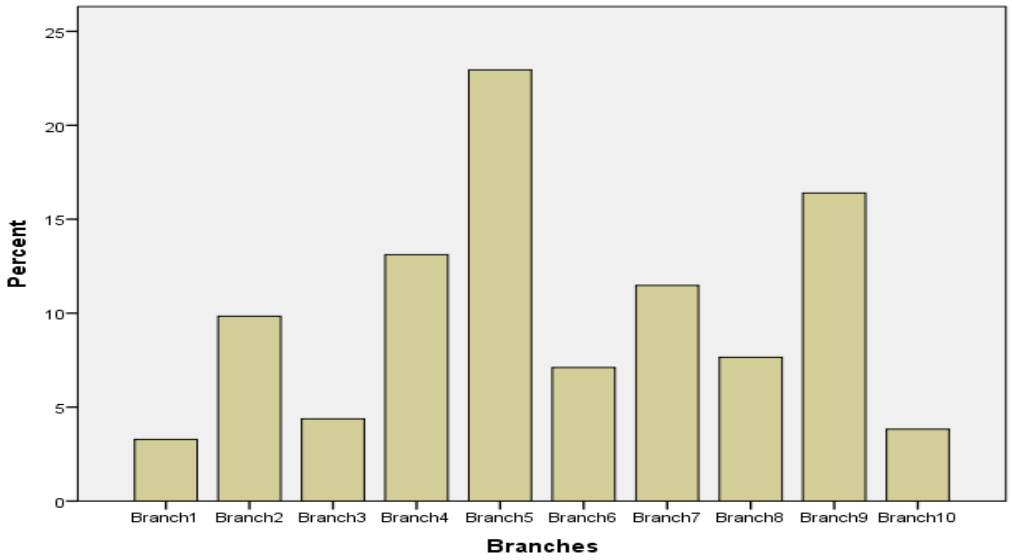

Figure 4.1: Study participants by branch.

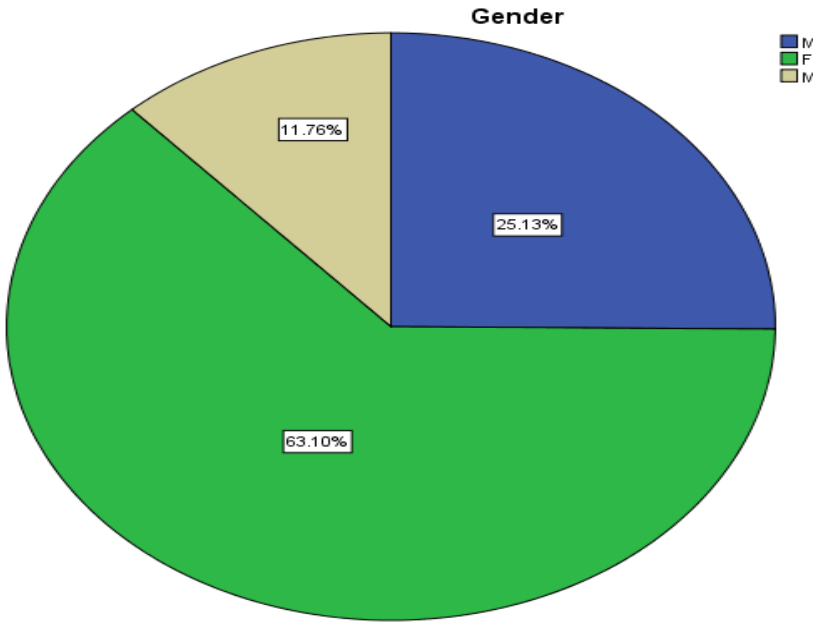

Figure 4.2: Study participants by gender.

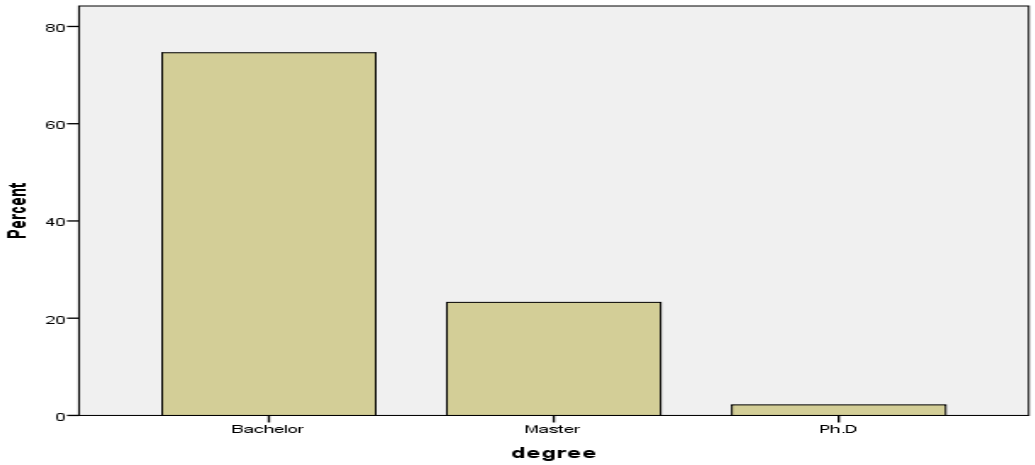

Figure 4.4: Study participants by degree.

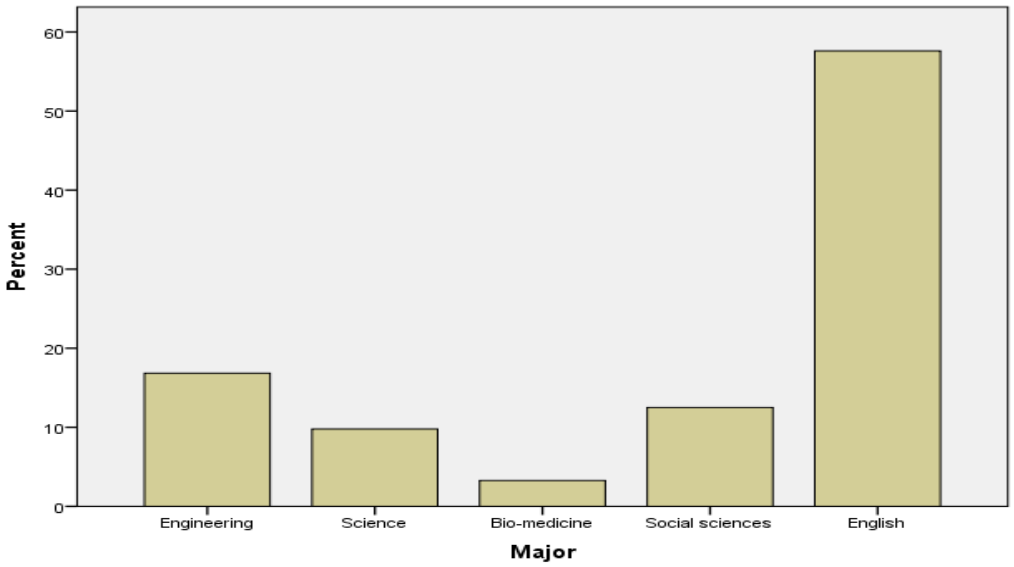

Figure 4.5: Study participants by major of education.

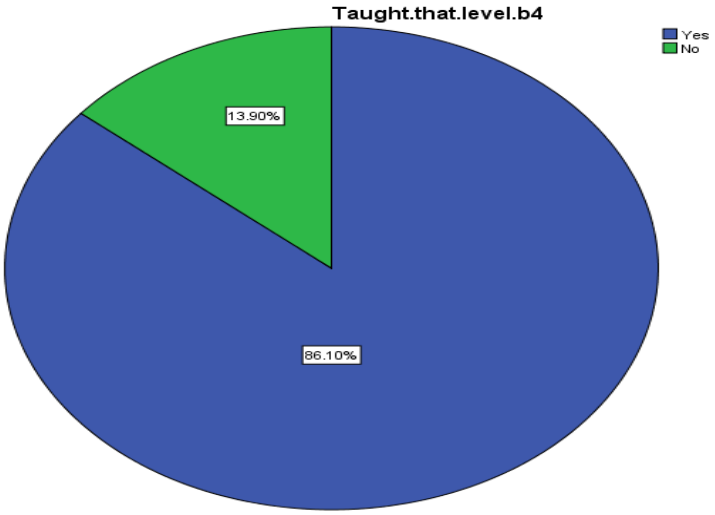

Figure 4.6: Study participants by level of teaching.

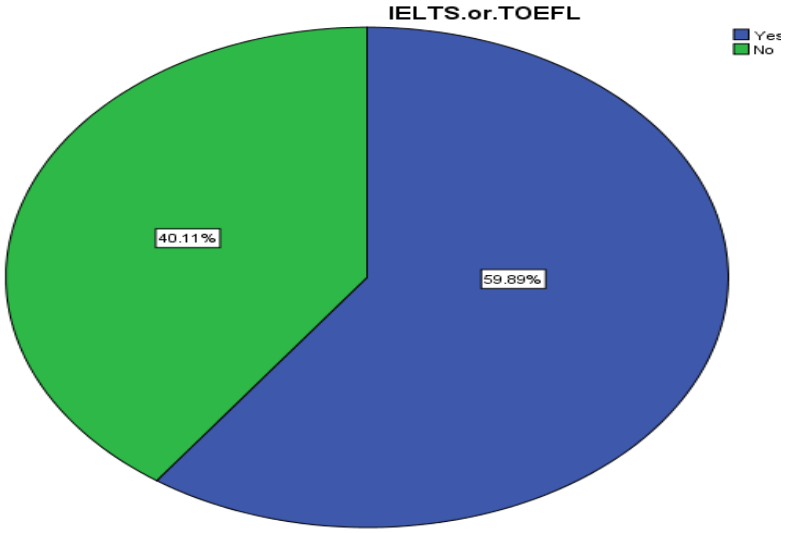

Figure 4.8: Study participants by IELTS or TOEFL certificate.

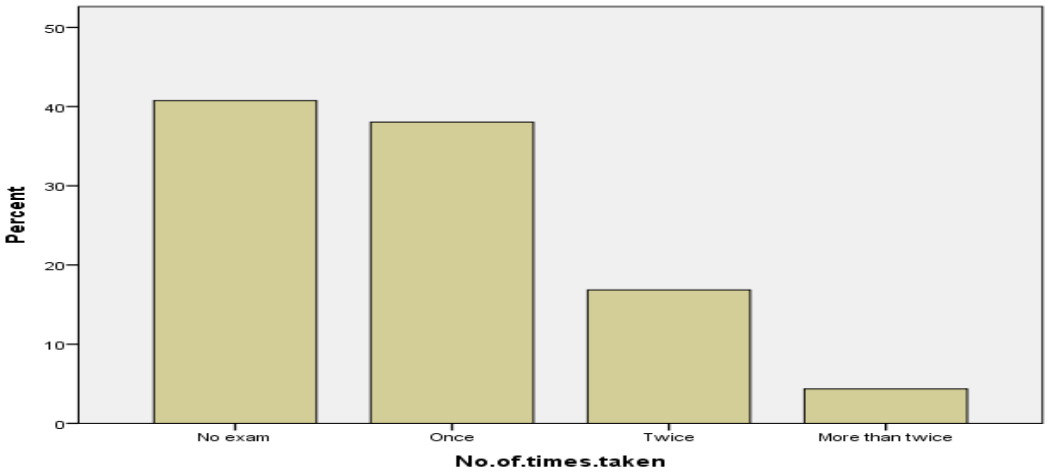

Figure 4.9: Study participants by frequency of taking IELTS or TOEFL.