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English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Based in Bandura's (1997) sociocognitive perspective, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, their beliefs about their capabilities to enact various teaching tasks, have been shown to be impactful on numerous aspects of teachers' professional lives. Research in both general education and language teacher education has shown that more efficacious teachers are often more motivated, exert a greater effort when teaching, have a higher morale, and can even positively impact their students.

Drawing on survey data from $N = 571$ participants across a variety of English language teaching contexts, this thesis takes an integrated article format and addresses unresolved issues in English language teacher self-efficacy research. Chapters 1 and 2 outline the thesis and provide background literature and the thesis' theoretical perspective. Chapter 3 consists of the first research portion of this thesis and outlines the creation of a new English language teacher self-efficacy scale. Initial items are drawn from various TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) standards documents and then subjected to exploratory factor analysis. The final scale, consisting of 26 items across 6 unique factors, serves as the research instrument for the remainder of the dissertation.

Chapter 4 investigates the self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers in North America (Canada and the United States). It looks at what their levels of self-efficacy are, and also if/how teachers' classroom proficiency, general language proficiency, experience, language teacher education (LTE) qualifications, and linguistic identity impact this self-efficacy. Utilizing a series of simultaneous multiple regression analyses, results show that teachers' classroom proficiency is the most significant predictor of teachers' self-efficacy, but general English proficiency, teaching experience and linguistic identity are also significantly impactful as well.

Chapter 5 takes a similar methodological approach and investigates the self-efficacy beliefs of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) across a variety of EFL contexts. The results again show the importance of teachers' self-perceived classroom proficiency as this significantly predicted teachers' self-efficacy across all of the factors. The dissertation ends with Chapter 6 that serves as a final discussion for the entire thesis followed by this study's limitations and potential future directions.

Keywords: Self-efficacy, English language teaching, teacher language proficiency, English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (EL-TSES)

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List of Abbreviations

CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching for Adults
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching for Adults
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EL-TSES	English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLTES	Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale
GSE	Global Self-Efficacy
LTE	Language Teacher Education
S/FLTES	Second/Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TSE	Task-Specific Self-Efficacy
TSES	Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

Chapter 1: Introduction

This dissertation investigates English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3), self-efficacy has been investigated across various domains such as athletics, business, healthcare, and education, with results showing the positive impact of high self-efficacy on performance results. While a noted psychological construct, self-efficacy research has shown that people’s beliefs in their own capabilities are especially important, with Bandura (1997) remarking: “People’s level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true” (p. 2). Efficacy research has a long history dating back to the 1960s, but contemporary self-efficacy research gained momentum with the work of Albert Bandura (1977; 1986; 1997) and his sociocognitive theory (Bandura, 2018; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Bandura’s initial research focused on the self-belief of snake phobics (Bandura, 1977), but self-efficacy research soon spread to other areas, especially education, with overwhelming results suggesting that people’s self-belief is absolutely crucial to human functioning.

1.1 Teacher Self-Efficacy – Introduction

Focusing on teachers, educational researchers have also noted the impact of self-efficacy (e.g. Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). In general education, self-efficacy has a long history of research (Klassen et al, 2011; Tschannen-Moran et al. 1998), and researchers have connected self-efficacy to many positive teacher attributes and even student results. For example, in general education, teacher self-efficacy is related to teacher motivation, effort, the goals teachers set and even teacher behaviour

(Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Beyond this, teachers' self-efficacy is positively related to teachers' commitment to teaching (Chestnut & Burley, 2015). Teachers with higher self-efficacy have shown higher levels of job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006) and have enhanced teaching effectiveness (Klassen & Tze, 2014). Relationships have also been found between teachers' sense of preparedness and self-efficacy (Lee, Tice, Collins, Brown, Smith & Fox, 2012). Individual teacher self-efficacy can also impact teachers' collective efficacy as a group, with higher collective efficacy being connected to greater overall morale at schools (Caprara et al., 2006; Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Research has also shown that teachers with higher beliefs in their capabilities can have a positive impact on student achievement (Guo, Piasta, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2010; Klassen & Tze, 2014), and this notion is also true for collective teacher efficacy (Goddard et al., 2000). While support for this notion is modest and further research is required (Klassen et al., 2011; Klassen, Durksen & Tze, 2014; Klassen & Tze, 2014), research in general education has provided ample evidence to support the notion that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are highly important and impactful not only for the teachers themselves, but the overall school and students.

1.2 Language Teacher Self-Efficacy - Introduction

While research into language teacher self-efficacy is more recent (Wyatt, 2018b), many of the results are also highly positive, further enhancing the importance of self-efficacy. For example, self-efficacy has been correlated with teacher reflectivity (Akbari & Karimi Allvar, 2010; Moradkhani, Raygan & Moein, 2017), teachers' overall preparedness (Chacon, 2002), and higher emotional intelligence (Koçoğlu, 2011; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009). Language teacher self-efficacy can also impact teachers' behaviour, impacting their pedagogical choices in the

classroom (Chacon, 2005; Choi & Lee, 2018; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008) and even how much English they use in the classroom (Choi & Lee, 2016). Teachers with higher self-efficacy are more positively impacted by professional development opportunities (Eun & Heining-Boynton, 2007), and show greater congruence between stated pedagogical beliefs and teaching practices (Karimi, Abdullahi & Haghighi, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy has been related to teachers' attrition (Swanson, 2010a; 2012) and even teachers' (practical) knowledge as teacher knowledge and self-efficacy develop in tandem (Wyatt, 2010; 2013; Zakeri & Alavi, 2011). Similar to general education, researchers have found a relationship between self-efficacy and student achievement as students with more efficacious teachers outperform students with less confident teachers (Akbari & Karimi Allvar, 2010; Swanson, 2014). However, similar to general education, while initial results are promising, more research is needed before strong causation is assumed (Wyatt, 2018b). While many of the above studies point to the benefits of higher self-efficacy, researchers have also theorized the benefits of more modest task-specific self-efficacy beliefs, which may encourage teachers to seek out development opportunities (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2016). Regardless, self-efficacy remains a vital construct in (language) teacher education. As the above research shows, teacher self-efficacy has been proven to be important for teachers, schools, and potentially even students.

1.3 Impetus For this Dissertation

As discussed, there are overwhelmingly impactful results in regard to the importance of (language) teacher self-efficacy, many of which are highly positive. However, looking at English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs, certain issues remain unresolved. This thesis attempts to address the following unresolved issues.

1.3.1. Need for English language teacher self-efficacy scale.

First, many language teacher self-efficacy studies utilize measures from general education (Wyatt, 2018b) as there is no commonly accepted measure of language teacher self-efficacy. While insightful, general measures do not address specific tasks required of English language teachers. To address this issue, this thesis outlines the creation of a new domain specific instrument that can be used to measure English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

1.3.2. Variables that impact self-efficacy.

Next, this dissertation investigates the impact of five variables on English language teacher self-efficacy: 1) classroom proficiency, 2) general language proficiency, 3) teaching experience, 4) language teacher education (LTE) pathways, and 5) linguistic identity. Because of its importance, researchers have sought to discover elements that may contribute to teachers' confidence in their teaching capabilities. These five elements were selected because of previous research that has investigated their contribution to teachers' self-efficacy. Below is a brief introduction to each variable; further information is found within Chapter 2 and also the relevant studies that make up the dissertation.

1.3.2.1 Classroom proficiency.

English language teachers' English proficiency is often touted as vital for teachers' confidence, especially non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) (e.g. Kamhi-Stein, 2009; Murdoch, 1994). However, there has been little discussion in terms of different types of proficiency and the potential impact on teachers' confidence as most studies measure self-

efficacy in relation to teachers' general language proficiency (e.g. Chacon, 2005) (discussed in next section). The notion of classroom proficiency is now emerging in English language teacher research. Through extensive research across a variety of contexts, researchers have identified common language used by English language teachers in the classroom, outlining specific teacher language as a form of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015; Young, Freeman, Hauck, Gomez & Papageorgiou, 2014). English for Specific Purposes has been identified across many areas (e.g. medicine, engineering et al.), but its introduction to English language teaching is recent. Freeman and colleagues (2015) refer to this as English-for-teaching, which refers to the common linguistic elements (e.g. vocabulary, common phrases) needed by English language teachers. This English-for-teaching is bound within general proficiency, and unlike some other forms of ESP, contains many common words/phrases found in general English (Freeman, 2017). Especially for teachers in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, researchers argue this specialized classroom language is much more important for teachers professionally as general language proficiency is often difficult to attain, and is not even needed, for many classroom contexts (Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017). However, this notion of English-for-teaching, or *classroom proficiency* as used in this study, extends beyond linguistic elements and also relates to teachers' (pedagogical) content knowledge and discursive capabilities. Richards (2017) notes that classroom proficiency requires knowledge of classroom content (i.e. English), pedagogical knowledge (i.e. knowledge/ability to teach English), and also discourse ability (i.e. ability to use this linguistic knowledge effectively in the classroom). Thus, the idea of classroom proficiency transcends mere linguistic ability, but also focuses on teachers' ability to use language effectively in the classroom, making it a measurement of linguistic, pedagogical, and discursive capability (Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017). Because this notion is

still emerging in English language teacher literature, its relation to self-efficacy has not been explored. This dissertation will address this gap in the literature.

1.3.2.2 General language proficiency.

Unlike classroom proficiency, teachers' general language proficiency has been a focal point of research in relation to self-efficacy. Broadly, most studies show a positive relationship between teachers' general language proficiency and their self-efficacy (Faez & Karas, 2017). To measure this relationship, studies often correlate results from a self-efficacy scale with results from a measure of (self-reported) general proficiency. Most results show a low to moderate correlation between general proficiency and self-efficacy, indicating a relationship between the two, but also showing the importance of other aspects for teachers' self-efficacy (Faez & Karas, 2017). A recent meta-analysis drew on the results of 19 studies and found a relationship of $r = .37$, noting that many studies use general education measures of self-efficacy, and that those studies that use study-specific measures of self-efficacy (e.g. Nishino, 2012) often show higher relations between self-efficacy and general proficiency (Faez, Karas & Uchihara, 2018). However, most studies have only considered the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy in isolation using bivariate analysis (Choi & Lee, 2016). While these results are insightful, considering general proficiency in isolation, and with no regard for classroom proficiency, it is still unclear which type of proficiency is more impactful on teachers' self-efficacy. This dissertation will add to this discussion on the relationship between general language proficiency and self-efficacy, but it will also consider classroom proficiency, allowing for comparison to determine which type of proficiency better predicts English language teacher self-efficacy.

1.3.2.3 Teaching experience.

The third element this dissertation will investigate in relation to English language teacher self-efficacy is teaching experience as measured in years. Similar to general language proficiency, teaching experience has garnered attention in the self-efficacy literature. However, results are somewhat mixed as certain studies show experience to be impactful on teachers' self-efficacy (e.g. Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010), while others show no impact (e.g. Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2013). One partial issue is in the way studies have investigated experience. Often, teachers are divided into groups based on their experience (e.g. 0 – 3 years) and then analysis is conducted via ANOVA (e.g. Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010). This study will add to the literature on experience and self-efficacy, but it will use teachers' experience in years as a quantitative variable as opposed to grouping teachers into categories.

1.3.2.4 Language teacher education (LTE).

Next, the impact of language teacher education (LTE) on English language teacher self-efficacy is investigated. Similar to teaching experience, results are mixed when looking at LTE. Some studies note LTE as impactful (e.g. Lee, 2009), while others do not (e.g. Crook, 2016). For prospective English language teachers, there are numerous potential pathways into the profession (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009). These can include short-course certificate programs in private schools, four-year bachelor degrees in universities, and even post-graduate degrees that include thesis work and practice teaching. This dissertation will use teachers' highest LTE qualification completed to discover if degree type influences teachers' self-efficacy.

1.3.2.5 Linguistic identity.

Finally, the impact of teachers' linguistic identity on teacher self-efficacy will also be examined for this dissertation. Teachers' linguistic identity, their identities as native-English speaking teachers (NESTs) or non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs), has been thoroughly discussed in academic literature (e.g. Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine, 2010; Medgyes, 1992). However, while these restrictive labels do not adequately describe teachers' complex linguistic backgrounds (Faez, 2011a), they are at times noted as impactful on teachers' confidence. For example, Liaw (2004) and Praver (2014) both noted the non-native speaking teachers in their studies had lower self-efficacy compared to the native-speaking teachers. This dissertation expands beyond just two categories of native-English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) to also include monolingual native-English speaking teachers (MonoNEST). Wyatt (2018b) notes monolingual NESTs, teachers who speak English as their native language but are not proficient in any other language, as a group that may have their self-efficacy negatively impacted because of the negative attention they receive in academic literature at times. Thus, for Study 2 in this dissertation (outlined below), linguistic identity is used as another variable for investigation into English language teachers' self-efficacy.

1.3.2.6 Need to analyze all aspects together.

While all of the above elements are interesting and certainly warrant investigation when looking at English language teacher self-efficacy, they are often looked at in isolation. Wyatt (2018a; 2018b) has called for an expansion of methods when investigating self-efficacy as previous research, for the most part, relies on simple quantitative measures (e.g. correlations, ANOVA etc.). This study will use multiple regression analysis to investigate all of these elements simultaneously to see how they impact teachers' self-efficacy. The use of multiple

regression is now highly encouraged in L2 research because it allows researchers to investigate complex research issues with multiple variables (Plonsky, 2014). Thus, while previous studies have looked at many of the above elements, this dissertation will add to this literature by combining all elements into analyses so they can be investigated as a group.

1.4 Outline of Thesis

This thesis takes an integrated article format. In such a format, a broad Literature Review section is presented next which discusses this dissertation's theoretical framework and the general literature pertaining to self-efficacy research and the above-mentioned variables used for this study. The Literature Review and this Introduction section have their own reference list at the end of Chapter 2. This is then followed by individual articles which form the main portion of this dissertation. The articles are presented as individual 'stand alone' studies. They each have their own Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Results and Discussion sections as well as a separate reference list. Study 1 – Designing a New English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Instrument, discusses the creation of a new English language teacher self-efficacy scale. This newly formed scale is then used in the dissertation's two following studies. Study 2 – Self-Efficacy Beliefs of North American English Language Teachers, uses the newly created self-efficacy scale from Study 1 to assess the self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers in North America (Canada and the United States). It looks at their levels of self-efficacy and also the impact of the five previously mentioned variables (classroom proficiency, general language proficiency, teaching experience, LTE pathway, and linguistic identity) on teachers' self-efficacy. Finally, in the last study, Study 3 – Self-Efficacy Beliefs of NNESTs in EFL Contexts, the same newly created scale is used to assess the self-efficacy beliefs of non-native English-

speaking teachers (NNESTs) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. Similar to Study 2, it looks at what their levels of self-efficacy are and what factors may have influenced their self-efficacy beliefs. The three main studies are then followed by a general Discussion section that reviews the entire dissertation and connects the studies to the broader literature discussed in the Literature Review section, which is next. The dissertation ends with a brief conclusion followed by a reference list that references studies cited in the Discussion section, but not the individual studies which, as mentioned, are presented as stand-alone articles.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework & Literature Review

2.1 Sociocognitive Theory

Self-efficacy is part of Bandura's sociocognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; 1997), which forms the theoretical lens for this study. Sociocognitive theory developed in response to behaviouristic principles that purported that human behaviour was based on the mimicking of external forces (Pajares, 2002). In sociocognitive theory, internal personal factors, behaviour, and the environment all reciprocally interact with one another to determine human functionality (Bandura, 1986). The three components interact in reciprocal determinism creating a dynamic functionality where humans become both products and producers of their own environment (Pajares, 2002). Key to this is the "triadic reciprocity" (p. 18) as each component works as an "interacting determinant" (p. 18) of the other components (Bandura, 1986). A person's behaviour impacts their internal cognitive factors and the environment; internal personal factors influence people's behaviour and the environment; and finally, the environment influences people's behaviour and their inner personal factors. The cycles go around and around in a constant dynamic interplay.

Within the sociocognitive perspective, human nature is based on basic capabilities, such as the ability to symbolize, have forethought, learn vicariously, self-regulate behaviour, and self-reflect (Bandura, 1986). These elements make up the human “self system” (Pajares, 1996, p. 543) and define what it is to be human, enabling people to have control over their own destinies (Pajares, 1996; 2002). With this, the beliefs that people hold about themselves become important determiners in exercising personal control and personal agency. With the ability to self-reflect, people can assess their own experiences and thoughts; how people assess their performance results alters the environment and their beliefs, which will impact future performances (Pajares, 1996). The capability to self-reflect is considered the most important by Bandura (1997) and has the biggest impact on human agency. “The metacognitive capability to reflect on oneself and the adequacy of one’s capabilities, thoughts, and actions is the most distinctly human core property of agency” (Bandura, 2018, p. 131). By self-reflecting, people can “alter their own thinking and exert influence over subsequent behaviour” (Mills, 2014, p. 7).

2.2 Self-Efficacy Theory

Central to socioicognitive theory, and key to human functioning, are people’s self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1986), defined by Bandura (1997) as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Self-efficacy is not necessarily concerned with one’s skill set; while one’s skills will certainly impact performance, self-efficacy’s focus is on “what you believe you can do with what you have under a variety of circumstances” (Bandura, 1997, p. 37). Despite having a high skill level, self-doubt can over come skills for many people, resulting in failing performances across various tasks. People who doubt their ability will shy away from difficult tasks, lack motivation, and give up

more easily when faced with obstacles. This may cause weak commitment to task success and low aspirations, as people dwell on their deficiencies and potential failures. On the other hand, higher efficacious people approach tasks with the focus on mastering them, not as threats that need to be avoided. They set more challenging tasks, have stronger commitment, put forth a higher effort, and remain more focused despite failures (Bandura, 1997).

Bandurian self-efficacy takes a task-specific approach (Bandura, 1997). This means that its focus is on one's belief to complete a task, but not necessarily the outcome of that action. An outcome expectation is focused on people's beliefs about their ability to affect certain results. While people are certainly concerned with the outcomes of their actions, Bandura (1997) argues that people's self-belief to enact a task is much more impactful on their behaviour. While people may desire a certain outcome, they are unlikely to act if they do not feel they can successfully complete the necessary actions to bring about this outcome. Wyatt (2014; 2018b) explains this linearly by emphasizing the difference in terms of Agent-Means-Ends. Bandura's sociocognitively based self-efficacy focuses on the Agent (i.e. the person doing a task) and the Means (i.e. actual task itself) (Wheatley 2005; Wyatt, 2014; 2018b). The Ends (i.e. outcomes) in this equation, while important, are less impactful on people's actual behaviour. For example, a teacher may believe he/she has the ability to teach a lesson on vocabulary using affixes, but this does not necessarily mean the teacher believes it will lead to student learning. The focus is on his/her ability to enact that task (teach the vocabulary lesson with affixes), not the (potential) result of student learning. It is the self-efficacy belief about one's ability to actually teach the vocabulary lesson with affixes that is most important. This distinction is crucial as Bandura (1986) argues that self-efficacy beliefs are better predictors of performance than outcome expectancies. People's self-efficacy beliefs influence their behaviour; tasks that are believed to

be too difficult to perform are avoided while simpler tasks are taken on. The stronger the self-efficacy belief, the more effort one will put forth towards a task (Bandura, 1986). However, it should be noted, that higher self-efficacy does not necessarily equate to higher competency (Wyatt, 2016).

Many researchers have discussed the theoretical confusion that exists in self-efficacy research (Klassen, et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Wyatt, 2014; 2018a). Part of this confusion revolves around the use of the terms teacher efficacy and self-efficacy (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier & Ellet, 2008). Teacher efficacy is often equated with beliefs to impact student performance, and would thus be focusing on outcome expectancies, while the term self-efficacy often refers to Bandura's sociocognitively based belief in one's ability to perform tasks (Dellinger et al., 2008). However, beyond terminology, Wyatt (2014; 2018b) notes that many researchers, especially those who use quantitative measures, have contributed to this confusion by using poorly constructed measures that do not emphasize teachers' self-belief in their abilities to enact classroom tasks (i.e. Agent-Means), but rather include elements that measure their belief in their capabilities to produce specific outcomes (Agent-Ends). More recent definitions have attempted to include outcomes when defining self-efficacy (e.g. Wyatt, 2010), as they are certainly part of self-efficacy theory, but Wyatt (2018b) argues that it is important to maintain focus on the actual tasks required of teachers, as this is more in line with Bandura's (1997) sociocognitively based self-efficacy theory.

The emphasis on tasks has been discussed at length in self-efficacy research (e.g. Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2014; 2018b). However, more recently, researchers have discussed tasks in relation to quantitative teacher self-efficacy research. Overwhelmingly, teacher self-efficacy research is heavily quantitative, in both general education

(Klassen et al., 2011) and language teacher education (Wyatt, 2018b). Using scales, self-efficacy is measured with individual items that (should) address teachers' confidence to enact a certain task, but during the analysis phase, scale items are often summed to form omnibus representations of self-efficacy across broader, more ambiguous, capabilities (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2018b). For example, the most common measure of self-efficacy is the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), and it is comprised of three subscales: Student Engagement, Classroom Management, and Instructional Strategies. Oftentimes, researchers present averaged scores of items to represent teachers' self-efficacy for these subscales (e.g. Chacon, 2005) and sometimes sum all items to present an overall score of self-efficacy (e.g. Crook, 2016). However, Wyatt (2014; 2018b) argues that such analysis takes away from the task-specific nature of self-efficacy research and presents more globalized scores. Wyatt (2014; 2018b) emphasizes that there must be a distinction between task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE). While potentially less predictive of behaviour, GSE beliefs can be related to more generalized confidence and are less context specific (Wyatt, 2018b). These GSE beliefs stem from TSE beliefs and are important as they serve to "protect teachers undertaking new tasks" (Wyatt, 2016, p. 133). This distinction is often made by predominantly qualitative researchers (e.g. Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2018b), but it is a noteworthy discussion in self-efficacy research that is still emerging. The studies in this dissertation use a quantitative measure taking subscale scores, which in Wyatt's view (2018b) would mark them as global self-efficacy beliefs (GSE).

2.2.1 Sources of self-efficacy.

Along with debates about how to best conceptualize self-efficacy, researchers have sought to understand where teachers' self-efficacy stems from. Bandura's initial work (1977) notes four main sources of efficacy: 1) Performance accomplishments (successfully completing the action), 2) Vicarious experience (watching/experiencing someone else successfully complete the action), 3) Verbal persuasion (receiving encouragement from others), and 4) Emotional arousal (assessment of bodily reactions to actions). Each plays a role in influencing a person's sense of self-efficacy, but not necessarily equally. Each is discussed, in turn, below.

Performance Accomplishments (Bandura, 1977), *Enactive Attainments* (Bandura, 1986), and (*Enactive*) *Mastery Experiences* (Bandura, 1997) are all terms that have been used by Bandura to describe the first, and most important, source of someone's self-efficacy: Successfully completing a task. Successful completion of a task is the strongest source of self-efficacy, but there are also complications. For example, Bandura (1977) argues that the timing of accomplishment is important. Successful mastery experiences early on will help enhance self-efficacy, while early failures will reduce self-efficacy and perhaps cause someone to give up altogether. Also, numerous early failures to accomplish tasks may be difficult to overcome and require extensive successful mastery experiences to gain confidence. On the other hand, those that are assured of their abilities can attribute failures to other elements, such as a lack of effort, or poor strategies (Bandura, 1986). Specifically focusing on teachers, a mastery experience has been defined as "a sense of satisfaction with one's past teaching successes" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007, p. 945). However, not every teaching scenario is the same, and one must consider the teaching context as potentially important for influencing self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2011). For example, an English language teacher would not feel confident to teach a science lesson based on past English teaching experiences. Less obvious contextual factors (e.g. urban

vs. suburban, etc.) also play a role in how impactful a mastery experience can be on teacher self-efficacy. Thus, while mastery experiences are no doubt important, timing and context must also be noted to determine their impact.

Vicarious Experience (Bandura, 1977; 1986; 1997) is another source of self-efficacy noted by Bandura. Generally believed to be less impactful than mastery experiences, watching or experiencing others successfully complete tasks can still enhance a person's self-efficacy. Vicarious experiences are most powerful when people see similarities between themselves and the person completing the task (Pajares, 2002). Specific to teaching, watching other teachers who are skilled, admired and similar to oneself can enhance a person's confidence (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). However, similar to mastery experiences, watching others fail can reduce self-efficacy, unless the observer believes they are somehow more capable than the person they are watching (Tschann-Moran et al., 1998).

Verbal Persuasion (Bandura, 1977; 1986; 1997) is also a source of self-efficacy. Generally noted as the weakest source of self-efficacy, verbal support from others, accompanied by other sources, can still be enhancing (Bandura, 1977). For teachers, verbal persuasion can take the form of "interpersonal support from administrators, colleagues, parents, and the community" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007, p. 944 – 945). Verbal support is easily available, but it is also weak and has the potential to collapse after failed experiences (Bandura, 1977).

Emotional Arousal (Bandura, 1977), *Physiological States* (Bandura, 1986) and *Physiological and Affective States* (Bandura, 1997) are all terms that have been used to note the fourth source of self-efficacy. Bandura (1986) argues that the reactions people have to certain situations can be indicators of feelings of vulnerability and discomfort. For example, when

speaking in front of others, a person's heart rate may increase, they may sweat more or have a dry throat, all of which could potentially impact their ability to successfully give their talk. However, physical and emotional cues are not always negative. These can also be interpreted as excitement and if only occurring at moderate levels, can help focus attention and energy towards completion of the task (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Significantly, however, while the body may react to certain situations, it is important that a person attributes this reaction to the task they are attempting to complete. Using the example above, a person speaking in front of others may perspire more, but if this is simply attributed to the room temperature, and not the public speaking task, the physiological state may not decrease a person's self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The four sources noted above are the major sources of self-efficacy, but it is the interaction and appraisal of the four sources that is most vital (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2017; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). "A host of factors, including personal, social, situational, and temporal circumstances under which events occur, affect how personal experiences are cognitively appraised (Bandura, 1986, p. 401). What information people choose to attend to and use as an indicator is important. Also, how much importance is given to each source of self-efficacy and how they are all integrated are also vital (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy is not simply the sum of people's experiences; rather, they must interpret their different experiences and cognitively process the information presented to them via the four sources of efficacy (Morris et al., 2017). Focusing on teaching, teachers must assess not only their personal competence, but also the teaching task at hand. Processing the information from the four efficacy sources and attributing importance to one or more of the efficacy sources will influence the analysis of self-ability and the task (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Bandura's (1997) four

sources of efficacy have been highly influential. They are sufficiently broad that many have struggled to determine other sources of self-efficacy that fall outside of these. However, a recent review of self-efficacy research in general education notes that, despite many studies focusing on teacher self-efficacy, more research is needed into the four sources of efficacy and how they actually operate in practice with teachers (Klassen et al., 2011).

2.2.2 Theoretical models of self-efficacy development.

Drawing on Bandura's (1977; 1986; 1997) four sources of self-efficacy, education researchers have developed theoretical models as to how teachers' self-efficacy may develop. The most prominent model for the past two decades is the model proposed by Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998, p. 228). Their model served as a response to the conceptual confusion that existed in teacher self-efficacy research at the time and described self-efficacy development in a cyclical manner. In their model, teachers' draw on the four sources of efficacy and cognitively appraise these sources, then analyze the specific teaching task at hand and their assessment of their competence for this task, which then leads to a judgement of self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). From this, the (potential) consequences of teacher self-efficacy arise, which as mentioned can include increased motivation, effort and other positive attributes, which then impacts teachers' performances, which serve as new sources of self-efficacy allowing the cycle to go around and around.

However, Wyatt (2016) has challenged the model proposed by Tschannen-Moran and colleagues (1998), arguing that while researchers often draw on the old model, few researchers have critically appraised it. In his criticisms, Wyatt (2016) argues that the narrow psychological perspective taken by Tschannen-Moran et al. is highly restrictive and does not account for other

important aspects such as teachers' knowledge and/or beliefs. Furthermore, the model appears conceptually confused with the locus of control construct at times, which is different from Bandura's (1997) sociocognitive theory. Wyatt (2016) argues that according to this model, positive self-efficacy appraisals appear to be the only goal as higher self-efficacy beliefs lead to greater performance, which again leads to higher self-efficacy. On the flip side, negative self-efficacy beliefs lead to poor teaching performance and then lower self-efficacy. Wyatt (2016) argues that there is no account for the possibility of overconfidence and its potential negative impact, and that some self-doubt about "very specific aspects of a teacher's work...can be highly beneficial for various reasons" (p. 120). With this, Wyatt (2016) differentiates between task-specific teacher self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE). In the Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) model, there is no distinction between the two, making it highly suspect (Wyatt, 2016). Wyatt (2016) makes the important point that TSE beliefs will lead to more global self-efficacy, and that while it is important to have high levels of GSE beliefs, as these represent more generalized confidence, some self-doubt in regard to TSE beliefs can have positive benefits.

Thus, in light of these criticisms, Wyatt (2016) developed his own conceptual model to theorize how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs may develop. Wyatt's (2016) model is clearly focused on task-specific self-efficacy beliefs (TSE), which are placed at the centre of his model along with teachers' other beliefs, but along with their "moral responsibility orientations" and their physiological/affective states (p. 123). He connects these aspects to the type of effort teachers put forth as TSE beliefs are not the only elements that influence the type and quantity of one's effort in teaching. Key to Wyatt's (2016) model is the reflective cycle and its connection to teachers' practical knowledge. Wyatt (2016) for most the part maintains Bandura's (1997) four sources of self-efficacy but alters the terminology somewhat. Mastery experience is changed to

“concrete experience” to emphasize that teachers can still reflect and learn from negative experiences; verbal persuasion becomes “interactive experience” to emphasize that verbal interactions teachers have are often a means for reflection. Finally, vicarious experience becomes “vicarious and interactive experience” which includes drawing information from professional research. Wyatt’s (2016) model is much more complex than the previous model from Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), but this complexity allows for more nuanced analysis, especially when using qualitative measures with richer data. In this model, the focus is clearly on TSE beliefs, and there is acknowledgement that some ‘lower’ TSE beliefs are fine, as they can encourage further reflection and allow teachers to seek out development opportunities to enhance their TSE beliefs and their teaching.

The competing models are useful lenses to consider teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. They also show the divide between quantitatively oriented researchers and qualitatively oriented researchers. As mentioned, Wyatt’s (2016) model is explicitly focused on task-specific self-efficacy, while the Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) model does not distinguish its focus on either TSE or GSE self-efficacy beliefs. The field of teacher self-efficacy, both in general education and language teacher education, has done little to offer clear distinctions between TSE and GSE beliefs (Wyatt, 2016), with Wyatt (2014; 2016; 2018b) and Wheatley (2005) as notable exceptions. Wyatt (2018b) argues that most quantitative research in language teacher self-efficacy in fact focuses on more global self-efficacy beliefs, as overall scores from (sub)scales are used to present results. Wyatt (2016) argues that teachers need higher GSE beliefs as these can serve to “protect” (p. 133) teachers when they try out new teaching tasks in which they may have some self-doubt. With strong, and potentially more robust, global self-efficacy beliefs, teachers can still have lower self-efficacy beliefs for specific tasks and be successful, as this mild

doubt about certain tasks may encourage them to reflect and learn more so they can improve on this self-doubt.

Returning to the focus of this dissertation, teachers' levels of self-efficacy are presented in all three studies that make up the research portion of this thesis. They include individual scale item scores, which are representative of TSE beliefs, and omnibus factor scores, which are more representative of GSE beliefs. Two of the studies in this thesis (Study 2 and Study 3) seek to understand how various elements impact teachers' global self-efficacy. They look at teachers' classroom proficiency, general language proficiency, teaching experience, language teacher education (LTE), and Study 2 also looks at teachers' linguistic identity (e.g. NNEST etc.). The following sections discuss the literature pertaining to the variables used in this study.

Background information for each variable is provided, as is literature pertaining to their impact on teachers' self-efficacy. In the final Discussion section for the overall dissertation, the two theoretical models and the broader self-efficacy theory are revisited to interpret the results presented in the main body of the dissertation.

2.3 Teacher Language Proficiency

Teachers' classroom proficiency and general language proficiency are two important variables investigated in this dissertation. There is still no overall understanding about what level of proficiency teachers actually need to teach (Bailey, 2001), but generally, language proficiency is acknowledged as an important aspect for English language teachers (e.g. Farrell & Richards, 2007; Richards, 2010). For all teachers, proficiency affects their confidence (Kamhi-Stein, 2009), and especially for non-native English-speaking teachers, "proficiency will always represent the bedrock of their personal confidence" (Murdoch, 1994, p. 254). Each context requires different levels and types of proficiency, and with the development of English as an

International Language (EIL), teachers will have different language needs (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2012). The issue of proficiency is somewhat complicated by the fact that English serves as both the medium of instruction, but also the content in English language classrooms (Freeman, 2016). Teachers need to possess procedural knowledge of the language and be able to use it, but also declarative knowledge in order to provide explanations to students (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004).

Often, English language teachers are assessed on their general proficiency, but Freeman (2017) now argues this as inadequate as it promotes native speakerism and does not address the language teachers need in the classroom. The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), a measure of general proficiency designed by the Council of Europe (2001) is a commonly used example. The CEFR frames competence in terms of skills in contexts of use and frames learning as a process rather than a finalized state (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). While designed with good intentions, it is often prescriptively applied as a rigid standard for language teachers (Freeman, 2017). Especially for teachers in EFL contexts, general measures of language proficiency like the CEFR set language learning levels that are often unachievable for language teachers, and also importantly, are simply not needed to enhance their pedagogical performance (Freeman, 2017; Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017). While the concept of native speakerism often denotes native-speakers of English with high general language proficiency as ideal teachers of the language, there is still no evidence to suggest that general language proficiency equates with increased student learning (Freeman, 2017).

In response to the overemphasis placed on general language proficiency, researchers have drawn on an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) perspective to develop a specific form of English that is useful for English language teachers. Freeman et al. (2015) refer to this as

English-for-teaching, while this study uses the term ‘classroom proficiency’ to outline this concept. Similar to other fields that have domain-specific language (e.g. medicine, law etc.), researchers argue that English language teachers have a specialized language that teachers need to use in order to succeed in the classroom (Freeman et al., 2015). While this language is often part of more generalized proficiency as it uses high frequency words and phrases (Freeman, 2017), it has proven a useful concept with the implementation of the ELTeach program for teachers of beginner and intermediate students in EFL contexts (Young, et al., 2014). The ELTeach program has been piloted with teachers across numerous contexts showing promising results for EFL teachers (Gu & Papageorgiou, 2016). While a high overall level of proficiency is valuable, this may not be plausible for all teachers in all contexts. Therefore, focusing on the specific English teachers may need in the classroom, teacher education programs can take this specific language into account and help teachers become more efficient and effective in the classroom (Freeman et al., 2015).

The notion of classroom proficiency is still developing in ELT (Freeman et al., 2015; 2017). This dissertation uses the term classroom proficiency to reference the language specific to English language teaching, but also to the pedagogical capabilities required when using English in the classroom. For example, while teachers will need to have knowledge of various language structures to succeed in the classroom, they will also need the pedagogical capability to simplify their speech, use appropriate vocabulary when necessary, and potentially slow their speech in order to be understood in the classroom (Richards, 2017). Thus, the notion of classroom proficiency combines both the language needed to teach, but also emphasizes the skill required to teach English in English (Van Canh & Renandya, 2017).

2.3.1 Language proficiency and self-efficacy: Measurement issues.

This distinction between general proficiency and classroom proficiency, and the emphasis on the skill required to teach English in English, is important as there has been some confusion about the place of language proficiency within language teacher self-efficacy research. As discussed, language proficiency is a vital element of teachers' knowledge (Farrell & Richards, 2007), but there remains some confusion in self-efficacy research about how to assess language proficiency for language teachers. Most studies use separate measures of self-efficacy and language proficiency and then use correlational analysis to investigate this relationship (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Yilmaz, 2011). However, this separation does not account for English as both the medium of instruction, but also the content of instruction in the ELT classroom as general proficiency measures do not assess teachers' skillful use of the language in the classroom. As a solution, researchers have attempted to incorporate measures of proficiency within self-efficacy scales. The most notable example of this is from the work of Swanson (2010a; 2010b; 2012; 2014). Swanson (2010a) developed the Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale (FLTES), later changed to the Second/Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale (S/FLTES) (Swanson, 2012). On the S/FLTES, the subscale of Content Knowledge was included to acknowledge the importance of language proficiency and Swanson (2012) describes the subfactor as a measure of self-efficacy. However, the four items on the Content Knowledge subscale pertain more to general proficiency and are not based around any specific teaching tasks. Choi and Lee (2016) argue that self-efficacy beliefs refer to specific pedagogical capabilities, not content knowledge, and they exclude general language proficiency and note it as an independent construct from self-efficacy. Wyatt (2018b) also states that general language proficiency should not be assessed as self-efficacy, as do Faez and Karas (2017), arguing in favour of more teaching specific measures

of proficiency. Classroom proficiency as outlined by Richards (2017) allows for self-efficacy researchers to address the issue of English proficiency in relation to specific tasks required of teachers. As mentioned, self-efficacy takes a task-specific perspective (Bandura, 1997); thus, to measure self-efficacy but also account for language proficiency, self-efficacy researchers must address specific teaching tasks of teachers, but assess their capabilities to do these tasks in English. Lee's (2009) dissertation addresses this issue with a new subfactor of Oral English Language Use, but few if any other studies focus on teaching specific tasks and English proficiency. The vast majority of studies that have investigated language proficiency and self-efficacy have used two separate measures, one general proficiency measure and a measure of self-efficacy (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Yilmaz, 2011). A recent meta-analysis found the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy to be moderate ($r = .37$) (Faez et al., 2018). Study 2 and Study 3 further investigate this relationship, but also assess the relationship between more specific classroom proficiency and self-efficacy.

2.4 Teaching Experience: Novice and Experienced Teachers

This dissertation also looks at the potential impact of teaching experience on teachers' self-efficacy. For novice teachers, defined as teachers with less than 3 years of teaching, the initial transition into teaching can be difficult as some new teachers struggle to find employment (Valeo & Faez, 2013). For those that do, the first few years of teaching can be a shock and often serve as a reality check as the idealism that many new teachers have fades away as they encounter 'real' teaching environments (Farrell, 2008a). Because of this, teacher attrition is still a major issue in TESOL (Farrell, 2012) and in some foreign language teaching contexts (Swanson, 2010a; 2012). As teachers are faced with overwhelming challenges, many simply choose to leave

the profession. This can be especially true for teachers in the private sector who often find little to no support (Borg, 2008; Skinner, 2002), along with unstable and low paying positions (Priddis et al., 2013). This is potentially troublesome as teachers' early years in the profession are very important. Novice teachers develop their teaching identities in their early years of teaching (Kanno & Stuart, 2011) and early success can help improve teachers sense of preparedness in the classroom (Faez & Valeo, 2012). However, if teachers are not properly supported, or are not satisfied with their teaching and feeling stressed, this can have an impact on their confidence to teach (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Because of the importance of these early years, strategies have been proposed in order to ease the transition into classroom teaching. For example, Farrell (2009) argues for a specific course dedicated to helping teachers transition from teacher education to the first year of teaching. Having suitable mentors when beginning teaching is also helpful instead of forcing teachers to rely on trial and error alone (Farrell, 2008b). All of this is done to help new teachers become more confident and effective.

2.4.1 Teaching Experience: Novice and Experienced Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Some researchers argue that teachers' efficacy beliefs are most flexible when they are novice teachers and that once teachers progress past the novice stage, their efficacy beliefs become somewhat stable (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). However, others have countered this narrative, arguing that task-specific self-efficacy beliefs remain dynamic and flexible throughout teachers' careers (Wyatt, 2014; 2018b). In general education, teachers' feelings of adequacy generally increased after the first year of teaching (Darling-Hammond, Eiler & Marcus, 2002) and teachers' sense of efficacy was often higher for experienced public school teachers in New York (Darling-Hammond, Chung & Frelow, 2002). Tschannen-Moran

and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) report similar results as the experienced teachers in their study had higher levels of self-efficacy. This point emphasizes the need for teachers to be able transition from their novice years as it appears if they can survive those early years in the classroom, their efficacy may potentially increase as they progress throughout their teaching careers. However, looking at language teachers, many studies have shown no correlation between experience and higher self-efficacy (e.g. Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2013). While many studies divide teachers into novice and experienced groups, Study 2 and Study 3 of this thesis assess teachers' experience in years and its impact on their self-efficacy.

2.5 Language Teacher Education (LTE)

Study 2 and Study 3 investigate the impact of language teacher education pathways on teachers' sense of self-efficacy. This section provides an overview of language teacher education (LTE). The field of language teacher education has developed rapidly with the growing desire to learn English. Initially, LTE was based on behaviorist principles, placing a heavy emphasis on applied linguistics knowledge and highly structured teaching methods that were believed to enhance learning (Crandall, 2000; Wright, 2010). In this positivistic paradigm, teachers were viewed as conduits to student learning where they could learn about necessary content, and then transfer this knowledge to students (Johnson, 2006). The emphasis was on what teachers needed to know and how they could be educated, as opposed to what they already knew or how this prior knowledge influenced what they may do (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). However, slowly, language teacher education transitioned from initial behaviorist principles to more constructivist principles, and more recently, to a sociocultural perspective that emphasizes reflective practice and acknowledges teachers' prior learning/life experiences and inner mental workings (Wright,

2010). In this sociocultural perspective, instead of focusing solely on theory, a focus on praxis, the interconnectedness of theory and practice, is believed to better prepare language teachers. In praxis, teachers do not merely learn theory, they are provided opportunities to make sense of theories in their own contexts and can inform theory based on their own experiences in the classroom (Johnson, 2006). This sociocultural turn has largely been attributed to Freeman and Johnson's (1998) seminal article in *TESOL Quarterly* (Crandall & Christison, 2016). Freeman and Johnson (1998) sought to redefine the core of language teacher education, with a focus on the individual teacher and sociocultural backdrops, arguing "any theory of SLA, any classroom methodology, or any description of that English language as content must be understood against the backdrop of teachers' professional lives, within the settings where they work, and within the circumstances of that work" (p. 405). Furthermore, they argue that the knowledge-base of teacher education must shift towards an emphasis on the teacher as a learner and away from students as learners of language. From this, since the 1990s, research in LTE "has focused increasingly on language teachers, language teaching, and how language teachers learn to teach" (Crandall & Christison, 2016, p. 6). This is in stark contrast to the beginnings of LTE that emphasized standardized teaching routines and knowledge of linguistic theory, while utilizing the process-product paradigm that allowed little room for the individual histories and characteristics of teachers to be acknowledged. Now, teaching is viewed as a lifelong process and reflective practitioners are trumpeted (Richards, 2008), and many teacher education programs now reflect this change in attitude.

2.5.1 Training vs. education.

Traditionally, teacher education was dichotomized between training and education. Widdowson (1993) differentiated between the two concepts noting training as useful for preparing teachers for predictable problems, giving teachers set routines, techniques and tactics. Because the problems are deemed more predictable, training is often highly solution-oriented. On the other hand, education prepares teachers for the unpredictable, and emphasizes problem-solving, making it more problem-oriented. Courses that insist on set-techniques are considered training while education takes a more open approach (Widdowson, 1993). Some argue that this dichotomy between training and education no longer exists as there is now more emphasis on socialization into the teaching profession (Burns & Richards, 2009). However, this may not be the case. Training is no longer a popular term in teacher education, partially because of the negative connotations associated with the term (Mann, 2005). Terms such as initial teacher education (Block & Gray, 2016) or preparation (Mann, 2005) have become more prominent. While training may have negative connotations, some argue it is important to acknowledge the dichotomy in order to achieve some type of balance when preparing/training/educating teachers (Block & Gray, 2016). At times, the divide between training and education of teachers can be found between short-term programs and university programs. Short programs often emphasize skills while universities “snub practice-based programs” (p. 189) and tend to focus more on research and academia (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). Thus, in TESOL teacher education, while the emphasis may be for more sociocultural approaches that acknowledge teacher cognitions and backgrounds, some contexts may lean more towards ‘training’ aspects and more formulaic, mechanistic teaching methods.

2.5.2 TESOL teacher education programs – teacher pathways.

The pathway metaphor is taken from the work of Darling-Hammond, Chung and Frelow (2002) who looked at different teacher education programs in New York City. The pathway metaphor is suitable when thinking of how teachers take different routes (teacher education programs) to join the teaching profession. The results of Darling-Hammond et al's (2002) study were noteworthy as the different pathways impacted teacher preparedness and efficacy to teach. Teachers who completed full teacher education programs, instead of fast-track programs or certification via coursework, were generally more prepared and had higher self-efficacy, leading to the conclusion that the pathway one takes to be a teacher matters. Not all teacher education programs are equal. Considering the numerous potential programs for English language teaching, this becomes even more paramount considering the diverse program options. ELT remains largely unregulated and without any formal standard teacher pathways. Using Canada as an example, prospective English teachers can choose programs in universities, colleges, non-profit organizations, private schools and even "fly-by-night organizations" (Chafe & Wang, 2008, p. 20). This is common across many contexts as prospective teachers have seemingly endless options that can vary in professional standards and quality (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009).

The situation with TESOL pathways is further complicated by the internationalization of TESOL. "Professional border crossing" is part of TESOL (Selvi, 2012, p. 198) and some teachers enter the profession with the specific goal of using it as a means to travel, with teaching being secondary to the travel adventure. Teacher education is also part of this. Private language school training programs are offered all over the globe for prospective English teachers. Graduate programs accept, and seek out, international students from overseas, especially in English-speaking western countries. MA TESOL programs in the United States are perceived to

play a leading role in the field, being located in the largest English-speaking country in the world (Selvi, 2012). This can extend to other nations within BANA contexts (British, Australia, North America). MA TESOL programs in North America have increased by over 9 times between 1975 – 2005 (Selvi, 2012), with some older estimates that over 40% of programs have students from overseas (England & Roberts, 1989; Liu, 1999). However, the ability of these programs to prepare teachers for diverse contexts has been questioned (Liu, 1999; Selvi & Percy, 2016).

An early survey of TESOL programs found many programs had more NNESTs than domestic NEST students in MA TESOL programs (England & Roberts, 1989). Across British, North American and Australian programs, an estimated 40% of students were NNESTs studying as international students (Liu, 1999; Moussu & Llorca, 2008). This trend has continued, and in some contexts, increased (Hasrati & Tavakoli, 2015). K.A. Johnson (2001) argues that many NNESTs felt their MA program was designed for NESTs and did not address their needs. Selvi (2012) argues that many NNESTs in his study felt better prepared to teach in the United States instead of international contexts, despite the fact that evidence suggests many sought to return home. Many western programs are focused on communicative language teaching (CLT) methods, which are not always suitable for international contexts (Liu, 1999; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008). To alleviate these issues, authors have argued that teachers may actually need reintegration courses when they return home in order to understand how what they learned in a western based TESOL context can be applied to their home context (Chowdhury & Phan, 2008). Other authors argue courses such as these must be offered in western based TESOL settings (Carrier, 2003). Large surveys of MA TESOL programs have shown that programs do not appear to have course offerings and structures that adequately prepare teachers for EFL settings

(Govardhan, Nayar & Seorey, 1999). Thus, while diverse pathways exist for prospective teachers, the needs of all prospective teachers are not always met (Stapleton & Shao, 2016).

The most recent printed TESOL Directory released by the TESOL International Association lists 424 TESOL teacher preparation programs in North America including 31 doctoral programs, 179 master’s programs, 57 graduate certificate programs, 35 ‘other’ certificate programs and 51 undergraduate programs (Christopher, 2005). While these serve as useful categories, little uniformity exists within these programs (Christopher, 2005; Selvi 2012). Different degree titles (e.g. MA, MAT etc.) can be awarded, and even if different programs award the same degree title, they are by no means the same. Programs can be awarded as a major, minor, concentration, licensure, and/or endorsement. These can be in: Applied Linguistics, Linguistics, ESL (English as a second language), EFL (English as a foreign language), ELT (English language teaching), ESOL (English for speakers of other languages), TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language), TESL (teaching English as a second language), TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages), along with plenty of other possible options (Christopher, 2005).

Currently, the TESOL International Association provides a list of programs online. With the increasing popularity of online programs (Allen & Seaman, 2011), the variation in programs has grown even further. The following program types and number of programs listed are below.

Table 1

LTE Programs listed by TESOL International Association

Type of Program	Number of Programs Listed
Certificate / Certification Programs	247
Certificate / Certification Programs – Online	72

Degree - Bachelor's	43
Degree - Post-Bachelor's Certificate	52
Degree - Post-Bachelor's Certificate – Online	36
Degree - Master's	106
Degree - Master's – Online	42
Degree – Doctoral	27
Major – Education	43
Major – English	34
Major – Linguistics	31
Major - TESOL / TESL / TEFL	92

Note. Retrieved on Oct. 22, 2018 from <http://englishlanguageprofessionalsresourceguide.com/>

There is crossover between the categories in terms of institutions, but the above list gives an indication to the number of programs, the variety of program options available, and even the different labels given to different programs. As can be seen, teacher learning paths remain complex and varied, and this is by no means a comprehensive list. The majority of these programs are in North America. If one were to include all programs in all contexts, the list would be much larger. This has led some to conclude that creating a comprehensive list of TESOL teacher education programs is simply impossible (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009). There are just too many.

The question as to how different teacher pathways impact teachers' self-efficacy to teach requires exploration. For university programs, there is the traditional hierarchy of bachelor level, followed by master level and doctoral level being the highest. However, it is difficult to assess what teacher pathway is 'best', considering the numerous unknown factors and different needs prospective teachers may have. Stanley and Murray (2013) compare the Certificate in English Language Teaching for Adults (CELTA) program with Australian TESOL Masters' programs. They note that, although a master's degree in TESOL is often seen as a high

qualification, graduates from masters' programs may also lack important aspects of a fully qualified teacher. For example, they argue that graduates from MA programs often possess high levels of declarative knowledge in terms of language, methodology and culture, but may lack procedural knowledge in these areas as some masters' programs lack a practicum and may not require high proficiency standards for graduates. On the other hand, CELTA graduates are given a basic skill set for teaching, and thus potentially have high procedural knowledge about language and methodology, but lack declarative knowledge in these areas and have little clue as to why they do certain classroom tasks and how they can change their practice in the face of difficulties. While this comparison is only theoretical, data from teachers who have taken both the CELTA and a graduate teaching degree indicates some teachers found the short-term certificate program more useful for their teaching than their high-level graduate degree (Kanowski, 2004).

With this background, the following sections outline 5 different teacher pathways for prospective English language teachers. Study 2 and Study 3 investigate the impact of these pathways on teacher self-efficacy, but as discussed, TESOL teacher pathways are broad and diverse and do not fit into categories easily. To accommodate this, the pathways are sufficiently broad and encompassing, but can still serve as helpful descriptors in order to describe how prospective English teachers become English teachers. The pathways are defined by the qualification granted (e.g. certificate, bachelor degree etc.), but this emphasis on the 'destination' should not take away from the 'journey'. As will be seen, pathways may share in the qualification granted, but variation abounds within the categories. Other elements, such as mode of instruction, practicum, intensity (e.g. full-time, part time etc.), and other factors, often vary from program to program.

2.5.2.1 Pathway 1 – no qualifications.

An unfortunate reality in ELT is that many teachers can teach with no formal LTE teaching qualification at all (Jeon & Lee, 2006). Freeman (2016) describes this position as “born-expertise” (p. 43) where a person is believed to be naturally imbued with certain qualities that enable them to teach. This is a somewhat common perspective in non-academic circles and can pertain to other subjects beyond English language teaching. For example, some believe that a born teacher is someone who is perhaps very empathetic, patient, charismatic and/or humorous and thus possesses the natural demeanor to be a teacher (Freeman, 2016). In ELT, following this line of thinking, the content knowledge for English teachers, English, is obtained from being born and socialized into it, rather than obtained through some form of preparation (Freeman, 2016).

This perspective is troubling though, as it leads to born-expertise being associated with nativeness and native-speakers of English. This gives the impression that English language teaching is easy and does not require any specialized knowledge or skills that are obtained from teacher education. Furthermore, it can result in discriminatory hiring practices and racism against those not considered native English-speakers (Braine, 2010; Selvi, 2010). A quick glance at numerous online job sites shows various contexts that are still willing to hire teachers with no formal TESOL teacher education (Braine, 2010; Selvi, 2010). Looking at Asia, Jeon and Lee (2006) note that specific teaching qualifications are often not necessary for places like China, Japan and Korea, and this includes positions in government sponsored programs in public schools (Wang & Lin, 2013). Freeman (2016) notes three government programs in Japan, Korea and Chile that hire teachers based on their ‘born-expertise’, emphasizing nativeness instead of

qualifications. This has been thoroughly criticized in academic literature (Braine, 2010; Phillipson, 1992), but it is a reality that continues in ELT. Overall, the general theme surrounding unqualified English language teachers with no formal teacher preparation is that they are not adequately prepared to teach English, and are potentially harmful to both their students' learning and the overall profession (Phillipson, 1992).

2.5.2.2 Pathway 2 – certificate/diploma.

The second pathway noted in this study is the certificate/diploma pathway. Certificate and diploma programs are common in TESOL with many high-profile programs graduating thousands of teachers each year with recognizable qualifications (Diaz Maggioli, 2014). TESOL International Association (2015) defines short-term certificate/diploma programs as courses that run between 20 – 250 hours and often serve as an introduction into the profession. Notable examples are the CELTA and Trinity TESOL certificate. However, this category can also refer to programs that serve as follow up programs to initial qualifications. Examples of these would include the Diploma in English Language Teaching for Adults (DELTA) or Trinity TESOL Diploma, which are follow up programs after the CELTA and Trinity TESOL certificate. Such programs may include a practicum, but also may not. The Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in the UK (Roberts, 1998) is another example of a certificate program, but unlike short-term programs, serves as a year-long program that offers certification in the UK. Thus, certificate/diploma options can range greatly in terms of program length, and other factors. Short-term TESOL certificate/diploma programs have been criticized by authors as being too short (Ferguson & Donno, 2003) and developing critically unaware teachers (Block & Gray, 2016), but they have their defenders as well (Horne, 2003) and remain a very popular option for

prospective English language teachers. Although not as common, lengthier certificate/diploma programs offered at post-graduate institutions are still a pathway for some teachers and are acknowledged in this category.

2.5.2.3 Pathway 3 – bachelor level degree.

Generally speaking, the bachelor level degree is the most commonly required degree for teaching English (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009). However, much like the other pathways, there is little consistency. Prospective teachers can earn a Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, or even a Bachelor of Education (Christopher, 2005) as potential TESOL teaching qualifications. Bachelor level programs often include a practicum, but not always, and often lead to local certification (Christopher, 2005). Bachelor level programs differ between EFL and ESL contexts. In EFL contexts, they often include some form of language learning component and are over 3 to 4 years (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009), while in ESL contexts, most programs do not have a language component (Kamhi-Stein, 2009).

2.5.2.4 Pathway 4 – master level degree.

The Master of TESOL (MA TESOL) has become a standard degree for TESOL teachers (Selvi, 2012). It features prominently on the current TESOL International Association program list with numerous options. However, little consistency exists across MA TESOL programs in the United States (Selvi & Peercy, 2016). In the US, programs last between 2 – 6 semesters, have different practicum options/requirements, and are often housed in different departments (Selvi & Peercy, 2016). A recent survey of 241 MA TESOL programs worldwide offers a similar perspective (Stapleton & Shao, 2016). The survey analyzes programs in the US

(146), UK (48), Australia (10), New Zealand (9), Canada (8), Hong Kong (7) as well as China, Japan, Taiwan and other nations. The results show that only 16 programs required prior teaching experience. The programs offered a total of 3877 course titles that were categorized into 15 headings by the authors with “Teaching methods/issues” (p. 10) as the most frequent. Comparing US and international programs, American programs more often had mandatory practicums and also had a higher rate of compulsory courses that focused on localized knowledge. The authors argue that MA TESOL programs appear to resemble certificate programs in their emphasis on classroom techniques and hands-on approaches, which has been questioned previously (Richards, 2008). However, context-specific aspects are far more prevalent in American programs. Contextual teacher education is very important but the increase in international students puts some programs at odds with the more diverse student body. For example, no programs had any courses specifically designed to address the needs of East Asian learners. The authors argue more context-specific electives are needed in international MA TESOL programs (Stapleton & Shao, 2016). However, similar to Govardhan et al. (1999), they note specialized programs may be included at the expense of important language teaching elements. Burns and Richards (2009) note that many programs have pulled away from an overemphasis on applied linguistics and now focus on action research, classroom research, and reflective practice. The results of Stapleton and Shao’s (2016) survey reflect this emphasis somewhat.

2.5.2.5 Pathway 5 - doctoral level.

The final pathway looks at doctoral level degrees. It is unknown how many teachers have doctoral degrees, but considering the amount of time required to obtain a PhD, it is likely

not many. Very little research appears to exist on English language teachers with doctoral level degrees, and how this type of qualification impacts their self-efficacy to teach English.

2.5.3 Mode of delivery (e.g. Online, Hybrid, Face-to-face).

Another factor to consider is how the above-mentioned pathways may be administered. Many programs now have online options for prospective teachers, including the option for online practicums (Hall & Knox, 2009). However, there are differing degrees to which courses and/or programs can be offered online. One useful distinction provides the following breakdown and definitions: Traditional (0% of content delivered online); Web-facilitated (1 – 29% delivered online); Blended/Hybrid (30 – 79% of content delivered online); and Online (80%+ of course content is delivered online) (Allen & Seaman, 2011). Focusing on TESOL teacher education programs, England (2012) claims that there are over 40 university-based online TESOL Master's programs worldwide and over 400 private institutions offer TESOL certificates online. She notes that many students enroll in online programs for a variety of reasons, including living in remote/rural areas, personal responsibilities, lack of time, and professional responsibilities. To allow maximum flexibility for students, most online programs are asynchronous (England, 2012). Occasionally, online programs are viewed negatively compared to face-to-face (F2F) programs, but this perspective is outdated and does not take into account the potential benefits of online programs (Garton & Edge, 2012). For example, one major benefit of distance education is that it allows students to remain in their own contexts and apply what they learn directly to their own teaching situations (Garton & Edge, 2012). Copland and Garton (2012) compare graduates from an online TESOL program with graduates from the face-to-face cohort and found distance learners were more active in publishing and conferences and appeared to benefit from the

programs just as much, if not more, than the face-to-face graduates. In terms of self-efficacy, Kissau (2012) focused on an L2 methodology course with both a F2F and online component and noted that by the end of the course, the F2F participants had a greater sense of self-efficacy. However, in a follow up study that added a blended/hybrid group, all three sections of the course had similar self-efficacy scores, but the hybrid/blended course group saw the greatest efficacy gains (Kissau & Algozzine, 2014).

2.5.4 The practicum.

Finally, the practicum must also be noted as an important aspect of language teacher education. The practicum is often heralded as the most vital element of a teacher education program where prospective teachers can apply what they learned during coursework in the actual classroom under expert supervision. Novice teachers have emphasized the importance of the practicum and noted it as the most useful element of their teacher education program (Faez & Valeo, 2012), but there remain some programs that do not have mandatory practicums (Stanley & Murray, 2013; Stapleton & Shao, 2016). When programs offer certification, the practicum is often a vital component, but if programs do not offer certification, the practicum may be deemed unnecessary (Selvi, 2012). Stapleton and Shao (2016) confirm this by noting the practicum is most common when programs offer certification for P-12 settings in the United States and that practicums are less common on international MA TESOL programs.

The importance of the practicum cannot be overstated for preparing teachers, but the practicum must be appropriate and prepare teachers for the contexts in which they hope to teach. Furthermore, practicums must consider issues specific to NNESTs. Issues of proficiency and culture can be problematic for NNESTs studying in a teacher preparation program outside of

their home country (Brady & Gulikers, 2004). Methodological issues are also a potential problem as teachers' prior learning experiences may conflict with the lead teachers' espoused teaching practices and cause conflict (Brinton, 2004). Despite these potential difficulties, and the onset of more and more online practicums (Hall & Knox, 2009), the practicum is undoubtedly valuable for preparing prospective teachers and needs to be emphasized on programs (Faez & Valeo, 2012).

2.6 Linguistic Identity

Finally, Study 2 looks at the impact of teachers' linguistic identity on teacher self-efficacy. Traditionally, within ELT, teachers have been dichotomized into 'native-speakers' and non-native speakers (Braine, 2010; Medgyes, 1992). Native-speakers are often considered those that grew up in English speaking environments and were thus socialized into the language while non-native speakers are considered those that explicitly studied and learned the language at some point (Freeman, 2016). While these distinctions may be true in many cases, Faez (2011a) notes that the native/non-native dichotomy is often inadequate and does not capture the complex linguistic identities that teachers may have. Furthermore, native speaker and non-native speaker are difficult to define terms that do not hold up under intense scrutiny; rather, they are often used to exclude peoples from certain groups and often those with power are the ones who select who is 'in' or 'out' (Holliday, 2005). This is a worthwhile discussion because status as a non-native English speaking teacher (NNEST) can often have detrimental effects in the job market as employers emphasize nativeness as a key hiring requirement (Selvi, 2010). In his seminal work, Phillipson (1992) discussed the native-speaker fallacy, the belief that native speakers of English are somehow inherently better teachers of English simply because of their native-speaker status.

However, the issue of native speakers extends beyond the teachers themselves. This issue is perhaps captured best by Holliday (2005) who uses the term native-speakerism which is defined as “an established belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (p. 6). Thus, linguistic identity can encompass many factors, including language, culture, teacher training and even race, all of which can impact how teachers are viewed by others and themselves (Holliday, 2005; Pennycook, 1998).

However, discussions around NNESTs have progressed in the last two decades. Within the TESOL International Association, there is a NNEST Interest Section that advocates for NNESTs and supports research pertaining to NNESTs. Also, NNEST research is now an established area with many studies noting the benefits of the NNEST experience (e.g. Braine, 1999; 2010) and also showing that NNESTs are equally, if not more so, effective than NEST counterparts (Mahboob, 2005). While native speakerism still remains a prominent issue in ELT, many have resisted negative interpretations of NNESTs (e.g. Braine, 2010) and research is now moving beyond essentialized stereotypes of the NEST/NNEST dichotomy (Faez, 2011b) and looking at how these more complex identities may impact teachers. For example, Ellis (2006; 2013) notes that teachers have complex linguistic identities and that monolingual NESTs lack the valuable experience of learning another language. Related to self-efficacy research, Wyatt (2018b) argues that monolingual NESTs’ confidence may be negatively impacted by the constant criticism they receive in academic literature. On the other hand, NNESTs may be negatively affected if they are constantly compared with native speaker norms (Wyatt, 2018b). Because of these concerns, while acknowledging that there may be vast differences within groups, Study 2 in this thesis investigated the impact of linguistic identity on teachers’ self-efficacy.

2.7 Preview of 3 Studies

As mentioned, this dissertation takes an integrated article format. This chapter's review of previous literature and the theoretical perspective for this thesis provides a broad background to the three studies that comprise the research aspect of the dissertation. Within each study is a more focused literature review that expands on the content from this chapter. Study 1 outlines the design of a new English language teacher self-efficacy scale. Study 2 makes use of this new scale and investigates teachers' self-efficacy levels across the scale's factors and also the impact of classroom proficiency, general language proficiency, teaching experience, language teacher education, and linguistic identity on the self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers in North America. In Study 3, with the exception of linguistic identity, the same aspects are looked at to see if they predict self-efficacy beliefs for NNESTs in EFL contexts. Each study is framed as an individual 'stand-alone' article with all relevant sections and a reference list for each study. The three studies are followed by a Discussion section that summarizes the results of all three studies in relation to the broader literature and helps bring together all of the information presented in this dissertation.

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Chapter 3 (Study 1) - Designing a New English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Instrument

This study describes the design of a new English language teacher self-efficacy instrument, the English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (EL-TSES). Teacher self-efficacy refers to teachers' "beliefs about their own abilities to successfully perform specific teaching and learning related tasks within the context of their own classrooms" (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellet, 2008, p. 752). Empirically, belief in one's capabilities to complete teaching tasks has proven to be a powerful construct, impacting teacher motivation, teacher effort (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998), classroom performance (Klassen & Tze, 2014) and perhaps even student achievement (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006; Swanson, 2014). Within mainstream education, self-efficacy research has blossomed across numerous subject areas and domains of interest; however, its undertaking in (English) language teaching (ELT) is more recent (see Wyatt 2018b for review). Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) remains a broad and diverse field with varying regulations and standards across contexts. This has spawned discussions about what type of knowledge and capabilities teachers may need to succeed (e.g. Freeman, 2018; Richards; 2010; TESOL International Association, 2008), and also the role of language proficiency and its impact on teachers' capabilities in the classroom (e.g. Freeman, 2017). As the field of ELT continues to develop, professional confidence is now seen as crucial for English language teachers (Freeman, 2018), but ELT lacks an appropriate measure of English teacher confidence, more formally referred to as self-efficacy. This study seeks to address this gap and discusses the design of a new English-language teaching specific self-efficacy scale.

3.1 Self-Efficacy – Need for New Scale

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, numerous scales were developed to measure teachers' self-efficacy in general education (see Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). However, many of these scales were seldom used outside their original studies, and those that were, some are now criticized as conceptually flawed and inaccurate (e.g. the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES), Gibson & Dembo, 1984) (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Due to these concerns with previous measures, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was created at Ohio State University and published in 2001 (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The TSES consists of both a short-form 12 item version and a long-form 24 item version and it quickly became a highly utilized scale for efficacy researchers. The TSES measures self-efficacy across three sub-domains: Classroom Management, Student Engagement, and Instructional Strategies. Researchers have used the TSES to investigate these subfactors in relation to various elements (e.g. language proficiency, teacher reflection, etc.), but also as a measure of overall self-efficacy. Many researchers have attested to the validity and factor structure of the TSES (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Lee, 2009) and it has been used frequently in language teacher self-efficacy research. This is in part due to its reliable factor structure, but also because many initial language teacher efficacy studies emerged out of Ohio State University (e.g. Chacon, 2002; Lee, 2009; Liaw, 2004). Furthermore, because there was no suitable domain specific instrument for language teaching researchers to use, the TSES became the common survey used by researchers in language teaching. Thus, the TSES found widespread use and it has become the most commonly used instrument in language teacher efficacy research (Wyatt, 2018b).

However, the TSES has also been criticized (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2014; 2018a; 2018b). Self-efficacy scales should assess people's beliefs in their own capabilities; thus, they

should use ‘can do’ statements that focus on the person and the specific task (Bandura, 2006). Wyatt (2014) argues that self-efficacy assessment must take an Agent-Means perspective, meaning scales must address the beliefs of the teacher (i.e. Agent) about a specific teaching task (i.e. Means) as these “are clearly at the heart of any self-assessment of self-efficacy beliefs” (p. 171). However, many scales, including the TSES, at times focus on the ‘Ends’ (i.e. outcomes) and take an Agent-Ends perspective that provide insufficient information about the actual teaching task and instead focus on the outcomes of teaching (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2014). While it is important to consider the outcome of actions, self-efficacy is concerned with teachers’ beliefs in their abilities. Agent-Ends items focus on teachers’ beliefs about their abilities to enact an outcome, but without the ‘Means’ portion, there is little indication as to how this outcome will materialize (Wyatt, 2016). Such measures go against self-efficacy doctrine as Bandura (1997) emphasizes the importance of measuring one’s ability to complete a task, not necessarily the outcome, which is less predictive of behaviour. However, the TSES does not always adhere to a strict Agent-Means perspective with some of its items (Wyatt, 2018a; 2018b).

Furthermore, the TSES was developed for use in general education across all contexts. This created an issue of scale specificity for researchers seeking to investigate subject-specific domains. Self-efficacy scales must be created for particular domains; single measures are inadequate and overly generalized scales will lack accuracy (Bandura, 2006; Pajares, 1996). Scales must be designed in order to measure specific tasks, from an Agent-Means perspective, within a defined domain of work (e.g. English language teaching). Thus, if using a self-efficacy scale, it is important that the scale properly addresses the tasks required in that domain. Bandura (1997) notes three levels of generality for self-efficacy scales: specific, intermediate, and general. The ‘specific’ level measures self-efficacy for a particular performance under a specific

set of conditions. The next level, 'intermediate', measures self-efficacy for a class of performances "within the same activity domain under a class of conditions sharing common properties" (p. 49). Finally, the 'general' level measures self-efficacy beliefs without specifying the activities or conditions. In many instances, self-efficacy research seeks to determine classes of performance across "generic or prototypic classes of settings" (Bandura, 1997, p. 49), thus the intermediate level is often used. However, because the TSES is designed as a general education measure, it does not address many of the tasks required of language teachers and the 'generic' mainstream education classroom is certainly not the same as a 'generic' English language classroom. While a general teaching context will certainly share some aspects with the language classroom (e.g. the need to manage the classroom), using the TSES limits understanding as language teaching should be considered its own domain. Furthermore, because many of the items focus on outcomes (i.e. Ends) on the TSES, there is little specifics in terms of activities being enacted (Wyatt, 2014). Thus, the numerous studies that have used the TSES have provided insights into how teachers feel about their generalized abilities to manage the classroom, engage with students, and instruct students, but further specific understandings cannot be deciphered from the TSES with only minor alterations to items, which is the most common method for language teaching researchers when using the TSES (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008).

Another important aspect to note is how the TSES has been used in studies' analyses. Self-efficacy research has a largely quantitative history (Klassen, et al., 2011), but recent discussions have noted issues with quantitative conceptualizations of self-efficacy (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2014; 2018a; 2018b). Wyatt (2014) notes two types of self-efficacy: task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE) (Wyatt, 2014; Wyatt, 2018a; 2018b). Using scales, task-specific self-efficacy is measured via individual scale items that address a specific

teaching task. However, often self-efficacy scale results are added up to create omnibus scores of self-efficacy, which are more globalized measures attached to specific sub-domains (e.g. Classroom Management) (Wyatt, 2014). Such measures reduce behavioural predictability (Bandura, 1997; Wyatt, 2014), but they are nevertheless important in understanding teachers' more general confidence. Averaged scores of self-efficacy, either within a sub-domain or as general picture of overall self-efficacy, are still valuable as they allow for more complex statistical analyses. However, it is important to acknowledge and recognize this distinction. Studies that use the TSES, in both general education and language teacher education, often tally sub-domain scores (e.g. Yilmaz, 2011), or even use an overall efficacy score (e.g. Choi & Lee, 2016), which Wyatt (2014) argues represent more global self-efficacy beliefs as they are removed from the task-specific items. It is somewhat rare in quantitative research to conduct analysis with individual scale items. While this study follows Bandura (1997) and uses task-specific items, Wyatt's (2014; 2018b) distinction is noteworthy and must be considered.

Within other domains, researchers have noted some of the above-mentioned limitations of the TSES and sought to create their own instruments to measure teacher self-efficacy. For example, researchers have developed scales to: assess self-efficacy to teach secondary literacy in the United States (Harper, Duffin & Cribs, 2018), teach music and visual arts (Morris, Lummis, McKinnon & Heyworth, 2017), teach students with special needs and implement inclusive practices (Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012), teach in the Norwegian context (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007) and a host of other purposes. However, for (English) language teaching self-efficacy research, for the most part, the tendency has been to use the TSES in its original or modified form. As mentioned, to use the TSES, researchers often alter the scale items by a few words to make it applicable to language teaching (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Yilmaz, 2011), or even

translate it into a different language (e.g. Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). Other researchers have used the TSES but added new items and subfactors to make the scale more relevant to English language teaching in their respective contexts (e.g. Lee, 2009; Praver, 2014; Thompson, 2016). Other studies use the TSES as is, but alongside other scales (e.g. Swanson, 2010a; 2012), as recommended by Klassen et al. (2011) in order to measure teacher self-efficacy more generally and within a specific domain.

3.2 (English) Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Scales

While these efforts were certainly insightful and proved to be the initial forays into English language teacher self-efficacy, modifying a general education scale for English language teaching has its limitations. To alleviate this, researchers have sought to create (English) language teaching specific scales. Shim (2006) created a self-efficacy scale for English teachers in Korea. Similarly, Nishino (2012) and Tayama (2011) used self-developed measures for their studies in the Japanese context. However, these have yet to find use outside of their original studies as they were intended as study-specific measures. One notable attempt to create an English language teacher specific instrument comes from Akbari and Tavassoli (2014). Their scale contains 35 items across 7 factors (e.g. Efficacy in Classroom Management and Remedial Action, Efficacy in Social Adaptation etc.). The scale was developed in Iran, and while not explicitly stated, it appears much of the data is from Iranian teachers, making the instrument perhaps more suited to the Iranian EFL context. The scale does not adhere to self-efficacy doctrine of using 'I can' statements, as recommended by Bandura (2006). Rather, the scale uses lengthy vignettes, and asks teachers to assess their confidence in that scenario. Other self-efficacy scales have also shifted from the strict use of 'I can' statements, but the lengthy

vignettes make the scale perhaps more time consuming to complete, and also relevant, more difficult to translate if required.

Perhaps the most utilized language teacher specific self-efficacy scale is the Second/Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale (S/FLTES) created by Swanson (2010a; 2010b; 2012). The S/FLTES was initially a ten-item scale across two factors (Content Knowledge and Teacher as Facilitator), but after further investigation, a third factor, Culture, was added (Swanson, 2012) making the final scale a fourteen-item instrument across 3 factors. The S/FLTES has been used in multiple studies and is often used along with the TSES (e.g. Swanson, 2010a; 2010b; 2012; 2014). Swanson (2010a) developed the S/FLTES “in general terms, avoiding the microscopic inspection of FL teacher instruction” (p. 310), and it has been used in numerous studies by Swanson, but not by other researchers. Swanson (2010a) investigated foreign language teacher attrition in Georgia with the S/FLTES and noted the importance of teachers’ confidence to teach lower level students as an indicator of attrition. In a wide range scale of second/foreign language teachers in Canada and the United States, Swanson (2012) utilized the S/FLTES, and then again with foreign language teachers in the United States (Swanson, 2013; 2014). While the scale has been used by Swanson in his research, the broad perspective taken, while suitable for Swanson’s purposes, are not necessarily suitable for all researchers. Furthermore, the construct of Content Knowledge on the scale has been questioned (Choi & Lee, 2016; Faez & Karas, 2017; Wyatt, 2018b). The Content Knowledge factor presented by Swanson (2010a; 2012) seems to represent teachers’ general language proficiency capabilities. Swanson (2010a; 2012) is right to acknowledge the importance of language proficiency for language teachers, but the items do not pertain to tasks carried out by language teachers in the act of teaching. For example, items ask teachers to assess their capabilities to

write a letter to a pen pal, or read a newspaper, in the language they teach. Thus, the items under Content Knowledge pertain more to general language proficiency rather than task specific actions required of language teachers.

The S/FLTES is certainly a useful instrument. However, there is still the question as to if English language teaching can now be considered sufficiently unique from other language teaching contexts to require its own scale. Notions of World Englishes and English as an International Language (EIL) have now altered our thinking about the English language; these ideas do not necessarily transfer to other language teaching contexts. Furthermore, there is a need to somehow address teachers' language proficiency when addressing their self-efficacy. The S/FLTES does address proficiency, but as mentioned, does not incorporate this with specific tasks required of teachers. To properly address the relationship between teacher proficiency and teacher self-efficacy, it is important to address what classroom tasks teachers feel they are able to accomplish using English. Language teaching is uniquely situated in that language serves as both the medium of instruction, but also content for instruction (Freeman, 2016). In the English language classroom, English may be utilized for common classroom functions such as to maintain classroom discipline, organize groupings, provide homework information, and an endless host of other possibilities. However, while English can be used as the medium of instruction, as teachers use it, they are providing meaningful language input for students as they hear the language in the classroom. In some contexts, when students and the teacher share a common first language (L1), various tasks can be done in the L1. However, in English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts, this is not always a possibility. Furthermore, the benefits of exposure to English serves as motivation for teachers to use English whenever they can, even if it means to simply serve as exemplars, successful language users, for their students (Richards,

2017). Different contexts will require different levels of language proficiency, but regardless, an English teacher will require some English proficiency to succeed as an English teacher. This connection between language and instruction, somewhat uniquely found in the (English) language classroom, must be addressed when considering self-efficacy.

3.3 English Language Teacher Proficiency

Language proficiency can be measured in various ways, and can often be an inexact pursuit (Elder, 2001). There are standardized proficiency scales like the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) that are utilized to measure general proficiency. The CEFR measures language proficiency from a functional standpoint, assessing what language users can actually do with the language. From a second language acquisition perspective, researchers at times measure proficiency by looking at language complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) (Leclercq & Edmonds, 2014). Other researchers have noted the importance of differentiating between general proficiency and academic proficiency (Cummins, 1979) and more recently, Mahboob (2018) argues for a dynamic approach to proficiency assessment.

Recently, the necessity of general proficiency for language teachers has been questioned (Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017). For language teachers, especially non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, a high level of general proficiency may be difficult to obtain and not necessary (Freeman et al., 2015). As a solution, there is the notion that teachers may be better served learning a specialized classroom proficiency (i.e. knowledge of common phrases and words used in language classrooms) to use as language teachers (Freeman, 2017). Much like other domains that have specialized language

(e.g. medicine, engineering, etc.), teachers also have specialized language that they use. While this language often overlaps with general proficiency, this specialized proficiency has been identified and is much more useful for language teachers (Freeman et al., 2015). This emphasis on English-for-teaching (Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017), or classroom proficiency as used in this study, shifts the emphasis from general proficiency to a more relevant language skill set that emphasizes the language needed to succeed in the classroom, but also, the skillful use of the language to successfully teach English (Richards, 2017).

This distinction between general English proficiency and classroom proficiency is very important. The results regarding the relationship between general language proficiency and language teacher self-efficacy often vary; while there is often a correlation, the strength of the correlation can be inconsistent across studies in different contexts (Faez & Karas, 2017). Furthermore, as discussed, the relationship between the two presents methodological issues, especially when constructing self-efficacy scales for English language teachers. Choi and Lee (2016) argue that general language proficiency and self-efficacy are independent constructs that should be measured separately, arguing against Swanson's (2010a) scale. For the most part, studies adhere to this recommendation (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). For these studies, there are separate measures for self-efficacy and general language proficiency. The issue of whether to include proficiency items with self-efficacy is a methodological one, but general proficiency does not coincide with self-efficacy doctrine. Self-efficacy, to be measured correctly, refers to one's confidence in their ability to complete a specific task (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996). Self-efficacy does not refer to how much one knows, but rather, is an assessment of what one believes they can do (Bandura, 1997; Choi & Lee, 2016). While general proficiency measures, such as the CEFR, do assess one's capabilities with language, these are not specific to

the tasks of teachers in their professional lives. However, the notion of classroom proficiency provides a useful lens when measuring English language teacher self-efficacy and accounting for teacher proficiency. An English language teachers' confidence to do certain things in the classroom will inevitably be related to his/her ability to use the language they are teaching. Thus, the more task specific classroom proficiency is a useful lens for English language teacher self-efficacy. This perspective was utilized when developing this newly formed English language teacher self-efficacy scale.

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Generating initial items.

Initial items were generated by reviewing various TESOL standards documents to determine what capabilities are considered vital for English language teachers in the TESOL field. There were two main sources: *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* (TESOL International Association, 2015) and the *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults* (TESOL International Association, 2008). Both documents, as their titles suggest, use the standards approach. Standards can be defined as what "...teachers need to know, understand, and be able to do" (TESOL International Association, 2008, p. 186). The *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* list standards under 5 sub-domains for English language teachers: 1) Language, 2) Culture, 3) Instruction, 4) Assessment, and 5) Professionalism. Within each, there is a description as to what type of knowledge about each domain a teacher must possess, but also, what skills they must be able to demonstrate. Because self-efficacy focuses on one's perceived capabilities, and not one's knowledge, these were the focus. For example, looking at 2) Culture, teachers need to "demonstrate and apply to instruction the interrelationship

between language and culture, a knowledge of world cultures, and connections between cultural values and beliefs” (TESOL International Association, 2015, p. 11). Similarly, but with slightly different wording, the *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults* lists standards under 8 sub-domains: 1) Planning, 2) Instructing, 3) Assessing, 4) Identity and Context, 5) Language Proficiency, 6) Learning, 7) Content, 8) Commitment and Professionalism. These two documents served as the main starting point in generating items. The *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* was very useful as certificate programs are very common and often serve as initial qualifications for English language teachers, thus helping to establish a base level of skills necessary for novice English language teachers. The more detailed *Standards for ESL/EFL Teachers of Adults* provided further depth and added further information about what is expected of teachers. It should be noted, other documents were also consulted as secondary sources (e.g Kuhlman & Knezevic, 2015; TESL Ontario, n.d.; TESOL International Association, 2010). From this, an initial 38 items were generated across 5 sub-domains (See Table 1).

Table 1

Initial Sub-Domains and Sample Items

Sub-Domain	Sample Item
Language (10)	I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.
Instruction (15)	I can plan lessons that support authentic use of language and integrate reading, writing, listening, and speaking.
Assessment (5)	I can understand and use different requirements (national, local, institutional etc.) for measuring the progress of students.

Culture (3)	I can understand the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.
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Professionalism (5)	I can make use of classroom research to inform instruction.
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These 38 items were then sent to 9 experts for review. These experts included teacher educators (2) and university professors (7) who work in the field of TESOL/applied linguistics. Experts were asked to provide qualitative comments on the initial 38 items and offer comments on any items that were not clear or if any areas were not addressed. After expert review, some items were re-worded to avoid ambiguity and to make some items more specific while new items were also added based on the experts' comments. New items were added to address inadequacies with initial items, but also with the view that more items would be necessary for some of the sub-domains with low initial item numbers (e.g. Culture, Assessment).

After taking heed of the expert comments, and upon further reading, it was felt that the issue of language was not addressed properly by the initial items. The broad overarching category of 'Language' was deemed insufficient and it was separated into two categories: Language Instruction, which looked at teachers' confidence in their abilities to apply their language knowledge in the classroom, and Language Skills/Competencies, which broadly addressed teachers' confidence to teach the traditional language skills and competencies. This was done with some trepidation, especially for Language Skills/Competencies, as this is an overly simplistic way of viewing language. However, Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) included skills/components items in their scale, and due to the fact that many instructional materials are broken down into speaking, writing, etc., it was considered that teachers may view their own

confidence in these terms, thus these items were included. Also, to properly address the issue of proficiency for teachers, a Classroom Proficiency sub-domain was created based on new literature (e.g. Freeman et al., 2015; Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017). Classroom Proficiency items were generated from the ELTeach research report, which initiated the English-for-teaching concept, a language for specific purposes approach that highlights the specific language needed to teach English (Freeman et al., 2015; Young, Freeman, Hauck, Gomez, & Papageorgiou, 2014). Finally, planning items were initially included under the Instruction sub-domain, but based on expert comments, a separate Planning sub-domain was created with unique items. Thus, after expert review, and with consideration to these expert comments and new literature, the initial 5 sub-domains were expanded to 8 sub-domains. Within these 8 sub-domains, another 33 items were created, forming a total of 71 items in the initial item pool. Table 2 provides a sample item across each of the 8 sub-domains.

Table 2

Sub-Domains and Sample Items after Expert Review

Sub-Domains	Sample Item
Language Instruction (8)	I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.
Language Skills/Competencies (7)	I can teach listening.
Instruction (19)	I can provide students with appropriate feedback about their learning.

Planning (7)	I can plan instruction based on students' needs and interests.
Assessment (9)	I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.
Culture (8)	I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.
Professionalism (7)	I can reflect on my teaching to grow professionally.
Classroom Proficiency (6)	I can use English to manage classroom interactions.

3.3.2 Piloting.

The initial 71 items were piloted with 48 graduate students. The group consisted of 44 master level TESOL students and 4 applied linguistics doctoral students in a Faculty of Education in Ontario, Canada. The 48 pilot participants completed all 71 items, which were placed on a six-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree with no neutral point. The 4 doctoral students completed the survey with the researcher individually. This was done in order to make note of any difficult and/or unclear items as they were encouraged to comment on any items they did not understand. Piloting of the instrument with the 44 master level students occurred simultaneously and they did not have the opportunity to comment on any items they found unclear. Data from the 44 master level students was subjected to a correlational analysis. The correlations amongst items were examined to discover if any items were correlated above $r = .8$, and thus potentially measure the same construct. Only one correlation was above the $r = .8$

threshold, so these two items were combined into 1 item. Also, drawing on the qualitative feedback from the 4 doctoral students, 7 items were removed because they were unclear or redundant, resulting in a total of 8 items being removed from the 71 initial items. This left a total of 63 items across the same 8 sub-domains mentioned above. These 63 items were utilized for the main analysis of this study (See Table 3 for initial items and sub-domains).

Table 3

Sub-Domains and Items for Factor Analysis

Initial Sub-Domains and 63 Items
<u><i>Sub-Domain 1 – Language Instruction (LI) (7)</i></u>
1. I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.
2. I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.
3. I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.
4. I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.
5. I can apply my knowledge of the effect of context on language use (pragmatics) when teaching.
6. I can apply my knowledge of varieties of English (e.g. British English, American English etc.) to inform instruction.
7. I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.
<u><i>Sub-Domain 2 – Language Skills/Competencies (LS) (7)</i></u>
8. I can teach listening.
9. I can teach speaking.
10. I can teach reading.
11. I can teach writing.
12. I can teach pronunciation.
13. I can teach vocabulary.
14. I can teach grammar.
<u><i>Sub-Domain 3 – Instruction (I) (15)</i></u>

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15. I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
 16. I can use appropriate resources and materials.
 17. I can use available technology when teaching.
 18. I can teach students at different proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced).
 19. I can manage my time effectively for various activities, routines and procedures.
 20. I can provide students with appropriate feedback about their learning.
 21. I can provide clear explanations and rephrase instructions when necessary.
 22. I can promote autonomous learning.
 23. I can use a variety of teaching methods when teaching.
 24. I can create a stimulating and interesting learning environment.
 25. I can address individual learner variables when teaching.
 26. I can organize and manage constructive classroom interactions.
 27. I can adjust instruction when necessary.
 28. I can model natural English use.
 29. I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.

Sub-Domain 4 – Planning (PL) (7)

30. I can plan instruction based on students' needs and interests.
31. I can plan lessons that support authentic use of language.
32. I can identify and articulate short and long term language learning goals for students.
33. I can integrate learners' prior learning and background knowledge in planning lessons.
34. I can develop lesson plans that connect individual lessons to curriculum and program objectives.
35. I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.
36. I can select appropriate resources and materials.

Sub-Domain 5 – Assessment (A) (6)

37. I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer- etc.)
 38. I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.
 39. I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.
-

40. I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.

41. I can design appropriate assessment tasks.

42. I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.

Sub-Domain 6 – Culture (C) (8)

43. I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.

44. I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.

45. I can use my knowledge of learners' cultures to guide instruction.

46. I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.

47. I can use my knowledge of learners' identities to guide instruction.

48. I can use diversity as a resource in the classroom.

49. I can help learners connect and apply their learning to their home, community, and workplace.

50. I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.

Sub-Domain 7 – Professionalism (PR) (7)

51. I can make use of classroom research to inform instruction.

52. I can understand and make use of professional growth opportunities, including those provided by local, national, and international organizations.

53. I can apply professional and ethical standards.

54. I can establish appropriate relationships among teachers, students, and colleagues.

55. I can collaborate with colleagues in a variety of settings.

56. I can advocate for English teachers and learners in my context.

57. I can reflect on my teaching to grow professionally.

Sub-Domain 8 – Classroom Proficiency (CP) (6)

58. I can use English to manage classroom interactions.

59. I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.

60. I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.

61. I can use English to provide written feedback.

62. I can use English as the medium of instruction.

63. I can use English for all classroom functions.

3.3.3 Participants.

The full survey was administered online to $N = 571$ participants. The full survey asked participants to provide demographic information, their language teacher education (LTE) history, self-assessed general proficiency according to the CEFR, their sense of preparedness across contexts, and also complete the 63 self-efficacy items. Participants were invited to take the survey via message postings through different local TESOL organizations (e.g. TESL Ontario), international TESOL organizations (e.g. TESOL International Association) and applied linguistics listservs (e.g. LinguistList). Also, messages were posted in different local TESOL affiliate Facebook groups when permitted. This resulted in a large and diverse participant pool from: North America ($n = 271$); Asia ($n = 148$); Europe ($n = 82$); South America ($n = 53$); Africa ($n = 14$) and Oceania ($n = 3$). In terms of gender, the majority of participants were female ($n = 391$), followed by males ($n = 168$), and a small group who did not report their gender ($n = 12$). For linguistic identity, participants were asked to select across three categories: non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs, $n = 291$); multilingual native English speaking teachers (MultiNEST, $n = 192$); and finally monolingual native English speaking teachers (MonoNEST, $n = 83$). For the NNEST group, English is an additional language for these teachers and they formally studied the language at some point; the MultiNEST group identified as native English-speaking teachers (NESTs), but indicated they also knew another language, while the MonoNEST group consisted of teachers who identify as NESTs but do not know another language. Participants were also allowed to qualitatively indicate if these categories did not match their linguistic identity, and one participant identified outside these groups. The entire participant pool had a mean teaching experience of 12.33 years ($SD = 8.88$). Participants were also asked to indicate the LTE programs they had completed. This study focused on their highest

qualification obtained: Master degree ($n = 183$); certificate ($n = 96$); bachelor degree ($n = 93$); doctoral degree ($n = 33$); and diploma ($n = 32$). Some participants noted they had not completed any LTE specific qualifications ($n = 112$), while others did not provide LTE information ($n = 22$). To reiterate, while some teachers had taken more than one program, or had taken degrees that were not LTE specific, only their highest LTE qualification is reported here. Finally, participants taught across a variety of contexts: Universities/Colleges ($n = 201$); private schools ($n = 145$); public schools ($n = 111$); settlement/community programs ($n = 103$); and ‘other’ ($n = 58$), which included tutoring and onsite instruction to business people. Some teachers taught in numerous contexts, which is why the numbers are greater than $N = 571$.

3.3.4 Factor analysis.

With $N = 571$ participants, the sample size was sufficient to conduct a factor analysis (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). In simplest terms, “factor analysis is a method of grouping together variables which have something in common” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 674). An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was selected because the goal was to determine the underlying latent variables in the data set (Fabrigar, MacCallum, Wegener, & Strahan, 1999). A principal components analysis (PCA) was also considered, but PCA is utilized to reduce the number of variables, and does not necessarily involve testing of a hypothesis (Cohen et al., 2011; Fabrigar et al., 1999). Thus, it was deemed not appropriate for this analysis. While the initial 8 sub-domains served as a theoretical basis, an exploratory model was selected because this analysis did not seek to confirm any factor structure (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). Exploratory factor analysis is a statistical analysis, but it requires a lot of subjective decision making by the researcher, making it both ‘art and science’ (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012; Plonsky & Gonulal,

2015). This makes it a very interesting analytic tool, but it requires ample detail for the reader to fully understand decisions. The following paragraphs outline the exploratory factor analysis procedure undertaken in this study.

Using SPSS version 25, the initial 63 items were entered simultaneously utilizing the principal axis factoring setting. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic was .968 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$), indicating data were appropriate for factor analysis. Selecting the appropriate rotation is an important step when conducting factor analysis. Rotation can make results more interpretable, but it must be done appropriately. Gorsuch (2015) argues that in many cases, whether one chooses orthogonal or oblique rotations, the results will be very similar. However, in an orthogonal rotation, factors are not allowed to correlate with one another, while in an oblique rotation, factors are allowed to correlate (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For psychological constructs, it is perhaps unrealistic to believe factors will not correlate (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). Thus, it was determined to use oblimin rotation, a form of oblique rotation.

3.3.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis – round 1.

The initial 63 items produced a 9-factor solution that accounted for 54.48% of the variance (see Table 4 for factor loadings). In line with Fabrigar et al. (1999), the pattern matrix was analyzed for factor loadings as an initial method to retain items, but also with consideration of interpretability. There is no hard rule for an appropriate factor loading. Muijs (2011) argues for $> .3$, while Tabachnek and Fidell (2007) argue for $> .32$ as sufficient. Other studies have utilized $> .4$ as a benchmark (Sharma et al., 2012). As an initial benchmark, equal or greater than $.3$ was used for the first analysis; items that did not load equal or above $.3$ on any factor were deleted.

However, interpretability was also considered. If items loaded with other like items that allowed for an interpretable factor, they were maintained if the loading was sufficient. However, if the items did not form an interpretable factor, or they contributed confusion rather than clarity to a factor, they were deleted. Costello and Osborne (2005) note that it is acceptable to remove troublesome items with low loadings, cross-loadings, or ones that impact interpretability, and re-run analysis, but researchers must consider how this affects the data and also, after re-running analysis, an interpretable factor structure needs to emerge. It was expected that some items would need to be removed as this analysis was purely exploratory, thus removing of items was deemed acceptable. Because this initial solution produced 9-factors with poor loadings, cross-loadings and uninterpretable factors, items were removed with plans to re-run analysis to determine if an interpretable factor structure would indeed emerge.

Table 4

Factor Loadings after EFA Round 1

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(PL) I can plan lessons that support authentic use of language.	.375					.358			
(LS) I can teach reading.	-.356								
(C) I can help learners connect and apply their learning to their home, community, and workplace.	.339								
(LS) I can teach listening.	-.311								
(IN) I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.		.695							
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.		.632							
(C) I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.		.532							
(C) I can use my knowledge of learners' cultures to guide instruction.		.516			.406				

(PL) I can integrate learners' prior learning and background knowledge in planning lessons.	.413	
(C) I can use my knowledge of learners' identities to guide instruction.	.299	
(PR) I can advocate for English teachers and learners in my context.	.214	
(PR) I can reflect on my teaching to grow professionally.	.197	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	.670	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	.556	
(LS) I can teach grammar.	.523	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	.386	.384
(IN) I can teach students at different proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced).	.299	
(IN) I can provide clear explanations and rephrase instructions when necessary.	.271	
(IN) I can adjust instruction when necessary.	.261	
(A) I can design appropriate assessment tasks.	.729	
(A) I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.	.680	
(A) I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation, checklists, self-, peer-, etc.)	.667	
(A) I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.	.610	
(A) I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.	.603	
(A) I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.	.573	
(PL) I can develop lesson plans that connect individual lessons to curriculum and program objectives.	.402	
(PL) I can identify and articulate short and long term language learning goals for students.	.394	
(PR) I can make use of classroom research to inform instruction.	.389	
(LS) I can teach writing.	.352	
(PR) I can understand and make use of professional growth opportunities, including those provided by local, national, and international organizations.	.323	

(IN) I can use available technology when teaching.	.217	
(C) I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	.576	
(C) I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	.573	
(C) I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.	.471	
(LD) I can apply my knowledge of the effect of context on language use (pragmatics) when teaching.	.288	
(PL) I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	.608	
(IN) I can use a variety of teaching methods when teaching.	.550	
(PL) I can plan instruction based on students' needs and interests.	.510	
(IN) I can use appropriate resources and materials.	.506	
(IN) I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	.430	
(PL) I can select appropriate resources and materials.	.382	
(LS) I can teach speaking.	.312	
(PR) I can establish appropriate relationships among teachers, students, and colleagues.	.625	
(PR) I can collaborate with colleagues in a variety of settings.	.495	
(IN) I can create a stimulating and interesting learning environment.	.330	.404
(IN) I can provide students with appropriate feedback about their learning.	.333	
(IN) I can manage my time effectively for various activities, routines, and procedures.	.301	
(IN) I can address individual learner variables when teaching.	.298	
(IN) I can promote autonomous learning.	.296	
(PR) I can apply professional and ethical standards.	.262	
(IN) I can organize and manage constructive classroom interactions.	.250	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.	.645	
(LS) I can teach pronunciation.	.593	

(LI) I can apply my knowledge of varieties of English (e.g. British English, American English etc.) to inform instruction.	.370
(CP) I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	.747
(CP) I can use English as the medium of instruction.	.740
(CP) I can use English to provide written feedback.	.709
(CP) I can use English for all classroom functions.	.652
(CP) I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	.475
(CP) I can common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	.450
(IN) I can model natural English use.	.432
(LS) I can teach vocabulary.	.371
(C) I can use diversity as a resource in the classroom.	.301

Note. Loadings above .3 are shown. If item did not load above .3 on any factor, its highest loading is shown. Items in bold were maintained for second analysis, while non-bolded items were deleted. Initial sub-domain categories are in brackets beside each item.

Factor 1 was not interpretable. Four items loaded onto Factor 1, but they were from different initial sub-domains. Two items were from the Language Skills/Competencies sub-domain, one was from Culture, and another from Planning. Two of the items had negative loadings, which should not have occurred considering all of the items were positively worded with ‘I can’ statements. The loadings were marginally above the .3 minimum value, but it was difficult to determine how these items fit together for an interpretable factor. Looking at this initial analysis, it was readily apparent that analysis would be re-run after removing items, thus a very broad interpretation was initially used for factors in order to allow for potentially unexpected latent factors to emerge. However, even with a broad and forgiving interpretation, the items on this

factor were simply not interpretable. In light of this, and their only marginally acceptable loadings, all four items were deleted.

Factor 2 had five items load above the .3 minimum. While they were from different sub-domains, they all were related to using knowledge about learners (e.g. learners' L1, learners' communities) to inform instruction. These five items were maintained. This was an unexpected factor that emerged from the data. However, three items also loaded on this factor, but below the minimum .3 level. Thus, they were deleted.

Factor 3 consisted of four items with loadings above .3, three from Language Instruction and one from Language Skills/Competencies. These were all maintained. However, three items from Instruction also loaded on this factor, but they were below the .3 cut-off and were deleted for the next analysis.

Factor 4 contained all six of the Assessment sub-domain items with high loadings. However, it also had a mix of items from other sub-domains. Two items from the Planning sub-domain pertained to language objectives/goals and appeared broadly related to the other Assessment items. Because of this, and their sufficient loadings, they were maintained. However, two items from the Professionalism sub-domain also loaded on this factor, but did not appear related to any of the items. They were deleted. One Language Skills/Competencies item also loaded above .3, but it too was deleted because it did not appear to fit with the broad theme of the factor. Finally, one item from Instruction was deleted due to a low loading score on the factor.

Factor 5 consisted of four items with loadings above .3 (although one item did cross-load with Factor 2). All of these were from the Culture sub-domain and were maintained. One item from

Language Instruction loaded and it pertained to pragmatics, which could be related to the other culture items, but because its loading was below .3, it was deleted.

Factor 6 had nine items load on it, the majority of which were from Planning and Instruction sub-domains. Interpretation was somewhat difficult, but many items pertained to basic instructional capabilities and also the use of materials in the classroom. One item from Language Skills/Competencies loaded onto this factor, but it was deleted as it did not fit with the other items. One item cross-loaded with Factor 1, but as mentioned, was also deleted with all of the items from Factor 1.

Factor 7 was difficult to interpret as it had items from the Professionalism and Instruction sub-domains. Five items with loadings above .3 were maintained, but four items with poor loadings were deleted. While interpretation was difficult, the items with sufficient loadings were maintained because there was a general theme of instruction and collaboration. To explore this further, it was believed prudent to maintain these items for the next analysis.

Factor 8 consisted of three items, all of which seemed to relate to the teaching of phonology/pronunciation and different English varieties. This was unexpected, but all loadings were above .3, and considering the broad relationship between the items, they were all maintained for the next round of analysis.

Factor 9 contained all six Classroom Proficiency sub-domain items with high loadings. Interestingly, one item originally placed under Instruction also loaded on this factor; it pertained to the modelling of natural English in the classroom, which was interpreted as highly similar to the other items. Thus, it too was maintained. However, two other items loaded above .3, but were not interpretable with the other items and were subsequently deleted.

Summary of EFA Round 1:

After the first round of analysis, 22 items were deleted because of poor factor loadings and/or because they did not contribute to the interpretability of factors. As mentioned, factor analysis requires a lot of decision making by the researcher. However, it is also important to set unwavering statistical standards as well. For this analysis, any items below .3 were not maintained for the next analysis. This standard for items was strictly applied and resulted in the deletion of 10 items. However, 12 items above .3 were deleted, as mentioned above, because of interpretability. This was based on researcher interpretation and is acknowledged as a more subjective method for removal of items. This is discussed further in the Discussion section of this paper, but for this first analysis, a very broad interpretation was used for the factors. Thus, if an item could still not fit within the factor, even with such a broad interpretation, it was removed because it did not enhance the factor's interpretability, but rather, diminished it.

3.3.4.2 Exploratory factor analysis – round 2.

After deleting 22 items, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted with the remaining 41 items using principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation. This time, a 7-factor solution was produced accounting for 55.28% of the variance, a slight increase from the previous analysis. See Table 5 for full results. When interpreting what items to keep, this round also looked for loadings equal to or above .3, but also was mindful for cross-loadings. In the previous analysis, some items cross-loaded and were maintained if they loaded sufficiently on one factor that was interpretable, but this round cross-loaded items would be deleted. Furthermore, interpretability was also heavily considered again. Similar to the first analysis, if an item enhanced

interpretability, it was maintained, but if it diminished interpretability, it was removed. This relates to item redundancy. If items were deemed redundant, they were removed.

Table 5

Factor Loadings after EFA Round 2

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(PL) I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	.638						
(IN) I can use a variety of teaching methods when teaching.	.560						
(PL) I can plan instruction based on students' needs and interests.	.539						
(IN) I can use appropriate resources and materials.	.498						
(IN) I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	.436						
(IN) I can create a stimulating and interesting learning environment.	.387						
(IN) I can select appropriate resources and materials.	.349		.311				
(IN) I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.		.691					
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.		.580					
(C) I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.		.508					
(PL) I can integrate learners' prior learning and background knowledge in planning lessons.		.408					
(A) I can design appropriate assessment tasks.			.807				
(A) I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.			.762				
(A) I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.			.625				
(A) I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.			.569				
(A) I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.			.549				
(A) I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).			.532				
(PL) I can develop lesson plans that connect individual lessons to curriculum and program objectives.			.455				
(PL) I can identify and articulate short and long term language learning goals for students.			.443				
(IN) I can provide students with appropriate feedback about their learning.			.338				
(IN) I can manage my time effectively for various activities, routines, and procedures.			.313				

(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	.691	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.	.670	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	.537	
(LS) I can teach pronunciation.	.530	
(LI) I can apply knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	.497	
(LS) I can teach grammar.	.300	
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of varieties of English (e.g. British English, American English etc.) to inform instruction.	.294	
(PR) I can collaborate with colleagues in a variety of settings.	.567	
(PR) I can establish appropriate relationships among teachers, students, and colleagues.	.528	
(C) I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.		.700
(C) I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.		.679
(C) I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.		.535
(C) I can use my knowledge of learners' cultures to guide instruction.	.431	.523
(CP) I can use English for all classroom functions.		.713
(CP) I can use English as the medium of instruction.		.703
(CP) I can use English to provide written feedback.		.691
(CP) I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.		.677
(IN) I can model natural English use.		.522
(CP) I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.		.464
(CP) I can use English to manage classroom interactions.		.453

Note. Only loadings above .3 are shown. If an item did not have a loading above .3, its highest loading is shown. Bolded items were maintained for next analysis while non-bolded items were deleted.

Factor 1 was formerly Factor 6 and it contained the same items as before. Again, this factor required a broad interpretation as many of the items pertained to general instruction and lesson planning with some items specifically mentioning materials. This was a very broad interpretation, but this factor did not seem to have any of the sub-domain items predominantly forming unanimously on this factor. The items were maintained in order to see if interpretability

would be clearer with the next round. Only one item was deleted from this factor because it cross-loaded with Factor 3.

Factor 2 remained strong with five items all related to learner-focused instruction. However, the same item (I can use my knowledge of learners' cultures to guide instruction) continued to cross-load with Factor 6. This item was certainly suitable for both factors, as Factor 6 contained all items related to cultural instruction and Factor 2 had items that pertained to knowledge about students and how teachers can use this when instructing. While a strong item, because of the cross-loading, it was removed.

Factor 3 was formerly Factor 4. The original 6 Assessment sub-domain items all loaded cleanly on this factor, but again two items from Planning did as well and now two items from Instruction loaded on this factor. The items from Planning were initially maintained in the first analysis because of a very broad interpretation of the factor that pertained to assessment and language objectives/goals. However, with all of the Assessment sub-domain items loading on this factor, and considering they all had the strongest loadings, the two Planning items and the two Instruction items were deleted to make this factor clearly about teachers' capabilities to assess students.

Factor 4 saw the Language Instruction items come together. The items related to phonology/pronunciation and language varieties, which had formed their own factor, now all loaded on this factor. However, the two Language Skills/Competencies items (I can teach pronunciation and I can teach grammar) were deemed redundant and were removed. Many of the other Language Skills/Competencies items had already been deleted. Similar items loaded together for Akbari and Tavassoli (2014), but it was decided to remove them at this stage. These sub-domain items were consistently problematic and loaded onto separate factors for the first

two analyses. The item pertaining to language varieties was also removed because of a poor loading and because it did not fit with the other items.

Factor 5 contained the two final remaining items from the Professionalism sub-domain. These items had previously loaded on Factor 7 in the last analysis. Generally, it is advisable to have a minimum of 3 items for a factor (Costello & Osborne, 2015; Warner, 2013). With only two items, and because they were the last remaining Professionalism items, they were removed.

Factor 6 was formerly Factor 5. It contained items all related to culturally informed instruction. As mentioned, one item cross-loaded with Factor 2 and was thus removed. All other items were maintained.

Factor 7 contained all items from the Classroom Proficiency sub-domain and one item from the Instruction sub-domain. All loadings were high and there were no cross-loadings, thus all items were maintained.

EFA Round 2 – Summary

This analysis produced 7 factors for slightly more variance, but again, many items did not load well and interpretation of some factors remained an issue. However, five of the factors (Factors 2, 3, 4, 6, & 7) were relatively clear and interpretable. Factor 1 remained somewhat ambiguous but with high loadings, and with a broad interpretation that saw most items related to planning/instruction and with specific mention of materials, the sufficiently loading items were maintained. Initially, items pertaining to planning and instruction were included under one sub-domain, but after expert review, these were separated based on the expert comments. This partially impacted the decision to maintain these items for the next round of analysis, despite such a broad interpretation. Factor 5 proved to be an issue as it only had 2 items, all of which

came from the Professionalism sub-domain. These two items were removed, which meant all of the Professionalism items were now gone. The same can be said about the Language Skills/Competencies items as the two final remaining items were deleted from Factor 4 because they were perceived as redundant. In total, 11 items were deleted.

3.3.4.3 Exploratory factor analysis – round 3.

The remaining 30 items, after 11 were deleted in the previous analysis, were again factor analyzed using principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation. The third EFA produced a 6-factor solution for 56.67% of variance. This round produced, for the most part, an interpretable factor structure. However, Factor 1 remained an issue. Similar to the previous analysis, **Factor 1** had items from the Planning sub-domain and the Instruction sub-domain. While all of the items broadly related to teachers' abilities to instruct and plan lessons, such an ambiguous interpretation did not seem suitable for the final scale. However, three of the items still pertained to materials. Thus, it was decided to delete the three items that were more related to general planning and instruction and maintain the three materials items. This was partially done because of calls by Klassen et al. (2011) to measure more general items with a separate scale. With such few general items remaining, it was decided to focus the scale completely on English language teaching. Removal of these items meant that the factor now had the minimum number of items for a factor (Costello & Osborne, 2015), but the factor's focus and interpretability was now enhanced. This issue is discussed further below. See Table 6 for items that were maintained and deleted. **Factor 2** consisted of four items still related to learner-focused instruction, but one item (I can integrate learners' prior learning and background knowledge in planning lessons), while certainly related, pertained to planning of lessons. Because of this, and also partially because it

had the lowest factor loading, it was removed to make the factor specifically about instruction.

Factor 3, Factor 4, Factor 5, and Factor 6 were all maintained as is.

Table 6

Factor Loadings after EFA Round 3

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6
(PL) I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	.589					
(PL) I can plan instruction based on students' needs and interests.	.577					
(IN) I can use a variety of teaching methods when teaching.	.551					
(IN) I can use appropriate resources and materials.	.461					
(IN) I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	.397					
(IN) I can create a stimulating and interesting learning environment.	.333					
(IN) I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.		.789				
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.		.602				
(C) I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.		.521				
(PL) I can integrate learners' prior learning and background knowledge in planning lessons.		.346				
(A) I can design appropriate assessment tasks.			.822			
(A) I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.			.775			
(A) I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.			.669			
(A) I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.			.592			
(A) I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.			.582			
(A) I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).			.534			
(LI) I can apply knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.				.877		
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.				.649		
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.				.580		
(LI) I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.				.537		
(CP) I can use English for all classroom functions.					.745	
(CP) I can use English as the medium of instruction.					.745	

(CP) I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	.720
(CP) I can use English to provide written feedback.	.653
(CP) I can model natural English use.	.582
(CP) I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	.534
(CP) I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	.531
(C) I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	.772
(C) I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	.753
(C) I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture inform instruction.	.597

Note. Only loadings above .3 are shown. Bolded items were maintained for next analysis while non-bolded items were deleted.

3.3.4.4 Exploratory factor analysis – round 4.

After deleting four items, the remaining 26 items were factor analyzed again using principal axis factoring with oblimin rotation. However, when this 26-item scale was factored, it was reduced to a five-factor solution based on the eigenvalues above 1 strategy, known as the Kaiser principle (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The items previously on Factor 1 separated and loaded with the items from Assessment and Classroom Proficiency sub-domains. This made these factors uninterpretable. The previous rounds of analysis served as a useful exploratory analysis to determine which items loaded together and which items needed to be deleted to enhance interpretation. Because of this, there was less emphasis on the actual number of factors because items were still being removed. However, because the analysis was coming to an end, it was important to consider other methods of interpretation in regard to how many factors to retain. When determining the final factor number, it is advisable to consider numerous aspects, not just eigenvalues (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012; Loewen & Gonulal, 2015; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). With this in mind, a six-factor solution was forced to see if results

became more interpretable. The six-factor solution saw all three of the items related to materials again form their own interpretable factor. This left the final decision to either maintain the six-factor solution or remove the three materials items and maintain a five-factor solution with only 23 items. As mentioned, the 26 item 5-factor solution was not interpretable. While eigenvalues above 1 criterion suggested a five-factor solution, interpretability suggested a six-factor solution as preferred. The scree plot did not provide any further guidance as it did not show any obvious cut-off point. However, a parallel analysis was conducted using SPSS syntax from O’Conner (2000) and also using the free online software jamovi (jamovi project, 2018) and both analyses revealed a six-factor solution (See Figure 1). It is important to determine the correct number of factors (Costello & Osborne, 2015). The Kaiser principle of eigenvalues above 1, while common, is also flawed and can indicate an incorrect number of factors (Costello & Osborne, 2015; Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012). Parallel Analysis is much more reliable (Fabrigar et al., 1999). With this in mind, also with reference to Gorsuch (2015) who states it is preferable to have too many factors than not enough, the six-factor solution was maintained for the final scale. It was the most interpretable and was confirmed by the parallel analysis. This final 26 item, six-factor solution accounted for 57.71% of the variance. See Table 7 for final factor loadings and communalities.

Table 7

Final Factor Loadings and Communalities

Factor and Items	Factor Loading	Communality
<i>Factor 1 – Classroom Proficiency</i>		

I can use English as the medium of instruction.	.780	.602
I can use English for all classroom functions.	.770	.605
I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	.756	.639
I can use English to provide written feedback.	.668	.599
I can model natural English use.	.597	.489
I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	.571	.575
I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	.538	.543

Factor 2 - Learner Focused Instruction

I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.	.864	.706
I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.	.600	.457
I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.	.483	.472

Factor 3 – Assessment

I can design appropriate assessment tasks.	.869	.745
I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.	.795	.619
I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.	.677	.625
I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.	.629	.635
I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.	.606	.539
I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).	.597	.542

Factor 4 – Language Instruction

I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	.880	.693
I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	.652	.549
I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	.589	.562
I can apply my knowledge of the sounds system of English (phonology) when teaching.	.536	.336

Factor 5 - Culture

I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	.753	.651
I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	.736	.596
I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.	.615	.589

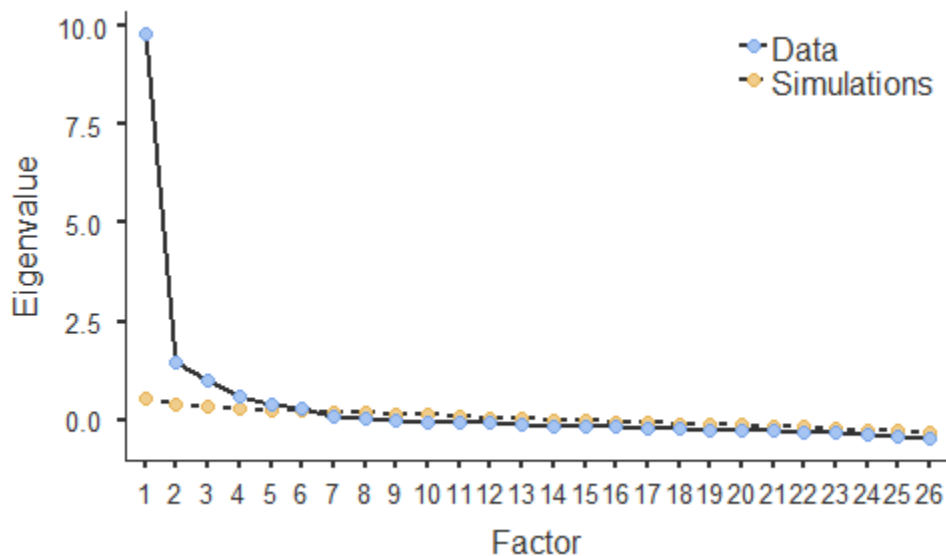
Factor 6 – Materials

I can use appropriate resources and materials.	.445	.602
I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	.421	.489
I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	.331	.547

Note. Items loaded below .3 on all other factors.

Figure 1

Scree Plot with Parallel Analysis



3.3.5 Description of factors.

Table 7 provides full information on each factor, specific items within the factor, factor loadings and communalities. This section describes the final factors and the labels given to each factor. Note that the factor numbers changed from analysis 3 (e.g. Factor 5 became Factor 1).

Factor 1 – Classroom Proficiency ($\alpha = .89$). The first factor eventually loaded as predicted with all of the six Classroom Proficiency sub-domain items strongly loading on this factor. However, it also includes an item from Instruction (I can model natural English use). This factor assesses teachers' confidence to effectively use English when teaching. It draws on the notion of English-for-teaching (Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017) to show the relationship between teachers' instructional capabilities and their language proficiency. The items in this factor emphasize the

importance of teachers' instructional abilities (e.g. providing feedback, managing classroom interactions, etc.) but also the importance that they are able to complete these tasks in English, the medium and target language of their classroom. With 7 items and all loadings above .5, this is a strong factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Factor 2 – Learner-Focused Instruction ($\alpha = .74$). The second factor was not anticipated. Rather, it emerged from the EFA. It consists of three items from three different sub-domains, one item originally from Instruction (I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills), one item originally from Language Instruction (I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching), and one item originally from the Culture sub-domain (I can use knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction). While not anticipated, the three items strongly loaded together and were interpreted as all relating to instruction that accounts for learners' backgrounds and teachers' abilities to instruct students while accounting for learners' individualities. With the minimum of 3 items, but strong loadings, this is an acceptable factor.

Factor 3 – Assessment ($\alpha = .90$). The third factor loaded as anticipated with all of the six Assessment sub-domain items loading on this factor. All six items were maintained from the sub-domain and all items had very high loadings and address teachers' confidence in their abilities to use various assessment strategies, make use of assessment results and connect assessments to learning objectives. With more than five items, and all loadings above .5, this is a strong factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Factor 4 – Language Instruction ($\alpha = .79$). This factor contains four of the initial seven Language Instruction sub-domain items. These items did not initially all load together, but after removing items, they eventually formed their own factor. All of the items pertain to teachers'

confidence in their abilities to apply their knowledge of language (e.g. syntax, morphology, semantics, and phonology) when teaching. The item pertaining to pragmatics did not load sufficiently to be maintained. Some items from the Language Skills/Competencies sub-domain did load with these items in the first and second analysis, but they were eventually removed because they were deemed redundant. For example, the item ‘I can teach pronunciation’ was viewed as the same as ‘I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching’. Other Language Skills/Competencies items (e.g. I can teach reading; I can teach vocabulary, etc.) were removed in previous rounds of analysis because they did not load on suitable factors. With four items, and strong loadings, this is a good factor.

Factor 5 – Culture ($\alpha = .81$). This factor loaded somewhat as expected with three of the eight Culture sub-domain items loading on this factor. While it was expected more items would be retained, these 3 items loaded onto one factor as hypothesized. The three retained items are all influenced by the *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* (TESOL International Association, 2015) document using similar wording. Thus, this factor measures teachers’ confidence in their capabilities to enact culturally informed instruction. With the minimum of three items, but with strong loadings, this factor is acceptable.

Factor 6 – Materials ($\alpha = .77$). This factor was not anticipated. Through each stage of analysis, items from the Planning sub-domain and Instruction sub-domain loaded together on this factor. While these were broadly related, and thus maintained during the initial phases of analysis, it was decided that maintaining all of the items would result in a somewhat ambiguous factor. Thus, the items that related to materials were maintained and the other items were deleted. The final three items were from the Planning sub-domain and Instruction sub-domain and assess

teachers' confidence in their abilities to develop and use appropriate materials for instruction. With the minimum of three items and with moderate loadings, this factor is acceptable.

To test the suitability of the scale as an overall measure of self-efficacy, a higher-order factor analysis was conducted using the statistical software Amos version 23. The results showed acceptable model fit (CFI = .92, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .06) indicating a second-order factor of overall self-efficacy that explains the six individual factors. The overall scale reliability was high ($\alpha = .93$). Floyd and Widaman (1995) note that for psychological constructs, it is common that factors will be correlated (See Table 8 for factor correlation matrix) and can form a higher order factor. Thus, this scale can be used at the individual item level, the single factor level or as an overall measure of self-efficacy. However, researchers should be aware of the implications of using the scale in different ways (see Wyatt 2014 for discussion on task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE)).

Reviewing the initial sub-domains in relation to the final factors, the sub-domains of Language Skills/Competencies and Professionalism had all of their items removed after analysis. The Planning sub-domain only has one item maintained in the final scale. Instruction has four items remaining, while Language Instruction has five items remaining. The Assessment and Classroom Proficiency sub-domains each had six items maintained in the final scale as no items were deleted from either sub-domain.

Table 8

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	CP	LFI	Assess	LI	Culture	Materials
CP	1					
LFI	.156	1				

Assess	.526	.316	1			
LI	.473	.363	.495	1		
Culture	.454	.398	.478	.507	1	
Materials	.385	.083	.395	.299	.310	1

Note. CP – Classroom Proficiency; LFI – Learner-Focused Instruction; Assess – Assessment; LI – Language Instruction

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics

Factor and Items	Mean	Stand. Dev.
<i><u>Factor 1 – Classroom Proficiency</u></i>		
I can use English as the medium of instruction.	5.54	.665
I can use English for all classroom functions.	5.38	.796
I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	5.45	.659
I can use English to provide written feedback.	5.48	.674
I can model natural English use.	5.33	.831
I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	5.50	.661
I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	5.48	.669
Classroom Proficiency – Total	5.45	.551
<i><u>Factor 2 - Learner Focused Instruction</u></i>		
I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.	4.75	1.10
I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.	4.77	1.22
I can use knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.	4.81	.962
Learner-Focused Instruction – Total	4.78	.890
<i><u>Factor 3 – Assessment</u></i>		
I can design appropriate assessment tasks.	4.99	.947

I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.	4.97	.966
I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.	5.09	.845
I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.	5.05	.860
I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.	4.99	1.00
I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).	5.09	.967
Assessment – Total	5.03	.753
<i>Factor 4 – Language Instruction</i>		
I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	5.11	.918
I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	5.27	.793
I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	5.37	.708
I can apply my knowledge of the sounds system of English (phonology) when teaching.	4.93	1.02
Language Instruction – Total	5.17	.676
<i>Factor 5 - Culture</i>		
I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	5.08	.867
I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	5.26	.791
I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.	5.18	.900
Culture – Total	5.18	.721
<i>Factor 6 – Materials</i>		
I can use appropriate resources and materials.	5.40	.709
I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	5.39	.777
I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	5.40	.729
Total – Materials	5.40	.610
Overall Self-Efficacy	5.20	.521

Note. Mean scores out of 6.

3.4 Discussion

The final 26-item scale across 6 factors provides a useful English language teacher self-efficacy scale that can be used for further research. However, further studies are needed to confirm the factor structure and perhaps expand on the 26 items. The individual factors varied in terms of their strength. Costello and Osborne (2005) argue that factors with five or more items and with loadings of .5 or above are “are desirable and indicate a solid factor” (p. 5). Looking at these six factors, Classroom Proficiency and Assessment meet this criteria and were thus described as strong factors. Language Instruction had four items, thus one below Costello and Osborne’s (2005) level, but above the minimum of 3, and is described as good. Finally, the remaining factors of Learner-Focused Instruction, Culture, and Materials each only had three items, which is the minimum (Costello & Osborne, 2005). These are deemed acceptable, but with the acknowledgement that these factors could be strengthened with further items and confirmatory analysis. The higher-order factor analysis showed reasonable model fit indicating the scale can be used as a broader measure of overall English language teacher self-efficacy. However, to reiterate, further analysis with a new group of participants is required to confirm the first order and second order factor structures.

When compared with the initial 8 sub-domains drawn from the TESOL standards documents, the final 6 factors stray from these sub-domains somewhat. This is similar to Harper et al. (2018) who created a self-efficacy scale to assess teachers’ self-efficacy to teach literacy in secondary schools across the United States. This perhaps shows that professional standards documents do not always align with psychometric analysis. The English language teacher self-

efficacy instrument developed by Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) also resulted in factors that were not originally foreseen.

The first factor, Classroom Proficiency, reflects the importance of language proficiency for English language teachers, but in relation to specific classroom tasks they enact. The items in this factor drew on new research that highlights the importance of classroom English for teachers, rather than more broad and generalized measures of proficiency (Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017). This partially addresses issues noted by other scholars (e.g. Choi & Lee, 2016; Faez & Karas, 2017; Wyatt, 2018b) with how to best incorporate language proficiency with self-efficacy scales. As mentioned, Swanson (2010a; 2012) included measures of general proficiency under the heading of Content Knowledge, but this focus on general proficiency has been criticized, with researchers arguing that general measures of proficiency should be separate from self-efficacy measures (Choi & Lee, 2016; Faez & Karas, 2017; Wyatt, 2018b). The notion of Classroom Proficiency includes teachers' language proficiency, but also includes a pedagogical element as teachers must consider their abilities to complete these tasks in English. Teachers' ability to enact classroom tasks in the target language is worth consideration as this allows them to use English more in the classroom and expose their students to more valuable language input (Freeman et al., 2015; Freeman, 2017, Richards, 2017). Lee (2009) included an Oral English Language Use factor on her scale, and this study has followed by drawing on recent research to address an aspect that is unique to (English) language teaching, the fact that language serves as both medium and content in the language classroom and teachers should consider their abilities to do different tasks in that medium.

The second factor, Learner-Focused Instruction, was not anticipated in the initial sub-domains and emerged from the factor analysis. The three items in this factor were initially under

Language Instruction, Culture, and Instruction. All three items pertain to teachers' abilities to effectively draw on students' languages/backgrounds to inform instruction. While not highlighted in the initial sub-domains, it was interesting to see these items form a unique factor despite not being hypothesized. A more recent TESOL principles document highlights the importance of knowing about learners as crucial for teachers (TESOL International Association, 2018). While differentiated instruction is certainly not new in English language teaching, students' different languages and their communities can present interesting challenges for teachers, especially in ESL contexts where they may have students from a variety of language backgrounds and from a variety of different communities. The mean score on this factor was the lowest, indicating teachers felt the least confident in regard to these items. Future research that compares teachers in EFL contexts and ESL contexts would be useful in relation to this Learner-Focused Instruction factor.

The third factor, Assessment, and the fifth factor, Culture, loaded for the most part as anticipated. They contain only items from the initial sub-domains. The final Assessment factor looked at teachers' ability to assess students and was influenced by the TESOL standards documents (TESOL International Association, 2008; 2015). All of the initial Assessment sub-domain items were maintained after the analysis. Swanson's (2012) S/FLTES did not contain an Assessment factor, but assessment is addressed by Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) who incorporate assessment with materials on the factor: Efficacy in Classroom Assessment and Materials Selection. However, the Culture factor only retained three items from the initial sub-domain. These three items mostly relate to wording from the *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* (TESOL International Association, 2015). Swanson's (2010a) initial FLTES did not have a Culture factor, but later on the S/FLTES, a Culture factor was added. The

results from this analysis partially confirm these results as items pertaining to culturally informed instruction again formed their own unique factor.

The fourth factor, Language Instruction, loaded somewhat as expected, but only four of the initial seven items loaded on this factor, with one item also loading on Factor 2. Addressing specific language teaching elements was difficult as language teaching is very complex. While materials are often segmented to focus on individual skills/competencies (e.g. teaching speaking, teaching vocabulary, etc.), language teaching is much more complex than this. Thus, the items in this factor were worded as an attempt to avoid this overly simplistic interpretation. All of the items pertain to teachers' capabilities to apply their knowledge of language to instruction, which is drawn from the *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* (TESOL International Association, 2015, p. 21). These items are perhaps somewhat less task-specific than others as the statements are more ambiguous. Furthermore, there is no way of knowing how much knowledge a teacher may have and self-efficacy is not a measure of knowledge, but rather what one believes they can do. Thus, while these items are less specific than others, it was still believed that they allowed teachers to consider their capabilities to address issues of syntax, semantics, phonology and morphology when teaching. The item pertaining to pragmatics did not load sufficiently and was removed, but its importance is certainly acknowledged. Furthermore, the items from the Language Skills/Competencies sub-domain were all removed. Many loaded across various factors and with poor loadings. Swanson (2010a) did not include specific items pertaining to skills and competencies on the S/FLTES because he noted this as an overly simplified view of language. Swanson's (2010a) hesitations are partially confirmed with this study. The factor analysis results reflected this complexity as the items did not fit together into a unique factor, spreading across numerous factors that were not interpretable.

The final factor, Materials, was another unexpected factor much like Factor 2. However, it was decided that it was a useful factor to maintain considering the pervasiveness of materials in English language teaching. While only three items, the factor allows teachers a chance to consider their capabilities to design/adapt and use materials for English language teaching. The S/FLTES does not address issues of language materials (Swanson, 2012), but as mentioned, Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) address materials with their scale on a combined factor with assessment. With only three items, and considering it was unexpected, this factor potentially requires further research. Using language teaching materials remains important, both as a field of study and as a practical endeavour required of language teachers (Tomlinson, 2012). Future research may benefit from expanding on these items, and also considering the differences between novice and experienced teachers with materials. Previous research has shown that more experienced teachers are more likely to deviate from materials compared to their novice counterparts (Tsui, 2003). Addressing teachers' confidence in their abilities to adapt/use materials for instruction is highly valuable, especially considering teachers are at times unhappy with materials they use as they are not always designed for specific contexts, may not be based in principles of second language acquisition, and may lack creativity making them dull and mundane (Bao, 2018).

It was interesting to note that the Instruction items did not form a specific factor, despite having the most items in the initial sub-domain (15). Only four items were actually maintained on the scale, but they were spread across different factors. In some studies, researchers use more domain specific measures along with the generalized TSES as a way to measure domain specific self-efficacy and more general teaching abilities (e.g. Swanson, 2010a; 2012). Klassen et al. (2011) have argued this as best practice for accounting for more domain specific aspects, but also

general teaching capabilities that are likely common across all classrooms (e.g. classroom management, student engagement etc.). Because many of the Instruction items are removed, this scale does not measure many of the more general teaching capabilities required of teachers. Thus, researchers may have to use more general measures or develop different items/scales to do so. Planning and Professionalism, also 2 initial sub-domains, were also all removed from the final scale with no Professionalism items being maintained and only one Planning item maintained as part of the Materials factor. While few would argue against the importance of planning lessons and acting professionally, they did not form unique factors. One possible reason for this is that many of the items did not actually relate to specific in-class tasks. Planning items loaded across multiple factors and often had poor loadings and the same occurred for Professionalism items.

This study and this scale both have limitations which must be acknowledged. As discussed, the initial items were drawn from TESOL standards documents but the final factors did not match the initial 8 sub-domains. This may be in part due to the analysis used. While factor analysis is a useful method to discover underlying latent factors, the initial sub-domains are not necessarily designed for this purpose. Also, the participants must be noted. While the participant pool is large and reasonably diverse, the majority of the teachers come from North America and Asia, with very few coming from Africa or Oceania. Furthermore, the scale was reduced to 26 items from the initial 63. This makes the scale more usable, but inevitably, some information is lost.

The scale itself is a useful tool but designing a scale for all English language teachers and all English language teaching contexts is itself problematic. The scale was designed for broad purposes, but this means that potentially important elements that are unique to specific contexts

are not included. However, this scale can be used as a measure of global self-efficacy (GSE), which Wyatt (2014; 2016) notes is less context-specific and more generalized. The scale items were created focusing on specific tasks required of English language teachers. However, some items are perhaps more general. All items were written with an agent-means perspective, as instructed by Wyatt (2018b), but there are still degrees of specificity within the items. For example, some items use wording about applying knowledge (e.g. Factor 2, Learner-Focused Instruction, - I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching), which may be somewhat ambiguous. Self-efficacy measures perceived capabilities, not perceived knowledge, thus such items were included as measures of teachers' perceptions about their capabilities to apply their knowledge when teaching. However, they do not act as measures of knowledge, and there is no way of knowing how much knowledge a teacher may have from this survey alone. The final 26 items and 6 factors were selected because they showed strong statistical results and were also highly interpretable. However, they do not represent all there is to English language teaching. English teaching is complex, and there are certainly other aspects that could be added to the scale. Future researchers may benefit from using this scale in combination with self-designed scales that focus more on the intricacies associated with the specific teaching contexts under study. Future studies could also use previously designed scales (e.g. Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Swanson, 2012) along with this scale to further enhance understanding about (English) language teacher self-efficacy and move away from the field's overreliance on general education measures.

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Chapter 4 (Study 2) – Self-Efficacy Beliefs of North American English Language Teachers

Discussing the (new) knowledge base for language teacher education (LTE), Freeman (2018) notes that imbuing teachers with confidence should now be acknowledged as an important duty of LTE. However, (English) language teachers' confidence stems from more than just teachers' qualifications. Academic research into teachers' confidence often focuses on their self-efficacy beliefs, defined as “teachers' individual beliefs about their own abilities to successfully perform specific teaching and learning related tasks within the context of their own classrooms”

(Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier & Ellett, 2008, p. 751). When considering teachers' self-efficacy, numerous factors need to be considered. For English language teachers, language proficiency is often noted as crucial for teachers' confidence (e.g. Kamhi-Stein, 2009; Murdoch, 1994). At times, the issue of proficiency is connected with teachers' linguistic identities as non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) are unfairly compared with native speaker norms and judged as lacking the ability to teach (Holliday, 2005). Beyond these, teachers' career stage also needs to be considered. Farrell (2012) notes that the early years of teachers' careers are often very difficult and that many teachers simply quit the teaching profession because of these early difficulties. However, while moving beyond the novice stage is encouraging as teachers gain more experience, it is still unclear if teachers' confidence actually improves the longer they teach

(Akbari & Mordkhani, 2010). These variables have often been assessed in isolation, but few studies appear to consider all of these elements at the same time and how they may impact teachers' self-efficacy. This study seeks to address this issue.

Using the newly formed English language teacher self-efficacy scale discussed in Study 1, this study assesses the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers in the United States and Canada, and also, what aspects may impact these self-efficacy beliefs. Utilizing multiple regression analyses, this study investigates the impact of two types of self-perceived language proficiency: specialized classroom proficiency and also general proficiency as self-measured by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). Furthermore, along with proficiency, it investigates teachers' experience in years, their linguistic identities, and also the impact of teaching qualifications on teacher self-efficacy. The following research questions guided the study:

- 1) What are the levels of self-efficacy beliefs for English language teachers in Canada and the United States?
- 2) What variables impact the self-efficacy beliefs of ESL teachers?

4.1 Language Teacher (Global) Self-efficacy

There remains some disagreement about how to best conceptualize self-efficacy. In general education, self-efficacy was referred to as an 'elusive' construct as theoretical confusion appeared to plague research in early self-efficacy work (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). In language teacher education, Wyatt (2018) notes that research is less stricken with issues of conceptual confusion. While early efficacy work in general education was influenced

by different theoretical orientations, language teacher self-efficacy research is firmly placed within Bandura's (1986; 1997) sociocognitive theory (Wyatt, 2018). However, Wyatt (2018) argues there remains confusion differentiating between task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE). Wyatt (2018) notes that global self-efficacy is a more generalized form of self-efficacy that is less contextually bound, more generalized and less specific to a task, and also potentially more stable. Global self-efficacy can be equated with teachers' general confidence in their abilities to broadly achieve success in elements such as classroom management, teaching literacy, etc. (Wyatt, 2018). On the other hand, task-specific self-efficacy (TSE), as its name suggests, is more bound to specific tasks and contexts, is more dynamic, and leads to more globalized efficacy beliefs (i.e. confidence) (Wyatt, 2016; 2018). Wyatt (2014; 2018) notes that while many studies purport to investigate TSE, many in fact investigate GSE and misconstrue the results as TSE. Wheatley (2005) notes a similar pattern in general education research. This is partially due to the quantitative nature of self-efficacy research. Many studies use scales with various subfactors and tally these subfactors to create subfactor scores and at times an overall numerical self-efficacy score. Thus, while individual scale items may pertain to a specific task and be in line with TSE, when scores are tallied and presented as subscale and/or overall self-efficacy scores, these are more representative of global self-efficacy beliefs (Wyatt, 2014; 2018).

The majority of studies in language teacher self-efficacy research have used a measure from general education, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschanen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), and often these studies present results in terms of global self-efficacy. Some studies discuss teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in terms of an overall self-efficacy score, taking the total score from the TSES, (e.g. Crook, 2016), while others use the specific factors

from the TSES and present scores pertaining to Classroom Management, Student Engagement, and Instructional Strategies (e.g. Yilmaz, 2011). These studies have given us initial insights into teachers' global self-efficacy beliefs, which as mentioned, can be equated with more generalized confidence (Wyatt, 2014). However, interpreting numerical values of self-efficacy is not necessarily straightforward and it can be unclear how to best decipher meaning from numerical self-efficacy scores. While a score may seem 'high' or 'low', it is not always clear for researchers to make claims about teachers' level of self-efficacy merely based on the score as this requires some level of comparison (Wyatt, 2018b). For example, Choi and Lee (2016) look at English teachers in Korea and note a mean overall self-efficacy score of 4.51 out of 6, which they describe as "relatively high" (p. 55). Other studies do not provide the overall score, but break down scores based on the TSES factors. Chacon (2005) uses the TSES and notes teachers felt most confident in their Instructional Strategies ($M = 7.13$ out of 9), followed by Classroom Management ($M = 7$) and then Student Engagement ($M = 6.59$). Eslami and Fatahi (2008) note similar results with their Iranian participants who also felt more efficacious in their Instructional Strategies (4.26 out of 5), followed by Classroom Management ($M = 4.17$) and then Student Engagement ($M = 4.02$).

For many studies, however, the actual numerical value attributed to teachers' self-efficacy is often not the focal point of the study as researchers seek to understand teachers' self-efficacy in relation to other factors (e.g. language proficiency, student achievement et al). However, while comparison across studies may be difficult, even when studies use the TSES, it is important to consider teachers' self-efficacy levels, not necessarily as a dichotomous 'high/low' distinction, but rather in terms of the impact teachers' self-efficacy levels may have on their teaching and future development. There are two main theoretical perspectives to consider. The

first perspective was developed by Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (1998) and viewed teacher self-efficacy as a ‘more is better’ construct where higher self-efficacy led to enhanced teacher performance. In this perspective, medium or lower self-efficacy scores are considered detrimental as they can negatively impact teachers (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). However, this conceptual model, although not explicitly stated, appears more suited to global self-efficacy beliefs (Wyatt, 2016). Arguing against Tschannen-Moran and colleagues’ (1998) model, Wyatt (2016) explicitly distinguishes between TSE and GSE in this theoretical model and notes that some self-doubt about specific teaching capabilities is actually beneficial as this encourages teachers to engage in self-development. On the other hand, higher GSE can serve as protection for language teachers and give them the courage to attempt new classroom tasks (Wyatt, 2016). In Wyatt’s (2016) distinction, teachers’ TSE beliefs eventually lead to more stabilized GSE beliefs that are equated with general teaching confidence. Thus, while studies present global self-efficacy scores often as descriptive information, it is important to further analyze teachers’ levels of self-efficacy and consider how these impact teachers’ future development. This study presents individual scale items that represent TSE beliefs, but they are also tallied and presented as an overall score for each scale factor, representing GSE beliefs. These are further interpreted at the end of the study, but first, a review of the literature on if/how the aforementioned variables impact these beliefs.

4.2 Variables that Impact (English) Language Teachers’ (Global) Self-Efficacy Beliefs

4.2.1 Teacher language proficiency and self-efficacy.

The issue of language proficiency has long been discussed by ELT researchers and it is often acknowledged as a key element for language teachers’ general confidence (e.g. Kamhi-Stein,

2009; Richards, 2010), with some even arguing that “for non-native English teachers, English proficiency will always represent the bedrock of their personal confidence” (Murdoch, 1994, p. 254). Broadly applied, this notion appears uncontroversial. However, when focusing on self-efficacy and the various tasks required of teachers, the relationship between proficiency and self-efficacy is more complex. Most studies use measures of general proficiency to assess this relationship, but general language proficiency does not situate language proficiency in terms of teaching tasks. Recently, scholars have argued that overemphasizing the importance of general language proficiency is not ideal for language teachers who require their own more specific type of proficiency to succeed in the classroom (Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017). General proficiency has not been linked with student success and is rooted in native speakerism ideology which unjustly favours native-English speaking teachers (NESTs) over non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) (Freeman, 2017). However, when analyzing the relationship between self-efficacy and proficiency, general proficiency measures are predominantly used.

Mainly assessed via correlational analysis, previous studies have found a moderate relationship between self-efficacy and general language proficiency (Faez & Karas, 2017). For example, looking at the overall relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy, Digap (2016) found a correlation of $r = .32$ with teachers in the Philippines. With teachers in Thailand, Crook (2016) also noted a moderate relationship of $r = .39$. In Iran, Marashi and Azizi-Nassab (2018) found a stronger relationship of $r = .45$. All of these studies use the TSES as a measure of self-efficacy. Studies that do not use the TSES have noted a stronger relationship. For example, Nishino (2012) notes a relationship of $r = .55$ for the Japanese teachers in her study. A recent meta-analysis found that when looking at the overall relationship between global self-efficacy

and general proficiency, the correlation is in the low to moderate range ($r = .37$), indicating proficiency as only one aspect of teachers' confidence (Faez, Karas, & Uchiyama, 2018).

Looking at the TSES subscales and overall proficiency, the same meta-analysis found proficiency to be more important for teachers' Instructional Strategies ($r = .37$) compared to the relationships found with Student Engagement ($r = .28$) and Classroom Management ($r = .24$) (Faez et al., 2018). This brings about the important discussion about what classroom aspects English may actually be used for as it may serve different functions in different contexts. As an example, the research data in Lee's (2009) study found that teachers did not use English for classroom management issues as this was done in Korean, meaning English was less important for that element of the classroom. When looking at different language skills and different efficacy subscales, the results across studies are also somewhat varied (Faez & Karas, 2017; Faez et al., 2018). The strongest correlations were found in Ghasemboland's (2014) thesis and ranged from $r = .78$ to $.92$, but these results are clear outliers when compared with other studies (Faez et al., 2018), and unfortunately, the author offers no interpretations as to why these effect sizes are so large. When excluding Ghasemboland (2014), most correlations are similar to the overall relationship and are low to moderate across the language skills and different TSES subscales (see Faez & Karas, 2017 for review).

Most studies use self-perceived general measures of language proficiency to assess its relationship with self-efficacy, with a select few using external objective measures (e.g. Sabrokouh & Barimani-Varandi, 2013; Thompson, 2016). Because these studies deal with teachers' self-perceptions of their abilities, some argue that self-report measures are appropriate (Yilmaz, 2011), despite their limitations and noted inaccuracies (e.g. Trofimovich, Isaacs, Kennedy, Saito, & Crowther, 2014). Regardless, in general, there appears to be a positive

relationship between self-efficacy and general proficiency, indicating that as teachers perceive their general language capabilities to be higher, their self-efficacy to teach a language also increases (Faez & Karas, 2017; Faez et al., 2018). However, because the notion of English-for-teaching (Freeman et al., 2015; Richards, 2017), or the synonymously used term ‘classroom proficiency’ which is used in this study, is more recent, this has not been considered when investigating the relationship between proficiency and self-efficacy.

4.2.2 Teaching experience and self-efficacy.

When looking at the impact of teaching experience on self-efficacy, results are somewhat mixed (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010). For teachers in Iran, experience was a significant indicator of higher self-efficacy as teachers with more than 3 years’ experience showed higher efficacy on TSES subscales (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010). However, looking at teachers’ efficacy to teach literature, again in Iran, no difference was found between novice and experienced teachers (Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2013). For teachers in Venezuela, their personal teaching efficacy (PTE) was not correlated with experience, but general teaching efficacy was negatively correlated with experience, indicating somewhat of a reality breaking effect (Chacon, 2002). Conversely, for teachers in Korea, a positive relationship was found between PTE and elementary teaching experience (Lee, 2009), but more experienced teachers felt less efficacious when using instructional strategies, especially those that required English, in the classroom (Lee, 2009). This is likely because older teachers had less English proficiency than their novice counterparts (Lee, 2009). Other studies have focused on teachers’ experience as both a general teacher and as an English language teacher, noting experience as a general teacher seemed to impact self-efficacy, but experience as an English teacher did not for elementary teachers in

Thailand (Crook, 2016). Praver (2014) divides Japanese teachers into broad groups of experience and notes that those with 11 years of experience or more had higher efficacy than those with 0 – 10 years, although such broad ranges of experience may limit interpretations. Thus, the results appear mixed as to how years of experience may impact self-efficacy and also what type of teaching experience may be most beneficial.

4.2.3 Linguistic identity and self-efficacy.

The issue of linguistic identity is often discussed in relation to teachers' general confidence, especially non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). Generally speaking, teachers who identify as NNESTs can have their confidence negatively impacted because of their status as 'non-native' teachers (e.g. Braine, 2010; Pasternak & Bailey 2004). While the native/non-native dichotomy is no longer adequate to describe teachers' complex linguistic identities (Faez, 2011), native speakerism (Holliday, 2005; 2006), the belief that native speakers of English are the ideal teachers, remains a common issue throughout ELT. Native speakerism partially relates to language proficiency, as teachers who are born into an English-speaking environment and granted 'native' status are deemed as ideal teachers (Freeman, 2016). However, it extends beyond proficiency and can include issues of race and the preference of western teacher training, methods, and resources, as white, native-speaker teachers who are trained in western based institutions are seen as the ideal teacher of English (Holliday, 2005; Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992). Despite criticisms of native speakerism in academic circles (e.g. Freeman, 2016; Holliday, 2005; 2006), NNESTs are often discriminated against in the job market as employers seek out 'native' teachers of English only (Selvi, 2010). Despite research that shows

learners do not necessarily prefer NESTs and are often perceptive to strengths of NNESTs as well (Mahboob, 2005), issues of native speakerism remain throughout many contexts in ELT.

Dealing with foreign language instructors at the university level, Liaw (2004) found non-native instructors to have lower self-efficacy, especially in regard to teaching colloquial language and reading and writing classes. With teachers in Japan, Praver (2014) also found the Japanese non-native English speaking teachers to be less efficacious than the NESTs in the study. The author partially attributes this to cultural differences between the two groups, specifically cultural modesty found in Japan. Looking at French TAs in the United States, Mills and Allen (2007) note that 3 of the 4 highest efficacy scores were for the native speakers while 3 of the 4 lowest were for the non-native French speaking teachers, suggesting an impact from nativeness on teachers' confidence. However, these studies investigated linguistic identity mainly as a function of language proficiency. While proficiency is highly intertwined with the concept of nativeness, it is not the sole factor, and the impact of teachers' linguistic identity on their self-efficacy remains an under explored issue. Ellis (2006) looks at teachers from various linguistic identities and notes the importance of learning a language. Study findings indicated that monolingual NESTs, while highly proficient in English, lacked important experience learning and using a second/foreign language. Later, Ellis (2013) notes how monolingual teachers often viewed language learning as a failed experience while plurilingual teachers acknowledged language learning as a process and something that requires effort, but did not emphasize it as a negative experience as their monolingual counterparts did. While not directly looking at self-efficacy, the work of Ellis (2006; 2013) shows the complexity of teachers' linguistic identity, but also the potential impact being a monolingual native English-speaking teacher may have on teachers. Wyatt (2018) notes language competence as a factor that may impact both NNESTs

and monolingual NESTs' self-efficacy. However, while the NEST/NNEST dichotomy has been thoroughly researched (e.g. Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1992), the self-efficacy beliefs of different linguistic identities have received less attention.

4.2.4 LTE and self-efficacy.

Finally, the impact of language teacher education (LTE) on teacher self-efficacy has also been explored in the literature. In Turkey, Cabaroğlu (2014) investigated the impact of action research projects, as part of an LTE program, on teachers' self-efficacy and found teachers felt more efficacious after completing the project. Using the TSES, teachers saw increases on all three subscales with the largest increase found on the Classroom Management subscale. Again in Turkey, Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2014) look at the effects of an in-service LTE program and note an improvement across all three TSES subscales and for teachers' overall self-efficacy.

However, the impact of LTE on self-efficacy is not always straightforward. Still focusing on teachers in Turkey, Atay (2007) investigated teachers' self-efficacy before and after their practicum experience. While practice teaching was helpful and overall efficacy saw a slight increase, teachers saw a drop in their efficacy for Instructional Strategies as the difficulty of the classroom became more apparent after engaging in practice teaching (Atay, 2007). For these Turkish teachers, key to this was the relationship with the cooperating teacher during the practicum as those satisfied with their cooperative teacher showed higher efficacy, while those dissatisfied had lower efficacy (Atay, 2007). Related to practice teaching, the notion of peer-coaching on LTE programs was shown to be beneficial for teachers in Northern Cyprus as the increased interaction with peers proved effective for nurturing teachers' self-efficacy (Goker, 2006). With English teachers in Ontario, Canada, Faez and Valeo (2012) also note the

importance of the practicum for novice teachers as participants stressed its importance during follow up interviews. In Oman, Wyatt (2010) demonstrates the complexity of efficacy and practical knowledge development for one teacher, showing that teachers' practical knowledge and their efficacy are inextricably linked. While the teacher in his study benefitted from the research and SLA components of the program, more hands-on practice would have been beneficial for the teacher (Wyatt, 2010).

Other studies have focused on the type and/or level of degree and the impact on teacher self-efficacy. For example, in Iran, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) investigated the efficacy of teachers with English related teaching degrees against those with general degrees, noting that only teachers' efficacy to engage with students appeared to be impacted, but with a low effect, indicating little impact on self-efficacy from degree type. Similarly, in Thailand, teachers with higher levels of education did not show higher self-efficacy, and college major also did not seem to impact their efficacy (Crook, 2016). However, for teachers in Korea, all three TSES subscales, along with a study specific factor of Oral English Language Use and a more general personal teaching efficacy (PTE) factor were all positively related with teachers' highest degree earned, indicating some benefit from higher level LTE (Lee, 2009). Thus, when considering LTE and teacher self-efficacy, similar to experience, results appear to vary somewhat across diverse contexts. Studies do show a general impact, but this is not always positive and straightforward, and there is still no clear answer as to how/if higher-level degrees may increase teachers sense of efficacy to teach.

4.3 Methodology

This study followed a quantitative design. Data were collected from a large-scale survey as part of a broader study. The first part of the survey asked teachers to provide background

information about themselves, including their teaching context, their teaching experience in years, and their linguistic identity. Next, teachers were asked to provide information about their language teacher education history, including what LTE programs they have completed, or are in progress, and if they have completed a practicum. Following this, teachers self-reported their general language proficiency using the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) Self-Assessment Grid (p. 26 - 27), which asks users to self-rate their proficiency based on five language skills: Reading, writing, listening, spoken production and spoken interaction (Council of Europe, 2001). The CEFR scales distinguish six levels across three broad categories: Basic user (A1, A2), Independent user (B1, B2), and Proficient user (C1, C2) (Council of Europe, 2001). These levels were maintained for this study, but participants were also allowed to place themselves between levels. Finally, the last part of the survey comprised self-efficacy statements related to various English language teaching tasks. All items utilized 'I can' statements and took an 'Agent-Means' perspective, meaning they asked teachers to assess their own capabilities about specific teaching tasks within their own teaching contexts, but did not address the outcomes (i.e. Ends) of these tasks (Wyatt, 2014). As outlined in Study 1, the final scale includes 26 items across six factors, which are used for analysis in this study.

The first factor, Classroom Proficiency ($\alpha = .89$, α levels drawn from full sample in Study 1), serves a dual role as it is used as a measure of self-efficacy and teaching-specific English language proficiency. As mentioned in the literature review, most studies have investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and language proficiency using measures of general proficiency. Researchers maintain that general proficiency should not be misconstrued with self-efficacy as the two concepts are conceptually different (Choi & Lee, 2016; Wyatt, 2018). Yet, the concept of classroom proficiency, as outlined by Richards (2017), allows for self-efficacy

and language proficiency to merge as teachers consider not only their linguistic capabilities, but also their pedagogical and discursive capabilities to effectively use English in the English language classroom. Items on this factor were drawn from the ELTeach program (Freeman et al., 2015; Gu & Papageorgiou, 2016) which was developed to provide teachers with a classroom specific English they need to succeed in the classroom. In the multiple regression analyses (outlined below), the Classroom Proficiency factor is used as a predictor variable representing a specific teaching proficiency, allowing for comparison with the general self-perceived proficiency scores measured by the CEFR. However, it is also used as an outcome variable in the first analysis as it serves a dual function as a measure of self-efficacy as well.

The remaining factors were used as outcome variables in the regression analyses. Factor 2, Learner-Focused Instruction ($\alpha = .74$), assesses teachers' confidence to teach English while addressing students' L1 and their communities. Factor 3, Assessment ($\alpha = .90$), investigates teachers' confidence with various assessment strategies. Factor 4, Language Instruction ($\alpha = .79$) looks at teachers' confidence to apply their knowledge of syntax, phonology, morphology and semantics when teaching. Factor 5, Culture ($\alpha = .81$), looks at teachers' confidence to address issues related to culture when teaching English. And finally, Factor 6, Materials ($\alpha = .77$), investigates teachers' confidence to adapt/use materials for instruction in the English language classroom (All scale items and descriptive information are provided in the Results section). All factors are above the minimum value of $\alpha = .70$ necessary for research purposes (Field, 2018; Muijs, 2011).

4.3.1 Participants.

The survey was broadly distributed through postings on local, national and international English language teacher organization online forums and emails lists, as well as postings in Facebook groups dedicated to English language teaching. This resulted in a large and diverse participant pool, including $N = 271$ teachers in North America, the participant group for this study. Preliminary data analysis indicated that from this pool of $N = 271$ surveys from teachers in North America, $n = 5$ did not complete the self-reported proficiency portion of the survey and $n = 10$ did not indicate their teaching experience in years, thus these $n = 15$ were deleted. Box plots were analyzed to discover any extreme outliers before analysis and $n = 3$ participants were removed because of their low self-reported CEFR proficiency scores. Finally, $n = 2$ more participants were removed because they had extreme outlier scores on multiple self-efficacy scales. This left the final participant pool at $N = 251$. However, the entire participant pool of $N = 251$ is not used for all analyses as individual participant scores on some self-efficacy scales were noted as extreme outliers when assessing standardized residuals. If a score was deemed an extreme outlier (criteria explained below) for only one analysis, it was removed from that particular analysis, but the participant data was maintained for the remaining analyses.

The $N = 251$ participants were teaching in Canada ($n = 181$) and the United States ($n = 70$). For gender, most participants were female ($n = 197$), with some male teachers ($n = 48$), and a small portion who did not disclose their gender ($n = 6$). The mean teaching experience was 12.80 years ($SD = 9.64$). The participants taught across a variety of teaching contexts: Community/settlement based ESL programs for immigrants ($n = 85$); universities ($n = 77$); private schools ($n = 30$); public schools ($n = 17$); and ‘other’ contexts ($n = 23$), which included private tutoring and also on site teaching to businesses. Some participants taught in more than one context, which is why the numbers are more than the total $N = 251$ participants. For

linguistic identity, participants were asked to choose among three groups: Multilingual native English-speaking teachers (MultiNEST, $n = 133$), meaning English is their dominant language, and a language they acquired by living in an English-speaking environment, but they also are proficient in another language they have learned and/or acquired.; Monolingual NESTs (MonoNEST, $n = 58$), which consisted of teachers who identified as native-speakers, but did not know any other language sufficiently to call themselves multilingual; and finally, non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs, $n = 66$). Teachers were also allowed to qualitatively write in a response if these categories did not match their linguistic identity, but no participants for this study did so. In terms of self-perceived language proficiency, after removing the three aforementioned outliers, all participants self-reported their general proficiency at least at the C1 level. The first group of participants felt they were either at C1, or somewhere between the C1 and C2 levels ($n = 73$), while the remaining participants reported their proficiency to be at the C2 level ($n = 178$), meaning they reported their proficiency at the C2 level for all of the language skills. Finally, to assess teachers' language teacher education, their highest completed LTE qualifications were used for analysis: Graduate degree ($n = 101$ [$n = 90$ master; $n = 11$ PhD]); certificate/diploma ($n = 79$); bachelor degree ($n = 44$). Some participants indicated they had not completed any LTE specific qualification ($n = 27$). While participants provided all of their LTE information, only their highest level of language teacher education is used for analysis in this study.

4.3.2 Analysis.

Data analysis consisted of tallying descriptive levels of self-efficacy across the six efficacy factors and also a series of simultaneous multiple regressions (Warner, 2013) to determine what variables predict self-efficacy. The six self-efficacy factors are: Classroom Proficiency, Learner-

Focused Instruction, Assessment, Language Instruction, Culture, and Materials. In the first regression analysis, the Classroom Proficiency factor is used as the outcome variable with four predictors: general language proficiency, teaching experience in years, linguistic identity, and highest completed LTE qualification. In the next five regressions, Classroom Proficiency is used as a predictor variable along with the same four variables as before. As mentioned, because this study sought to determine which type of proficiency, classroom proficiency or general proficiency, would be more impactful on teachers' self-efficacy, the first factor of Classroom Proficiency is used as a predictor variable in the final five regression analyses while the remaining factors are used as the outcome variables. This is done because, as discussed, Classroom Proficiency is viewed as both a measure of self-efficacy but also teaching specific language proficiency.

Data screening was conducted to ensure the assumptions of multiple regression were satisfied. The overall sample of $N = 251$ was a sufficient number of participants for multiple regression analysis. Pituch and Stevens (2016) argue for a minimum of 15 participants per predictor while Tabachnik and Fidell (2007) argue for $50 + 8k$. Thus, $N = 251$ is well within these ranges. Scatter plots were used to ensure linearity between the quantitative variables (classroom proficiency, general proficiency, and teaching experience in years) and the outcome variables. While there was a sufficiently linear relationship for classroom proficiency and experience with the outcome variables, general proficiency as self-assessed by the CEFR was problematic as most participants rated themselves at the C2 level creating a ceiling effect. Thus, the general proficiency variable was changed from a quantitative variable to categorical variable (discussed further in next paragraph). Multicollinearity was assessed using correlational analysis (see Table 1), the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), and tolerance. No correlations above $r = .8$

were found, all VIF statistics were below 3, well below the cut-off of 6 (Keith, 2006), and the tolerance indices were all satisfactory. Cook's distance was utilized to determine any influential data points and none were above 1 (Pituch & Stevens, 2016). Preliminary analysis of boxplots resulted in the removal of extreme outliers, but further outliers were assessed by examining standardized residual scores of the Y variables; scores beyond ± 3.29 were removed from particular analyses (Field, 2018), which resulted in different *N* values for each analysis (discussed with each analysis below). Standardized residuals were also assessed via histogram to ensure normality for Y outcome variables. PP plots were also analyzed; these showed no significant deviations from normality. Also, the residual vs predicted value plot was analyzed to ensure homoscedasticity (Keith, 2006; Pituch & Stevens, 2016). No issues were found as the scatter plots spread evenly. All data were collected independently of each other ensuring participants responded independently of one another (Pituch & Stevens, 2016).

After data screening, there were two quantitative variables: Teachers' self-reported classroom proficiency score out of 6, and also their years of experience. There were three categorical variables. The first pertained to teachers' general language proficiency. Teachers self-reported their language proficiency according to the CEFR Self-Assessment Grid (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 26 - 27); initially, it was intended to use this as a quantitative variable, but there was a ceiling effect as the vast majority of participants rated themselves at the C2 level. This impacted univariate normality and also the normality of the standardized residuals. However, because the scores were all at two levels, it was decided to change this variable to a categorical variable. Thus, the general proficiency predictor was split into two groups: C1 and C2. The C1 group consisted of teachers either at the C1 level or between C1 – C2. The C2 group consisted of teachers who identified as C2 across all five of the Self-Assessment grid language

skills. The C2 group was dummy coded '1' and the C1 group was dummy coded '0' when entered into the regression. The second categorical variable pertained to teachers' linguistic identities. Teachers were asked to self-identify as either a monolingual native English-speaking teachers (MonoNEST) (i.e. teachers who first language is English but do not know any other languages), multilingual native English-speaking teachers (MultiNEST) (i.e. teachers whose first language is English but they also know an additional language(s)), and finally non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs)(i.e. teachers who learned English as a subsequent languages). For linguistic identity, the three categories were dummy coded and the NNEST group was used as the reference category (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). This was done because multicategorical variables require $k - 1$ categories for regression analysis, meaning with 3 categories, only two are actually input into the analysis (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). Thus, for linguistic identity, the MonoNEST and MultiNEST groups are entered into the regression while the NNEST group is used for comparison. Finally, the last categorical variable entered was teachers' highest LTE completed. It contained four categories: No language teacher education completed (NoLTE); certificate/diploma (Cert/Dip); Bachelor degree (Bachelor) and graduate degrees (Graduate). These were dummy coded as well with '0' and '1'. The Graduate group was used as the reference category (Darlington & Hayes, 2017), leaving the other three variables to be entered into the regression equation. For categorical variable descriptive information, see Table 2 in the Results section.

4.4 Results

This section presents the results pertaining to the two research questions that guided this study. Each sub-section is divided based on the outcome variable used for each regression analysis

beginning with Classroom Proficiency, which is unique as it has four predictors, followed by the remaining five regression analyses with five predictor variables. Table 1 presents the correlation matrix for all of the self-efficacy factors used in this study and also the quantitative variables. Because the general proficiency score was initially considered a quantitative variable, it was included in the correlation matrix and presented here. To accommodate for non-normality, bootstrapping is used as it is a more robust statistic (Larson-Hall, 2016). These results are included to allow for comparison with the vast majority of studies that use correlational analysis to compare general proficiency with self-efficacy (Faez & Karas, 2017). However, as mentioned, the general proficiency variable is converted into a categorical variable for the regression analyses due to non-normal residuals. Table 2 presents the descriptive information pertaining to the categorical variables along with different participants numbers for each group for each analysis. The different levels of self-efficacy for each item and the overall factor are presented in each sub-section when the self-efficacy factor is used as the outcome variable.

Table 1

Correlation matrix

	CP	LFI	Assess	LI	Culture	Mat	CEFR	Exp
CP	1							
LFI	** .14 (.02 - .27)	1						
Assess	** .50 (.41 - .59)	** .33 (.21 - .45)	1					
LI	** .40 (.26 - .52)	** .36 (.22 - .48)	** .42 (.29 - .55)	1				
Culture	** .40 (.27 - .51)	** .48 (.36 - .59)	** .41 (.27 - .52)	** .48 (.37 - .60)	1			
Mat	** .66	** .28	** .59	** .38	** .45	1		

	(.58 - .73)	(.16 - .40)	(.50 - .67)	(.25 - .49)	(.34 - .56)		
CEFR	** .31	.00	.04	.10	** .18	** .20	1
	(.19 - .43)	(-.11 - .11)	(-.06 - .15)	(.00 - .22)	(.05 - .30)	(.07 - .33)	
Exp	** .24	** .18	** .27	** .29	** .21	** .26	* .14
	(.12 - .36)	(.06 - .29)	(.15 - .37)	(.16 - .40)	(.09 - .33)	(.14 - .38)	(.03 - .23)

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals in brackets (2000 iterations). Correlations based on total $N = 251$ participants. CP = Classroom Proficiency; LFI = Learner-Focused Instruction; Assess = Assessment; LI = Language Instruction; Mat = Materials; CEFR = General proficiency; Exp = Experience in years

Table 2

Categorical Variable Descriptive Statistics

Grouping	CP (N = 251)	LFI (n = 249)	Assess (n = 247)	LI (n = 248)	Culture (n = 250)	Materials (n = 250)
C1	5.40 (.43) <i>n</i> = 73	4.56 (.87) <i>n</i> = 73	5.15 (.56) <i>n</i> = 71	5.09 (.57) <i>n</i> = 73	5.07 (.60) <i>n</i> = 73	5.37 (.48) <i>n</i> = 73
C2	5.69 (.39) <i>n</i> = 178	4.68 (.95) <i>n</i> = 176	5.27 (.61) <i>n</i> = 176	5.38 (.56) <i>n</i> = 175	5.36 (.61) <i>n</i> = 177	5.62 (.44) <i>n</i> = 177
MonoNEST	5.64 (.40) <i>n</i> = 58	4.50 (.95) <i>n</i> = 58	5.17 (.63) <i>n</i> = 58	5.17 (.62) <i>n</i> = 58	5.16 (.67) <i>n</i> = 58	5.58 (.47) <i>n</i> = 58
MultiNEST	5.60 (.42) <i>n</i> = 133	4.60 (.98) <i>n</i> = 132	5.21 (.61) <i>n</i> = 131	5.32 (.57) <i>n</i> = 130	5.25 (.59) <i>n</i> = 132	5.56 (.43) <i>n</i> = 132
NNEST	5.53 (.44) <i>n</i> = 60	4.90 (.72) <i>n</i> = 59	5.34 (.53) <i>n</i> = 58	5.36 (.58) <i>n</i> = 60	5.45 (.61) <i>n</i> = 60	5.50 (.52) <i>n</i> = 60
No LTE	5.55 (.46) <i>n</i> = 27	4.53 (.93) <i>n</i> = 27	5.15 (.67) <i>n</i> = 25	5.15 (.62) <i>n</i> = 27	5.11 (.65) <i>n</i> = 27	5.52 (.50) <i>n</i> = 27
Cert/Dip	5.50 (.42) <i>n</i> = 79	4.52 (.88) <i>n</i> = 79	5.08 (.62) <i>n</i> = 78	5.14 (.56) <i>n</i> = 77	5.21 (.62) <i>n</i> = 78	5.45 (.48) <i>n</i> = 79
Bachelor	5.69 (.36) <i>n</i> = 44	4.91 (.97) <i>n</i> = 43	5.33 (.57) <i>n</i> = 44	5.46 (.48) <i>n</i> = 43	5.39 (.60) <i>n</i> = 44	5.67 (.40) <i>n</i> = 44
Graduate	5.66 (.42) <i>n</i> = 101	4.66 (.93) <i>n</i> = 100	5.33 (.55) <i>n</i> = 100	5.38 (.58) <i>n</i> = 101	5.32 (.62) <i>n</i> = 101	5.59 (.45) <i>n</i> = 100

Note. Group means and standard deviations provided. Each *n* value based on the regression analyses outlined in Results section. CP = Classroom Proficiency; LFI = Learner-Focused Instruction; Assess = Assessment; LI = Language Instruction

4.4.1 Classroom proficiency.

To assess whether general proficiency, experience in years, linguistic identity, and LTE qualification significantly predict classroom proficiency, a simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted. Experience in years was entered as a quantitative variable, while general proficiency as self-appraised by the CEFR, linguistic identity, and highest LTE qualification were entered as categorical variables (see above for dummy coding information). Analyzing the Y outcome variable residuals, no scores were beyond the ± 3.29 level (Field, 2018), thus all $N = 251$ scores were used for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(7, 243) = 6.13, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .387, R^2 = .150$, and adjusted $R^2 = .126$. Among the predictor variables, general proficiency was the strongest predictor of teachers' classroom proficiency. When controlling for the effect of other variables, teachers who believe their proficiency to be at the C2 level more likely perceived their classroom proficiency to be higher than teachers in the C1 group. This difference was statistically significant (see Table 4). Squaring the part correlation, this accounted for 6.25% of unique variance. Teaching experience also significantly predicted teachers' classroom proficiency. Controlling for the effect of other variables, experience accounted for 2.56% of unique variance. Linguistic identity and highest LTE qualification were not significant. If other variables are held constant, teachers' classroom proficiency is not seriously impacted if teachers have different linguistic identities or different highest LTE qualifications. General proficiency and experience in years accounted for more than half of the classroom proficiency variance, with the remaining variance shared between predictors. Thus, if teachers self-perceive their general proficiency at the C2 level and are more experienced, they are more likely to have higher levels of classroom proficiency regardless of their linguistic identity and LTE qualification.

Table 3

Classroom Proficiency Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand Dev.
I can use English as the medium of instruction.	5.69	.50
I can use English for all classroom functions.	5.60	.60
I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	5.53	.58
I can use English to provide written feedback.	5.58	.53
I can model natural English use.	5.63	.60
I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	5.62	.53
I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	5.58	.55
Overall – Classroom Proficiency	5.60	.42

Table 4

Classroom Proficiency Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	5.35	69.07	**<.001	5.19/5.50	
CEFR Proficiency	.25(.27)	4.21	**<.001	.14/.37	.25
Teaching Exp.	.01(.17)	2.77	** .006	.002/.01	.16
NNEST vs MonoNEST	.05(.05)	.71	.477	-.10/.21	.04
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.01(-.01)	-.13	.898	-.14/.12	-.01
Graduate vs No LTE	-.03(-.02)	-.36	.717	-.21/.14	-.02
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	-.10(-.11)	-1.53	.128	-.22/.03	-.09

Graduate vs Bachelor	.04(.04)	.60	.548	-.10/.19	.04
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Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.4.1 Learner-focused instruction.

To assess the impact of general proficiency, teaching experience, linguistic identity and highest LTE qualification on Learner-Focused Instruction, again a simultaneous multiple regression analysis was utilized. However, for this analysis, and the subsequent analyses to follow, classroom proficiency was now added as a fifth predictor variable. This was done to analyze which type of proficiency, classroom proficiency or general proficiency, is more impactful on teachers' self-efficacy. Classroom proficiency and experience in years were entered as quantitative variables, while general proficiency as self-appraised by the CEFR, linguistic identity and highest LTE qualification were entered as categorical variables (See above for dummy coding). Analyzing standardized residuals of the Y variable indicated two scores were extreme outliers and beyond the ± 3.29 level (Field, 2018) and were removed leaving $n = 249$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(8, 240) = 3.22, p = .002$ with an overall $R = .311, R^2 = .097$, and adjusted $R^2 = .067$. When controlling for the effect of the other variables, the NNESTs were more likely to have higher Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy compared to both the monolingual NESTS and multilingual NESTS. Comparing NNESTs with the MonoNEST group, squaring the part correlation, linguistic identity accounted for 2.56% of unique variance. Comparing NNESTs with the MultiNEST group, again controlling for the effect of other variables, linguistic identity accounted for 2.25% of unique variance. Both comparisons were statistically significant (see Table 6). Looking at experience in years, experience was also a significant predictor and accounted for 1.96% of unique variance.

Classroom proficiency, now used as a predictor variable, after squaring the part correlation, accounted for 1.44% of unique variance. Self-appraised general proficiency and highest LTE qualification did not significantly impact Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy. These results indicate that NNESTs are more likely to have higher Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy compared to their NEST counterparts when controlling for other variables. In other words, if all other variables are equal, NNESTs will have higher Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy compared to monolingual NESTs and multilingual NESTs. Teaching experience in years was the next biggest predictor. Holding other variables constant, more experienced teachers will have higher Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy compared to less experienced teachers. Finally, looking at classroom proficiency, again assuming other variables are held constant, if teachers believe their classroom proficiency is higher, their Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy is positively impacted.

Table 5

Learner-Focused Instruction Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.	4.58	1.12
I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.	4.54	1.31
I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.	4.82	.97
Overall – Learner-Focused Instruction	4.65	.93

Table 6

Learner-Focused Instruction Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	3.02	3.77	**<.001	1.44/4.59	
Classroom Proficiency	.29(.13)	1.98	*.049	.002/.58	.12
CEFR Proficiency	.12(.06)	.86	.392	-.16/.40	.05
Teaching Exp.	.01(.15)	2.27	*.024	.002/.03	.14
NNEST vs MonoNEST	-.45(-.21)	-2.60	*.010	-.80/-.11	-.16
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.37(-.20)	-2.41	*.017	-.66/-.07	-.15
Graduate vs No LTE	.04(.01)	.19	.848	-.36/.44	.01
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	-.002(-.001)	-.02	.987	-.28/.28	-.001
Graduate vs Bachelor	.22(.09)	1.33	.184	-.11/.55	.08

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.4.2 Assessment.

Using the Assessment factor as the dependent variable, a multiple regression analysis was conducted using the same predictor variables as the previous analysis. Analyzing standardized residuals, four scores were noted as extreme outliers on the Y variable and beyond the ± 3.29 level (Field, 2018) and were thus removed leaving $n = 247$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(8, 238) = 14.49, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .572, R^2 = .328$, and adjusted $R^2 = .305$. Classroom proficiency was the largest predictor of Assessment self-efficacy (see Table 8). Squaring the part correlation, it accounted for 24% of unique variance. The difference between the NNEST group and the MonoNEST group also

reached statistical significance. Holding all other variables constant, the results show that NNESTs were more likely to have higher Assessment self-efficacy compared to their MonoNEST counterparts. This accounted for 1.21% of unique variance. The comparison between the NNESTs and the MultiNEST group approached significance, but did not reach the <.05 threshold. Experience in years did not significantly predict Assessment self-efficacy. General proficiency was also non-significant, indicating little impact based on self-appraised general proficiency in the C1 or C2 group. Highest LTE qualifications also saw no significant values across comparisons indicating no effect for teachers with a graduate degree compared to the other LTE qualifications. Thus, these results show that, holding all variables constant, teachers with higher classroom proficiency are more likely to have higher Assessment self-efficacy and that there is a significant difference between NNESTs and monolingual NESTs when all variables are controlled.

Table 7

Assessment Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can design appropriate assessment tasks.	5.20	.79
I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.	5.11	.83
I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.	5.28	.70
I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.	5.22	.73
I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.	5.27	.81
I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).	5.31	.74

Overall – Assessment	5.23	.60
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Table 8

Assessment Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.16	2.60	*.01	.28/2.04	
Classroom Proficiency	.76(.54)	9.27	**<.001	.60/.92	.49
CEFR Proficiency	-.08(-.06)	-1.01	.312	-.24/.08	-.05
Teaching Exp.	.01(.09)	1.58	.117	-.001/.01	.08
NNEST vs MonoNEST	-.21(-.15)	-2.11	*.036	-.40/-.01	-.11
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.16(-.14)	-1.92	.056	-.33/.004	-.10
Graduate vs No LTE	-.08(-.04)	-.70	.484	-.31/.15	-.04
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	-.09(-.07)	-1.19	.237	-.25/.06	-.06
Graduate vs Bachelor	-.04(-.02)	-.40	.690	-.22/.14	-.02

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.4.3 Language instruction.

The next regression analysis used the Language Instruction factor as the dependent variable with the same predictor variables. Looking at the standardized residuals, three scores were extreme outliers on the Y variable and beyond ± 3.29 (Field, 2018) and were removed leaving $n = 248$

for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(8, 239) = 10.49, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .510, R^2 = .260$, and adjusted $R^2 = .235$. Classroom proficiency was a significant predictor and when controlling for other variables, it accounted for approximately 10.89% of unique variance, the largest of the predictors in this analysis. Experience was also a significant predictor and accounted for 1.96% of unique variance. General proficiency was also statistically significant. When holding other variables constant, Language Instruction self-efficacy is significantly higher for the C2 group compared to the C1 group. Self-appraised CEFR proficiency accounted for 1.21% of unique variance. Comparing NNESTs with the MonoNEST group, this difference was statistically significant and accounted for 2.25% of unique variance. The NNEST group and MultiNEST group comparison approached significance but did not reach the $p < .05$ threshold. Highest LTE qualification was also not significant, indicating no effect on Language Instruction self-efficacy from graduate degrees compared with other qualifications. These results show that a substantial amount of unique variance for Language Instruction self-efficacy comes from teachers' classroom proficiency ability, but general proficiency and experience in years also account for some variance. When controlling for other variables, results suggest that NNESTs have higher Language Instruction self-efficacy compared to their monolingual NEST counterparts.

Table 9

Language Instruction Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	5.24	.77
I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	5.41	.67

I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	5.49	.58
I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.	5.06	1.00
Overall – Language Instruction	5.30	.58

Table 10

Language Instruction Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	2.49	5.48	**<.001	1.59/3.38	
Classroom Proficiency	.49(.36)	5.91	**<.001	.33/65	.33
CEFR Proficiency	.16(.13)	2.00	*.047	.002/.32	.11
Teaching Exp.	.01(.15)	2.44	*.016	.002/.02	.14
NNEST vs MonoNEST	-.27(-.20)	-2.77	** .006	-.46/-.08	-.15
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.14(-.13)	-1.71	.089	-.31/.02	-.10
Graduate vs No LTE	-.06(-.03)	-.49	.628	-.28/.17	-.03
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	-.07(-.06)	-.92	.360	-.23/.09	-.05
Graduate vs Bachelor	.07(.05)	.73	.464	-.12/.25	.04

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.4.4 Culture.

Utilizing the same predictor variables, Culture was now input as the outcome variable. Analyzing standardized residuals indicated one score was an extreme outlier and beyond ± 3.29 (Field, 2018) and was removed leaving $n = 250$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(8, 241) = 10.19, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .503, R^2 = .253$, and adjusted $R^2 = .228$. Classroom proficiency was statistically predictive of Culture self-efficacy when the other variables were controlled. It was the largest predictor of Culture self-efficacy accounting for 11.56% of unique variance. General proficiency was also significant. Holding the variables constant, the C2 group has significantly higher Culture self-efficacy compared to the C1 group. General proficiency accounted for 2.25% of unique variance. Both linguistic identity comparisons were statistically significant. The NNEST and MonoNEST comparison accounted for 4.84% of unique variance while the NNEST and MultiNEST comparison accounted for 4.41% of unique variance respectively. Teaching experience in years was not a significant unique predictor. Finally, similar to previous analyses, highest LTE qualification did not impact Culture self-efficacy when comparing teachers with a graduate degree with teachers with lower level qualifications. These results indicate that classroom proficiency largely accounts for the variance in Culture self-efficacy, but general proficiency also makes a significant unique contribution. Furthermore, holding other variables constant, NNESTs are more likely to have higher Culture self-efficacy than their NEST counterparts.

Table 11

Culture Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	5.14	.80

I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	5.33	.69
I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.	5.36	.69
Overall – Culture	5.27	.62

Table 12

Culture Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	2.22	4.55	**<.001	1.26/3.18	
Classroom Proficiency	.55(.37)	6.16	**<.001	.37/.72	.34
CEFR Proficiency	.23(.17)	2.67	** .008	.06/.40	.15
Teaching Exp.	.01(.09)	1.49	.138	-.002/.01	.08
NNEST vs MonoNEST	-.42(-.29)	-3.98	**<.001	-.63/-.21	-.22
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.34(-.27)	-3.68	**<.001	-.52/-.16	-.21
Graduate vs No LTE	-.02(-.01)	-.13	.896	-.26/.23	-.01
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	.04(.03)	.44	.662	-.13/.21	.02
Graduate vs Bachelor	.03(.02)	.33	.744	-.16/.23	.02

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.4.5 Materials.

Finally, the Materials factor was used as the dependent variable with the same predictors. Analyzing standardized residuals indicated one score was an extreme outlier and beyond ± 3.29 (Field, 2018) and was removed leaving $n = 250$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(8, 241) = 25.37, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .676, R^2 = .457$, and adjusted $R^2 = .439$. Classroom Proficiency was the largest, and only significant, predictor of Materials self-efficacy. It accounted for 33.64% of unique variance. Teaching experience in years approached significance, but did not reach the $<.05$ threshold. The categorical variables of general proficiency, linguistic identity and highest LTE qualification were all non-significant. These results indicate that when all other variables are controlled, teachers with higher self-perceived classroom proficiency will be more efficacious in their abilities to use/adapt materials.

Table 13

Materials Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can use appropriate resources and materials.	5.53	.58
I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	5.56	.60
I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	5.56	.57
Overall – Materials	5.56	.46

Table 14

Materials Regression Results.

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.60	5.16	**<.001	.99/2.20	

Classroom Proficiency	.69(.63)	12.21	**<.001	.58/.80	.58
CEFR Proficiency	.05(.05)	.87	.384	-.06/.16	.04
Teaching Exp.	.004(.09)	1.81	.071	.000/.01	.09
NNEST vs MonoNEST	-.01(-.01)	-.20	.841	-.15/.12	-.01
NNEST vs MultiNEST	-.02(-.02)	-.30	.766	-.13/.10	-.01
Graduate vs No LTE	.04(.03)	.56	.573	-.11/.20	.03
Graduate vs Cert/Dip	.01(.01)	.09	.930	-.10/.11	.004
Graduate vs Bachelor	.06(.05)	.98	.326	-.06/.19	.05

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Levels of (global) self-efficacy.

The first research question looked at teachers' levels of global self-efficacy across the six different subscales used for this study. These were presented merely as descriptive information so interpretation is somewhat limited. However, it is useful to discuss teachers' self-efficacy scores in relation to Wyatt's (2014; 2018) notions of task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE) beliefs. Wyatt (2016) outlines the importance of differentiating between the two types of self-efficacy as researchers in (language) teacher education, especially those that use quantitative measures as in this study, often do not distinguish between the two. For this study, the individual scale items were presented with mean scores; these serve as measures of

task-specific self-efficacy. In Wyatt's (2016) theoretical model of self-efficacy development, it is not always undesirable that teachers self-assess their capabilities for some tasks as 'low' as this potentially shows enhanced understanding of their capabilities and the nuances of teaching, and potentially motivates them to engage in development to improve on this lack of task-specific confidence. For example, for the item 'I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching', from the Learner-Focused Instruction factor, teachers' had a mean score below five, which could be interpreted as a lower score. Although determining higher or lower scores is difficult and requires comparison (Wyatt, 2018), maintaining focus on the individual items allows insights into more specific areas where teachers could potentially improve. For teacher developmental purposes, focus on these specific tasks is highly valuable and should be a focus of LTE programs (Wyatt, 2016). On the other hand, using the tallied factor scores, which represent GSE (Wyatt, 2016), it is more important for these to be at higher levels as these beliefs stem from TSE beliefs, are more robust, and act as a 'safety net' for teachers in the classroom (Wyatt, 2016). This is in contrast to the Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) model that views efficacy as a 'more is better' construct (Wyatt, 2016). Looking at the descriptive statistics in this study, the Classroom Proficiency global self-efficacy level is approaching six, indicating that these teachers appear relatively confident in their capabilities to teach English in English. This is perhaps not unexpected as they live and work in predominantly ESL contexts. On the other hand, the Learner-Focused Instruction global score was below five, which could be interpreted as 'low'. This can again potentially be attributed to the ESL contexts where these teachers work as they may have students from diverse communities and L1 backgrounds. However, as noted by Wyatt (2018), it can be difficult to truly gauge teachers' self-efficacy with scale means without the ability to compare across different groups. This study is the first to use

this scale, so future results will hopefully help locate these results to determine if these teachers have ‘high’ or ‘low’ self-efficacy, but it is a useful discussion when considering how to nurture teachers’ self-efficacy.

4.5.2 Predictors of self-efficacy.

The second research question investigated the predictiveness of different variables on teachers’ global self-efficacy beliefs. The first analysis consisted of a simultaneous multiple regression, but for this analysis, the Classroom Proficiency variable was placed as the outcome variable with general proficiency, experience in years, linguistic identity, and highest LTE qualifications as the predictors. This was done because the Classroom Proficiency variable is viewed as both a measure of self-efficacy but also a measure of teaching language proficiency. Teachers’ general proficiency significantly predicted teachers’ classroom proficiency; this is perhaps unsurprising because classroom proficiency is bound within general proficiency (Freeman, 2017). Perhaps more so than other types of English for specific purposes (e.g. English for medicine), English-for-teaching contains many common words found within general English (Freeman et al., 2015). However, while a significant predictor, general proficiency as measured by the CEFR likely only partially accounts for the linguistic aspects of classroom proficiency, but the pedagogical and discursive elements may not be adequately measured via self-appraised general proficiency. The entire regression model only accounted for 15% of variance, a small amount (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018). While experience in years was also significant, future studies can help determine what aspects better predict classroom proficiency.

After the first regression, Classroom Proficiency was utilized as a predictor variable along with general proficiency as self-appraised via the CEFR, teaching experience in years,

linguistic identity and highest LTE completed to predict teacher self-efficacy across the five other self-efficacy factors: Learner-Focused Instruction, Assessment, Language Instruction, Culture and Materials. Classroom proficiency was a significant predictor for all of the self-efficacy subscales, and for Materials self-efficacy, it was the only significant predictor.

Teachers' general proficiency, as self-appraised using the CEFR, was only significant for two of the five analyses (Language Instruction and Culture). This indicates that even when teachers assess their proficiency at the C2 level, this does not mean they are significantly more efficacious than teachers who self-assess at the C1 level for Learner-Focused Instruction, Assessment or Materials self-efficacy. Looking beyond statistical significance, the effect sizes for classroom proficiency were often among the highest for each analysis as it accounted for large amounts of unique variance. While the notion of classroom proficiency is still developing within English language teaching, the importance of understanding teachers' language proficiency in relation to actual teaching tasks appears crucial from these results as teachers who are more confident in their abilities to complete classroom tasks in English will have their confidence positively impacted. On the other hand, while general proficiency may be important in some instances, it did not consistently impact teachers' self-efficacy. While this study only used self-appraisals of proficiency, these results align with arguments that general proficiency may not be crucial for teachers to succeed in the classroom (e.g. Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017).

Teaching experience in years was a significant predictor of Learner-Focused Instruction and Language Instruction, but not for Assessment, Culture or Materials. However, while significant, the effect sizes were somewhat low and experience did not account for substantial amounts of unique variance. When looking at teaching experience, many studies use teaching years as a measure of experience and investigate its relationship with self-efficacy. As discussed,

the literature results pertaining to years of experience and self-efficacy are somewhat mixed and this study's results seem to support this view. One important consideration is that simply using years of experience does not give any indication about the nature of teachers' experiences (Wyatt, 2018b). This study's focus on omnibus totals of self-efficacy factors places it under the less-specific notion of global self-efficacy beliefs, which are viewed as more firmly entrenched and less able to change (Wyatt, 2014; 2018). In other words, as teachers progress throughout their careers and become more experienced, their more globalized confidence may not change much for certain areas. Every teacher will be different, but these results, in line with the past literature, seem to support the notion that experience can be impactful for teachers' confidence, but not in all cases and not for all types of self-efficacy.

Linguistic identity proved to be a significant contributor to self-efficacy for all of the self-efficacy factors except Materials. However, it was interesting to note it was the NNEST group that often perceived themselves significantly more efficacious compared to their monolingual and multilingual NEST counterparts. The notion of native speakerism is still pervasive throughout English language teaching (Holliday, 2005) and NNESTs still experience discrimination in the job market (Selvi, 2010), but these results indicate that for these teachers in the North American context, their confidence was not impacted by their NNEST identities. Rather, these results perhaps reflect the shift in English language teaching that now emphasizes the importance of language learning experiences for language teachers and that the previously idealized monolingual NEST (Phillipson, 1992) is no longer viewed as the standard in ELT. Wyatt (2018) highlighted monolingual NESTs' self-efficacy as being potentially negatively impacted due to negative literature written about such teachers (e.g. Phillipson, 1992). The results of this study support this notion as the monolingual NEST group often had lower self-

efficacy compared with the NNEST group. The multilingual NEST group was significantly lower compared to the NNEST group for two analyses (Learner-Focused Instruction and Culture). Overall, these results potentially show that learning a language can have positive benefits for English language teachers' confidence across a multitude of factors and that NNESTs' self-efficacy is not necessarily negatively impacted compared to NESTs, despite issues of native speakerism and discrimination in ELT.

Finally, highest language teacher education (LTE) qualification was also used as a predictor for the multiple regression analyses. Across all of the five analyses, teachers with graduate degrees were used as the reference group in comparison with teachers with no LTE qualifications, teachers with a certificate/diploma and teachers with a bachelor degree. None of these comparisons proved to be significant, indicating that if all other variables are the same, a teacher with a graduate degree is not necessarily more confident in their abilities across these efficacy factors. However, these teachers were highly experienced and it is possible that many were far removed from their LTE experiences. Also, this study is limited in knowing the precise details of these LTE programs. Rather, the survey data was limited to knowing what degrees teachers had completed, but specific details about each program are not known. Thus, while participants may have shared the common element of having a 'certificate' or a 'bachelor' degree as their highest LTE qualification, there were likely numerous differences between the participants' LTE experiences even within categories.

Using classroom proficiency, general proficiency, experience in years, linguistic identity, and highest LTE qualification as predictors accounted for different amounts of variance in each analysis. Reviewing the R^2 values, the most amount of variance accounted for was for Materials (46%) and the least amount was for Learner-Focused Instruction (10%). The second highest R^2

value, indicating amount of variance accounted for in the model, was Assessment (33%), followed by Language Instruction (26%) and then Culture (25%). There are differing perspectives on the importance of R^2 in regression research. Plonsky and Ghanbar (2018) argue it is the “most important statistic in the output of MR” (p. 3); however, others place less emphasis on the importance of R^2 (e.g. Keith, 2006). This study acknowledges the value of the R^2 statistic as it is important to move beyond interpreting results as merely significant or non-significant (Plonsky, 2015). Analyzing L2 research, Plonsky and Ghanbar (2018) offer interpretations of R^2 , with R^2 of .20 or below as small and R^2 of .50 and above as large. Thus, with these benchmarks, the Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy would be considered small while the other models accounted for around a medium amount of variance. Keith (2006) argues that with psychological constructs, such as self-efficacy, lower R^2 scores are to be somewhat expected as humans are complex and it is unreasonable to expect high amounts of variance. Thus, these results can be interpreted to mean that other factors beyond these predictors are important for teachers’ self-efficacy and were not measured with this study, but also that dealing with a psychological construct such as self-efficacy, one cannot expect to account for all of the variance.

4.6 Conclusion

Due to the quantitative nature of this study, interpretations are limited as it is not possible to know many of the contextual details for these teachers. Furthermore, because of the scale used, results are limited to the items measured with these items/factors and it is acknowledged that these are certainly not all there is to English language teaching. However, in line with Wyatt (2018), this study seeks to emphasize the practicality and utility of self-efficacy research and focus on how these results can be applied to the development of language teachers. After all, a

primary goal of language teacher education research should always be to improve language teacher development. While this study only used self-appraisals, the results certainly affirm the importance of classroom proficiency for English language teachers. For LTE programs, in both ESL and EFL contexts, this is a significant finding. The importance of teachers' language proficiency has long been emphasized by researchers (e.g. Hiver, 2013), but often this is done in relation to general proficiency. It may be more helpful for LTE programs to emphasize this new type of proficiency and encourage teachers to reflect on their capabilities to teach with English (Freeman, 2017). This applies to all teachers, be they NESTs, NNESTs or something else altogether. The implementation of specific proficiency-based classes has been recommended by many researchers for a long time (e.g. Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Murdoch, 1994), although it is unclear if these calls have been taken up in LTE programs. Considering its importance for teachers' self-efficacy, an obvious possibility would be for LTE programs to implement a specific course for teaching English through English. However, it is acknowledged that this may not always be possible. Still, courses that deal with methods and methodology could incorporate classroom proficiency into existing syllabi and encourage prospective teachers to reflect on their abilities to enact different classroom tasks in English. Through this reflection, teachers can notice gaps in their linguistic capabilities, but also potentially their pedagogical and discursive capabilities and engage in their own self-development.

As discussed in the introduction, there are many positive benefits to enhanced (global) self-efficacy. When teachers feel more confident, they are often more motivated, try harder when faced with difficulties, have enhanced teaching performance, and can potentially even positively impact their students' overall achievement. If these positive benefits are to come to fruition, however, teachers need to have the linguistic, pedagogical and discursive capabilities to succeed.

These results emphasize the importance of teachers having high classroom proficiency in the global sense, but with the caveat that teachers can still have some self-doubt about more specific capabilities, as long as these doubts are not debilitating and can serve as an impetus to learn more and improve one's teaching practice.

4.7 References

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Chapter 5 (Study 3) – Self-Efficacy Beliefs of NNESTs in EFL Contexts

5.1 Introduction

This study investigates the self-efficacy beliefs of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. NNESTs outnumber native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) drastically in the field of ELT, with some estimates as high as 80% of the teaching population consisting of NNESTs (Moussu, 2018). However, NNESTs continue to face challenges in their profession due to the ideology of native speakerism (Holliday, 2005), which places NESTs as idealized teachers of English, regardless of their qualifications and/or experience. Because of this, the experiences of NNESTs have been a highly researched area as they continue to navigate this professional reality (e.g. Braine, 1999; 2010; Mahboob, 2010; Moussu & Llorca, 2008). One common area of research has looked at NNESTs’ confidence, both in the general sense (e.g. Lee, 2004; Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), but also using the more specific construct of self-efficacy (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015). Self-efficacy, “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3), has been shown to be highly

important for (language) teachers, impacting what they do in the classroom and potentially even their students (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Wyatt, 2018). Contemporary self-efficacy research stems from the work of Albert Bandura (1977, 1986; 1997), who emphasizes that people's beliefs, not objective reality, are more important for determining people's motivation, emotions and even behaviour. In light of this, researchers in both general education (for review see Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and language teacher education (for review see Wyatt, 2018) have extensively researched the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers across various subjects and contexts. With this research, we have gained insights into what areas teachers feel most efficacious in, and also, the different variables that may impact teachers' self-efficacy. This study continues this line of research and investigates the following research questions:

- 1) What are the self-efficacy beliefs of NNESTs teaching across various EFL settings?
- 2) What variables impact the self-efficacy beliefs of NNESTs in EFL contexts?

5.2 NNESTs' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Self-efficacy research is heavily quantitative, in both general education (Klassen et al., 2011) and language teacher education (LTE) (Wyatt, 2018). As a result, many studies have used surveys to investigate NNEST self-efficacy. Unlike mainstream efficacy research, much of the research into language teacher self-efficacy has focused on EFL contexts, especially Asia (Wyatt, 2018). Most studies use a measure from general education, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Wyatt, 2018), which was developed to measure teachers' self-efficacy in mainstream classrooms in the United States. The TSES was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) and contains three subscales that measure teachers' confidence in their abilities for

Instructional Strategies, Classroom Management and Student Engagement. While the instrument has its critics (e.g. Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2014; 2018), it is by far the most used instrument in language teacher self-efficacy research (Wyatt, 2018) and its factor structure has been confirmed by general education researchers across different contexts (Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong, Huan, Wong, & Georgiou, 2009), and also language teacher researchers (Chacon, 2002; Lee, 2009). Because of this, there is ample information about teachers' confidence in their abilities to instruct students, manage the classroom, and engage with students based on the TSES items.

For example, researchers have noted that teachers feel most efficacious in their instructional capabilities, followed by classroom management and then student engagement in Iran (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008), Turkey (Yilmez, 2011) and Venezuela (Chacon, 2005). However, for teachers again in Turkey, both before and after a teaching practicum, teachers felt most confident on the Student Engagement subscale (Atay, 2007). With a different participant group in Iran, teachers felt most comfortable with their abilities to manage the classroom, followed by instruction and then engaging with students (Moradkhani, Raygan, Moein, 2017). For foreign language teachers in the United States, calculating mean averages by hand, the teachers in Swanson (2010a) felt most confident in their instructional capabilities as well, followed by the Classroom Management and Student Engagement factors. In another study, Swanson (2010b) showed similar results. Looking at foreign/second language teachers in both the United States and Canada (Swanson, 2012) and with Spanish teachers in the United States (Swanson, 2014), again results showed teachers to be most confident in their abilities to instruct students and least confident in their abilities to engage with students. Thus, while there is some difference across studies, many studies that have used the TSES find teachers most confident on the Instructional Strategies scale, followed by Classroom Management and then Student Engagement.

While the TSES is the most commonly used scale in language teacher self-efficacy research (Wyatt, 2018), other scales have been used and have provided a glimpse into teachers' confidence for other classroom areas. Swanson (2010a) developed the Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale (FLTES), later changed to the Second/Foreign Language Teacher Efficacy Scale (S/FLTES) (Swanson, 2012) and used it alongside the TSES for his studies. The original scale included 10 items across two factors, Teacher as Facilitator and Content Knowledge (Swanson, 2010a), but a third subscale, Culture, was added later (Swanson, 2012). The Teacher as Facilitator subscale investigated teachers' confidence to teach students at beginning and advanced language levels, reduce student anxiety, motivate students to learn foreign languages and increase achievement (Swanson, 2010a). The Content Knowledge subscale pertained to items that measured teachers' confidence in their general proficiency capabilities in the language they taught. While the Content Knowledge factor has been questioned (Choi & Lee, 2016; Faez & Karas, 2017; Wyatt, 2018), Swanson (2010a; 2010b) notes that teachers felt more confident in their Content Knowledge and less confident on the Teacher as Facilitator subscale. With Spanish teachers in the United States, Swanson (2014) again found teachers' Content Knowledge to be highest, followed by Teacher as Facilitator, and with the Culture subscale being the lowest. Blending the notions of proficiency and self-efficacy, Lee (2009) added the subfactor of Oral English Language Use, along with the TSES, and found teachers felt least confidence in this area with a mean score of 4.76 out of 9. Faez and Valeo (2012) used an overall efficacy scale with teachers in Ontario and found teachers most effective to manage the classroom, select materials and design effective lesson plans. These studies, while difficult to compare due to differing measures, have provided further insights into areas of language teacher self-efficacy beyond the TSES.

While the above descriptive information is valuable, many studies investigate teachers' self-efficacy in order to determine its relationship with other elements. For example, one common thread of research looks at the impact of self-efficacy on teachers' classroom practices (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Choi & Lee, 2016; 2018), especially pertaining to English use and communicative strategies in the classroom. Eslami and Fatahi (2008) found that teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy were more likely to use communicative teaching styles. However, in Turkey, Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2015) found no such relationship. In Japan, Nishino (2012) noted that teachers' self-efficacy to use communicative language (CLT) teaching somewhat impacted their propensity to use the CLT approach. In other words, the higher their self-efficacy to use CLT, the more they used communicative teaching methods. Choi and Lee (2016) focus on teachers in Korea and note an interaction effect of teachers' overall self-efficacy and their language proficiency as being impactful on teachers' English use in the classroom. They note that when teachers reach a minimum self-efficacy level of 4.44 out of 6, teachers' perceived general language proficiency would predict English use in the classroom at or above that threshold level. Still in Korea, Choi and Lee (2018) note the importance of higher classroom management self-efficacy as this was positively associated with more communicative teaching methods. For teachers who felt less efficacious in their abilities to manage the classroom, they were more inclined to use teacher-centred methods. In all, these studies show the potential impact of teachers' self-efficacy on their classroom practice, further enhancing its importance as a construct for not only teachers, but the overall classroom in general.

5.3 Impact of Proficiency, Experience and LTE on Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Considering its importance, researchers have also sought to know where teachers' self-efficacy beliefs may come from and what elements may correlate with self-efficacy. One of the most prominent of these elements is teachers' language proficiency. Many of the studies mentioned above that focus on impact on classroom practices also look at the relationship between self-efficacy and general language proficiency (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). However, the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy is somewhat contentious in self-efficacy research as researchers determine how to best incorporate language proficiency into self-efficacy measurement. As mentioned, researchers have criticized the S/FLTES subscale of Content Knowledge (e.g. Choi & Lee, 2016; Wyatt, 2018) because it pertains to general language proficiency capabilities (e.g. writing a letter to a pen pal, conversing with a native speaker etc.). Choi and Lee (2016) argue that when measuring general language proficiency, this should be done on a separate scale because it is different from the self-efficacy construct. For the most part, studies have adhered to this and used different scales for general proficiency and self-efficacy, providing insights into the relationship between the two. Looking at previous studies, in general, there appears to be a relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' general language proficiency, but the results do vary across contexts and studies (Faez & Karas, 2017). In a recent meta-analysis, results showed that the overall relationship across studies approaches a moderate effect size ($r = .37$) and that studies that use more language teaching specific instruments show a higher relationship (Faez, Karas, & Uchihara, 2018). In a qualitative study, Phan and Locke (2015) note that having a higher proficiency level than their students served as a source of efficacy for teachers in Vietnam. Thus, despite some nuances, general proficiency and self-efficacy appear to be positively related.

However, the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy only reveals so much. While general proficiency is often touted as important for language teachers, this view is now seen as somewhat misguided as researchers emphasize English that can be used for the classroom (Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015; Richards, 2017). With this classroom proficiency (Richards, 2017), the focus turns to the language teachers specifically need to succeed as language teachers, moving away from a focus on general proficiency which is not required for most contexts (Freeman, 2017). This emphasis on classroom language is recent and has not been researched extensively in self-efficacy literature as most studies use the notion of general proficiency to examine the relationship between proficiency and self-efficacy. One notable exception is the dissertation by Lee (2009). Lee (2009) includes Oral English Language Use as part of her self-efficacy scale, measuring Korean teachers' confidence in their abilities to use English in the classroom. This factor shows the complex relationship between self-efficacy and language proficiency. While teachers may feel confident in their capabilities to enact various classroom tasks, as language teachers, it is important to consider their abilities to do various tasks in the language of instruction as well. This notion of classroom proficiency does not assume native speaker superiority, as general proficiency does (Freeman, 2017), but rather displays the interconnectedness of language instruction and language proficiency which combines both linguistic and pedagogical capability (Van Canh & Renandya, 2017). The notion of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is not new, but it is more commonly applied to fields with unique language that is separate from more common daily language (e.g. medicine, engineering). Classroom proficiency often overlaps with general proficiency as it contains many similar words and phrases common in daily general language (Freeman et al., 2015), but it combines pedagogical skill required to use English appropriately while teaching, which requires both

teaching skill and language ability. With this combination of pedagogical and linguistic capability, the notion of classroom proficiency bridges language proficiency and self-efficacy together, emphasizing the importance of teachers' confidence in their abilities to enact classroom tasks in English.

Language teacher education (LTE) is another element that researchers have investigated. Looking at the impact of LTE, Atay (2007) notes that teachers in Turkey were initially most confident in their abilities to engage with students, followed by instructional ability and classroom management. However, after completing a practicum, while their confidence to engage students remained high, their confidence in their instructional ability dropped indicating somewhat of a "reality shock" (p. 214) as teachers experienced the difficulty of actual classroom practice. In Iran, teachers engaged in a professional development program and saw a significant increase in their overall efficacy when surveyed immediately after the intervention and also for the delayed post-test 3 months later (Karimi Allvar, 2011). After a year long methods course in a TEFL program in Taiwan, teachers noted a significant increase in their overall teacher efficacy, (Chiang, 2008). For teachers in Korea, Shim (2001) notes that teachers with higher degrees often had higher efficacy scores. Similar results were found by Lee (2009) with teachers in Korea, but Crook (2016) found no impact of higher LTE degrees for teachers in Thailand.

Some studies look at the impact of both teaching experience and language teacher education in tandem. Experience proved to be a significant indicator of higher self-efficacy for teachers in Iran as they scored higher across all efficacy subscales, but teaching degree was only moderately impactful for teachers' ability to engage with students (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010). As mentioned, in Thailand, Crook (2016) noted level of education did not have any impact on teachers' self-efficacy, but experience as a general classroom teacher did impact their self-

efficacy. However, oppositely, experience specifically as an English teacher did not impact these teachers' self-efficacy. For teachers in Korea, their personal teaching efficacy (PTE) was positively related with elementary teaching experience and highest degree earned (Lee, 2009). However, interestingly, experienced teachers felt less confident in instructional strategies and using English in the classroom. Lee (2009) notes this may be because younger teachers went to school with a greater emphasis on English language learning and thus feel more confident in their English capabilities. Looking at teachers' efficacy to teach literature, no difference was found between experienced and novice teachers in Iran (Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2013). Thus, the results appear somewhat mixed pertaining to LTE and teaching experience and self-efficacy. This remains an important area of investigation, however, as teacher attrition remains a big problem for language teachers (Swanson, 2012a) and it is still unclear as to how dynamic teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are, and if they do go up as teachers become more experienced.

5.4 Methodology

This study used a quantitative research design. It was guided by two research questions:

- 1) What are the self-efficacy beliefs of NNESTs teaching across various EFL settings?
- 2) What elements impact NNEST self-efficacy?

Data were drawn from an online survey. Part of a larger study, the survey consisted of six overall sections, but only four sections are used for this individual study. The first section asked teachers to provide basic demographic information. Section 2 instructed teachers to provide their language teacher education (LTE) history, including what types of LTE programs they have taken. For this study, teachers' highest completed LTE program is used for analysis. The next

section asked teachers to self-report their general language proficiency using the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). To self-assess their general proficiency, participants used the Self-Assessment Grid (p. 26 - 27) of the CEFR which measures proficiency across five language skills: listening, reading, writing, spoken interaction and spoken production. Finally, the last section assessed teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. As discussed in Study 1, a six factor 26 item scale was finalized. These six factors and 26 items form the self-efficacy measurement used for this study.

5.4.1 Participants.

There was an initial sample of $N = 228$ participants for this study. These were selected from the broader participant pool for this dissertation. To be included, all of the teachers identified as NNESTs and were teaching in an EFL context. However, participants were removed due to missing data on either their teaching experience or CEFR scores ($n = 8$). Boxplots were analyzed for outliers resulting in further participants being removed because they were outliers for experience ($n = 3$) and self-appraised CEFR proficiency ($n = 4$). Thus, a total of $N = 213$ participants' data was used for this study. Participants were teaching in a variety of EFL contexts: Asia ($n = 110$), Europe ($n = 49$), South America ($n = 43$), and Africa ($n = 11$). The majority of participants were female ($n = 132$), followed by males ($n = 77$) and a minority who did not disclose gender ($n = 4$). The participants were teaching in a variety of contexts: Universities ($n = 87$); private schools ($n = 79$); public schools ($n = 76$); and 'other' ($n = 22$). Some teachers taught in more than one context, which is why this number is larger than $N = 213$. For highest language teacher education completed, teachers had a variety of qualifications: Graduate degree ($n = 85$ [$n = 66$ Master, $n = 19$ PhD]), bachelor ($n = 32$), certificate ($n = 9$),

diploma ($n = 5$) and finally those that did not have any LTE specific qualification of any kind ($n = 82$). For the final group, while many qualitatively indicated they had other degrees, they did not have any specific language teacher preparation. Looking at teacher proficiency, the mean self-perceived level of proficiency was 5.21 out of 6 ($SD = .72$). This puts the participants at around the C1 level on average. For teaching experience, teachers had a mean of 10.75 years ($SD = 7.69$), with a range of experience from 0 – 33 years.

5.4.2 Data analysis.

To answer research question 1, descriptive statistics were calculated for each scale item and also the overall factors. Means and standard deviations are presented below in the Results section. To answer research question 2 in regard to what aspects impact teachers' self-efficacy, a series of simultaneous multiple regression analyses were conducted (Warner, 2013). As mentioned, six unique factors were discovered after the exploratory factor analysis in Study 1. The first factor was Classroom Proficiency, which measures teachers' confidence in their abilities to enact classroom tasks in English. This factor is viewed as both a measure of self-efficacy, but also as a measure of English-for-teaching as it assesses teachers' confidence in their classroom English. Thus, for the first analysis it is used as an outcome variable in the regression analysis with three predictor variables: self-appraised CEFR scores, experience in years, and highest LTE qualifications. For the next five regression analyses, the remaining five factors were used as the outcome variables, but the Classroom Proficiency is used as a predictor variable as it serves as a measure of teaching-specific proficiency. For these analyses, Classroom Proficiency, CEFR scores, and experience in years were entered as quantitative variables, while the highest LTE qualifications were dummy-coded '0' and '1'. The No LTE group ($n = 87$) was entered as one

group into the regression equation. However, because the certificate ($n = 9$), diploma ($n = 5$) and bachelor ($n = 32$) groups were small, they were consolidated into one group to form a Cert/Dip/BA group ($n = 46$). This group was also entered into the regression equation. The Graduate group ($n = 85$) was used as the reference group (Darlington & Hayes, 2017) and not entered into the regression equation.

Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 25. The sample size of $N = 213$ was sufficient to conduct multiple regression analysis (Pituch & Stevens, 2016; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). To ensure linearity between the three quantitative variables (classroom proficiency, CEFR scores, experience in years) and the five outcome variables (Learner-Focused Instruction, Assessment, Language Instruction, Culture, Materials), scatter plots were analyzed and each showed a sufficiently linear relationship for regression analysis. Multicollinearity was investigated via correlational analysis and investigation of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores. All correlations were within acceptable range (see Table 1 for correlations) and all VIF scores were below 2, well within the accepted range (Keith, 2006). With multiple regression, outliers can have a large effect on results (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018), thus care must be taken with data. As mentioned, preliminary analysis of box plots resulted in the removal of extreme outliers prior to the regression analysis for teaching experience and general proficiency as measured by the CEFR, but further outliers were assessed by examining standardized residual scores of the Y variables. Scores beyond ± 3.29 were removed from particular analyses (Field, 2018), which resulted in different N values for each analysis (discussed with each analysis below). Cook's distance was examined to determine any influential data points; no scores were above the cut-off point of 1 (Pituch & Stevens, 2016). To assess normality, standardized residuals of Y outcome variables were assessed via histogram. PP plots were also analyzed; these

showed some minor deviations from normality, but no drastic deviations were found. Still, as a solution, the regression analyses were conducted with bootstrapping, which is a robust method of analysis (Larson-Hall, 2016). Bootstrapping simulates results from a sample as a way to overcome non-normality (LaFlair, Egbert & Plonsky, 2015); for these analyses, 2000 simulations were used (Larson-Hall, 2016). The residual vs predicted value plot was analyzed to ensure homoscedasticity (Keith, 2006; Pituch & Stevens, 2016). No issues were found as the scatter plots spread evenly. Finally, all data were collected independently of each other ensuring participants responded independently of one another (Pituch & Stevens, 2016).

5.5 Results

The results for each regression analysis are divided based on the outcome variable used. Analyzing the zero-order correlations between variables (see Table 1), the self-efficacy factors were mostly moderately related to each other. Most correlations are significant, but the relation between teaching experience and some efficacy factors was non-significant. The relationship between the general proficiency scores and the factors is noteworthy as most studies uses bivariate correlations to analyze the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy (Faez & Karas, 2017). For this study, the correlations range from $r = .20$ to $r = .46$ between the CEFR scores and efficacy factors. As mentioned, each analysis uses one categorical variable, highest LTE qualification, for the regression. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and n values for the categorical variable, highest LTE qualification.

Table 1

Correlation Matrix

	CP	LFI	Assess	LI	Culture	Mat	CEFR	Exp
CP	1							

LFI	** .50 (.37 - .62)	1						
Assess	** .65 (.56 - .73)	** .47 (.35 - .58)	1					
LI	** .60 (.47 - .70)	** .42 (.29 - .53)	** .54 (.42 - .64)	1				
Culture	** .59 (.48 - .67)	** .44 (.33 - .55)	** .58 (.47 - .67)	** .50 (.39 - .60)	1			
Mat	** .67 (.57 - .77)	** .38 (.24 - .52)	** .75 (.67 - .81)	** .56 (.42 - .67)	** .51 (.36 - .64)	1		
CEFR	** .46 (.34 - .57)	** .20 (.06 - .34)	** .24 (.11 - .36)	** .33 (.20 - .45)	** .23 (.11 - .35)	** .31 (.18 - .43)	1	
Exp	* .14 (.02 - .26)	.12 (-.01 - .25)	** .23 (.12 - .35)	.13 (.00 - .26)	* .16 (.04 - .27)	** .22 (.10 - .33)	.07 (-.08 - .21)	1

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals in brackets below each correlation (2000 iterations). Correlations based on total $N = 213$ participants. CP = Classroom Proficiency; LFI = Learner-Focused Instruction; Assess = Assessment; LI = Language Instruction; Mat = Materials; CEFR = General proficiency; Exp = Experience in years

Table 2

Highest LTE Qualification Descriptive Statistics

Factor/Group	CP ($n = 211$)	LFI ($n = 210$)	Assess ($n = 212$)	LI ($N = 213$)	Culture ($n = 212$)	Materials ($n = 210$)
No LTE	5.21 (.59) $n = 82$	4.89 (.74) $n = 81$	4.89 (.73) $n = 81$	5.11 (.67) $n = 82$	5.01 (.76) $n = 82$	5.23 (.60) $n = 81$
Cert/Dip/BA	5.23 (.62) $n = 45$	4.95 (.76) $n = 45$	5.00 (.75) $n = 46$	5.14 (.81) $n = 46$	5.18 (.75) $n = 45$	5.31 (.62) $n = 45$
Graduate	5.32 (.59) $n = 84$	4.99 (.63) $n = 84$	4.86 (.65) $n = 85$	5.12 (.64) $n = 85$	5.05 (.77) $n = 85$	5.31 (.61) $n = 84$

Note. Means and standard deviations provided. No LTE = No language teacher education qualification; Cert/Dip/BA = Highest LTE is either a certificate, diploma or bachelor degree; Graduate = Highest LTE achieved is a graduate degree (master or PhD)

5.5.1 Classroom proficiency.

A simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if general proficiency as self-assessed by the CEFR, teaching experience in years and highest LTE qualification significantly predicted teachers' Classroom Proficiency. General proficiency and experience in

years were entered as quantitative variables, while highest LTE completed was entered as a categorical variable (See above for dummy coding). Two scores were beyond the ± 3.29 level when analyzing standardized residuals of the Y variable and were removed (Field, 2018), leaving $n = 211$ participants for this analysis. Bootstrapping was used with 2000 iterations to provide more robust confidence intervals for b (Larson-Hall, 2016). The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(4, 206) = 17.78, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .507, R^2 = .257$, and adjusted $R^2 = .242$ (See Table 4). General proficiency was the only significant predictor of Classroom Proficiency and accounted for 23.33% of unique variance after squaring the part correlation. Experience in years was not significant, nor were the comparisons between the highest LTE qualifications. These results show that higher self-perceived general proficiency, based on the CEFR self-assessment grid, is likely to predict teachers' perceived levels of Classroom Proficiency.

Table 3

Classroom Proficiency Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand Dev.
I can use English as the medium of instruction.	5.38	.74
I can use English for all classroom functions.	5.09	.88
I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.	5.53	.58
I can use English to provide written feedback.	5.34	.75
I can model natural English use.	4.88	.87
I can use English to manage classroom interactions.	5.37	.75
I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.	5.34	.77

Overall – Classroom Proficiency	5.23	.59
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Table 4

Classroom Proficiency Regression Results

Variable	<i>b</i> (β)	<i>t</i>	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	3.07	11.12	**<.001	2.46/3.68	
CEFR Proficiency	.40(.49)	8.04	**<.001	.29/.52	.48
Teaching Exp.	.01(.10)	1.64	.103	-.001/.02	.10
Graduate vs No LTE	.02(.02)	.27	.785	-.14/.19	.02
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	-.03(-.02)	-.30	.768	-.23/.16	-.02

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for *b*.

5.5.2 Learner-focused instruction.

The second regression analysis used the Learner-Focused Instruction factor as the dependent variable. Four predictor variables were entered into the equation: Classroom proficiency, general proficiency as measured by CEFR, and experience in years were entered as quantitative variables, while highest LTE completed was entered as a categorical variable (See above for dummy coding). Analyzing standardized residuals of the Y variable indicated three scores were extreme outliers and beyond the ± 3.29 level (Field, 2018) and were removed leaving $n = 210$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(5, 204) = 17.71$, $p < .001$ with an overall $R = .550$, $R^2 = .303$, and adjusted $R^2 = .286$. Classroom proficiency was

the only statistically significant predictor and it accounted for 22.9% of unique variance.

Teaching experience in years did not impact Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy, nor did general language proficiency or having a graduate degree as highest LTE qualification. These results suggest that teachers with higher classroom proficiency confidence will also have higher confidence for Learner-Focused Instruction.

Table 5

Learner-Focused Instruction Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.	5.02	.91
I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.	5.01	.98
I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.	4.80	.91
Overall – Learner-Focused Instruction	4.94	.70

Table 6

Learner-Focused Instruction Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.75	4.44	**<.001	.90/2.54	
Classroom Proficiency	.62(.55)	8.20	**<.001	.44/.77	.48
CEFR Proficiency	-.01(-.02)	-.22	.829	-.15/.14	-.01
Teaching Exp.	.004(.05)	.79	.429	-.01/.01	.05

Graduate vs No LTE	-0.05(-.03)	-.50	.619	-.23/.15	-.03
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	.03(.02)	.23	.816	-.19/.24	.01

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for b .

5.5.3 Assessment.

The third regression analysis used the Assessment factor as the dependent variable with the same four predictor variables used in the previous analysis. Analyzing standardized residuals indicated one score was an extreme outlier and beyond the ± 3.29 level (Field, 2018) and was removed leaving $n = 212$ for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(5, 206) = 37.07, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .688, R^2 = .474$, and adjusted $R^2 = .461$ (see Table 8). Classroom Proficiency was a significant predictor of Assessment self-efficacy. Squaring the part correlation, it accounted for 36% of unique variance. Teaching experience was also significant and accounted for approximately 1.64% of unique variance. Finally, highest LTE completed also showed significant results. Comparing teachers with a graduate degree with teachers with either a certificate, diploma or bachelor level degree (Cert/Dip/BA) as their highest qualification, controlling for other variables, teachers in the Cert/Dip/BA group showed significantly higher Assessment self-efficacy. This accounted for 1.51% of unique variance. There was no statistically significant difference between the Graduate group and the No LTE group when controlling for other variables. General language proficiency was also non-significant. These results indicate that teachers with higher classroom proficiency will have higher Assessment self-efficacy. Furthermore, controlling for other variables, more experienced teachers will feel more efficacious in their assessment capabilities as well, but with a lower

effect. Higher level graduate degrees did not seem to positively impact teachers' Assessment self-efficacy; rather, teachers who had either a certificate, diploma or bachelor level degree may actually feel more confident in their assessment capabilities based on these results when other variables are controlled.

Table 7

Assessment Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can design appropriate assessment tasks.	4.85	.91
I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.	4.92	.86
I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.	4.98	.82
I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.	4.92	.84
I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.	4.79	1.00
I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance-based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer-, etc.).	4.94	1.07
Overall – Assessment	4.90	.70

Table 8

Assessment Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.00	2.93	** .004	.33/1.64	
Classroom Proficiency	.78(.69)	11.94	** <.001	.64/.91	.60
CEFR Proficiency	-.08(-.08)	-1.38	.170	-.17/.02	-.07

Teaching Exp.	.01(.13)	2.53	*.012	.003/.02	.13
Graduate vs No LTE	.08(.06)	.98	.328	-.08/.23	.05
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	.23(.14)	2.43	*.016	.05/.42	.12

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for b .

5.5.4 Language instruction.

The fourth regression analysis used the Language Instruction factor as the dependent variable with the same four predictor variables as the previous two regression analyses. No scores were beyond the ± 3.29 level when analyzing standardized residuals (Field, 2018), thus all $N = 213$ participants were used for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(5, 207) = 23.70, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .603, R^2 = .364$, and adjusted $R^2 = .349$ (see Table 11). Classroom proficiency was the only significant predictor of Language Instruction self-efficacy and accounted for 24.21% of unique variance. General proficiency was not a significant predictor, nor was teaching experience or highest LTE qualification. These results indicate that teachers' self-perceived classroom proficiency capabilities strongly predict their confidence for Language Instruction.

Table 9

Language Instruction Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.	5.10	.90

I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.	5.21	.80
I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.	5.25	.77
I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.	4.92	.96
Overall – Language Instruction	5.12	.69

Table 10

Language Instruction Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.40	3.81	**<.001	.51/2.36	
Classroom Proficiency	.63(.56)	8.87	**<.001	.44/.80	.49
CEFR Proficiency	.07(.07)	1.14	.258	-.05/.20	.06
Teaching Exp.	.004(.05)	.85	.397	-.01/.01	.05
Graduate vs No LTE	.07(.05)	.74	.458	-.10/.24	.04
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	.10(.06)	.97	.332	-.09/.29	.05

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for *b*.

5.5.5 Culture.

The fifth regression analysis used the Culture factor as the dependent variable with the same four predictor variables as before. One score was beyond the ± 3.29 level when analyzing standardized residuals and was removed (Field, 2018), leaving $n = 212$ participants for this

analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(5, 206) = 22.53, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .595, R^2 = .354$, and adjusted $R^2 = .338$. Classroom proficiency was the only significant predictor of Culture self-efficacy and accounted for 27.98% of unique variance. General proficiency and teaching experience showed no significant impact and there were no significant differences between the highest LTE qualification comparisons. These results indicate that teachers with higher classroom proficiency will have their efficacy for cultural instruction positively impacted.

Table 11

Culture Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.	4.99	.89
I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.	5.18	.83
I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.	5.00	1.00
Overall – Culture	5.06	.76

Table 12

Culture Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.35	3.27	** .001	.48/2.18	
Classroom Proficiency	.74(.60)	9.44	** <.001	.56/.92	.53
CEFR Proficiency	-.06(-.06)	-.85	.397	-.20/.08	-.05

Teaching Exp.	.01(.07)	1.15	.253	-.003/.02	.06
Graduate vs No LTE	.01(.01)	.11	.915	-.18/.20	.01
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	.19(.11)	1.70	.091	-.05/.44	.10

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for b .

5.5.6 Materials.

The sixth regression analysis used the Materials factor as the dependent variable with the same four predictor variables as in the previous analysis. Three scores were beyond the ± 3.29 level when analyzing standardized residuals and were removed (Field, 2018), leaving $n = 210$ participants for this analysis. The overall regression equation was statistically significant $F(5, 204) = 49.88, p < .001$ with an overall $R = .742, R^2 = .550$, and adjusted $R^2 = .539$. Classroom proficiency was the only significant predictor of Materials self-efficacy and accounted for 40.58% of unique variance. Similar to some of the previous analyses, general proficiency and experience did not significantly predict Materials self-efficacy. There were no significant differences comparing the Graduate group with the other LTE qualifications. These results indicate that teachers with higher classroom proficiency will feel more confident in their abilities to use/adapt materials.

Table 13

Materials Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Stand. Dev.
I can use appropriate resources and materials.	5.29	.71

I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.	5.27	.82
I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	5.27	.78
Overall – Materials	5.28	.61

Table 14

Materials Regression Results

Variable	b (β)	t	Sig.	BS 95%CI	Part correlation
(Intercept)	1.48	5.40	**<.001	.91/2.03	
Classroom Proficiency	.72(.73)	13.57	**<.001	.61/82	.64
CEFR Proficiency	-.01(-.01)	-.17	.865	-.09/08	-.01
Teaching Exp.	.01(.09)	1.88	.062	.00/.01	.09
Graduate vs No LTE	-.01(-.01)	-.20	.842	-.16/.12	-.01
Graduate vs Cert/Dip/BA	.08(.06)	1.10	.273	-.06/.23	.05

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals used for *b*.

5.6 Discussion

Looking across the mean scores of the self-efficacy factors, the teachers in this study indicated a high level of global self-efficacy to use/adapt materials. Teachers' Classroom Proficiency was also relatively high, but teachers showed less confidence in their Assessment and Learner-Focused Instruction capabilities. Because this study used a newly formed scale, it is difficult to draw comparisons with other studies. Wyatt (2018) notes that even determining a 'high' self-

efficacy or a 'low' self-efficacy is difficult because we do not have any way of comparing many studies. With this in mind, it is difficult to know if these scores would be considered high or low if compared with different groups of teachers. Previous studies that use the TSES often show that teachers feel most confident in their instructional abilities compared to their classroom management and student engagement self-efficacy. These results appear to be supported further by this study as the highest factor scores were for factors that are related to instructional abilities (e.g. Materials, Classroom Proficiency, Language Instruction). The Culture factor can potentially be compared with Swanson (2012) who also includes a Culture factor on the S/FLTES. Looking at second/foreign language teachers in Canada and the United States, Swanson (2012) notes that the two lowest scoring items from his study were from the cultural instruction factor. While the two scales are not the same, it is interesting to note that cultural instruction appeared to have lower scoring items across both studies.

The second research question sought to understand the impact of teachers' language proficiency, both specific classroom proficiency and general proficiency, teaching experience and highest LTE qualification on self-efficacy. In the first regression analysis, the Classroom Proficiency factor was used as the outcome variable with three predictors. Teachers' general language proficiency, as self-appraised by the CEFR, proved to be the only significant predictor of teachers' classroom proficiency. This was not an unexpected result as much of the linguistic elements found within classroom proficiency are from general language proficiency (Freeman, 2017). However, as discussed, the notion of classroom proficiency is not only about linguistic capability, but rather emphasizes teachers' pedagogical capabilities with English. Teaching experience and LTE qualifications were not significant for this analysis, indicating that these

elements may have less of an effect on teachers' ability to teach in English in EFL contexts. Although, further research is needed before conclusive claims are made.

When utilized as a predictor variable for the remaining five regression analyses, the Classroom Proficiency variable was the biggest predictor of self-efficacy across all of the regression analyses. It was expected that Classroom Proficiency would likely be a significant predictor. It showed high significant correlations with the other factors and teachers' proficiency is often noted as highly impactful on teachers' confidence (e.g. Kamhi-Stein, 2009). However, it was interesting to note that the CEFR general proficiency was not a significant predictor for any of the analyses. The CEFR scale uses similar 'I can' statements, but these are more general, and when measured alongside Classroom Proficiency, general proficiency had no significant effect in this study. The bivariate correlations between general proficiency and the self-efficacy factors were largely comparable to other studies as they were in the low to moderate range. Other studies in EFL contexts have found a similar relationship (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008), albeit using different measures. However, while the correlations are similar in magnitude, considering this study used an English language teaching specific measurement of self-efficacy, these effects are smaller when compared with other studies that did not use the TSES (e.g. Nishino, 2012). Thus, while general proficiency and self-efficacy were generally correlated using bivariate analysis, the regression analyses partially affirm the importance of the more specific teaching-specific language proficiency. Self-perceived proficiency appraisals may lack accuracy, but they are useful for professional development purposes (Borg & Edmett, 2018), and it is important for teachers to have understandings about the various ways to measure proficiency as they will need this when teaching students. However, while teachers may perceive their proficiency based on standardized measures such as the CEFR, the results from this study

indicate that teachers may be better served considering their language proficiency in relation to specific teaching related tasks. As teachers feel more confident in their ability to provide feedback in English, manage classroom interactions in English, and other functions, their confidence for other teaching related tasks will also likely increase. The results of this study echo calls from researchers (e.g. Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017) who argue it is time for the field of ELT to shift away from an overemphasis on teachers' general proficiency capability and focus more on their classroom proficiency, especially in EFL contexts.

Assessment was the only factor that saw significant predictors besides Classroom Proficiency. For Assessment, experience in years also significantly predicted teachers' confidence in their assessment capabilities, as did holding one of either a certificate, diploma, or bachelor level qualification as a highest LTE qualification compared with teachers who held a graduate degree. First dealing with experience, this study used experience in years as a measure, but researchers have noted this allows for limited interpretation (Morris, Usher & Chen, 2017). While this provides a numerical value of experience, there is no way of knowing the success of teachers' experiences (Morris et al., 2017). Still, it is worthwhile to note that experience in years was a significant predictor of Assessment self-efficacy. Previous quantitative studies have shown mixed results. Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) noted experience as a contributor to self-efficacy, but Alemi & Pashmforoosh (2013) found opposing results. In Korea, Lee (2009) found more experienced teachers to even be less efficacious. Wyatt (2018) notes that task-specific self-efficacy beliefs are more flexible, but global self-efficacy beliefs are somewhat more difficult to change. Researchers in general education have noted that once (global) self-efficacy beliefs become set, they are difficult to alter (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2007), even with years of teaching experience. Thus, while intuitively one might expect teachers to become more confident

as they teach longer, the results of this study appear to align with the mixed results from past research. Teachers' confidence in their abilities to assess students was positively impacted by their years of teaching, but confidence in other areas remained unimpacted by teaching experience. Further research will help clarify this relationship, but perhaps more nuanced analyses are required.

In terms of language teacher education, the Cert/Dip/BA group actually had a higher Assessment self-efficacy than the Graduate group, and when controlling for the other variables, it was a significant predictor. While this did not account for much unique variance in Assessment self-efficacy, it was surprising to note these results. While studies have noted the impact of language teacher interventions for efficacy development (e.g. Karimi Allvar, 2011) and also the benefit of higher degrees for positive self-efficacy (e.g. Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001), in other contexts, degree level did not seem to impact teachers' confidence (e.g. Crook, 2016). With such a broad array of programs and participants in this study, firm conclusions cannot be drawn. While LTE only seemed to be of impact for Assessment self-efficacy, it is important to remember that the teachers in this study were highly experienced and potentially far removed from their LTE programs. However, one possible interpretation is that while higher level LTE programs provide teachers with theoretical knowledge, at times, the practicality of programs may not always be readily apparent. In other words, teachers may leave higher graduate programs 'knowing' more, but teachers' confidence to use and apply this knowledge may not be obvious. Future research needs to address this issue to confirm the mixed results so the field can gain a more nuanced understanding of what type of programs may impact teachers' confidence to teach.

5.7 Conclusion

The results of this study overwhelmingly support the importance of classroom proficiency for teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. All of the teachers in this study were NNESTs teaching in EFL contexts. The ELTeach program (Freeman et al., 2015), which served as the inspiration for the Classroom Proficiency construct, has shown highly positive results for teachers who study this more teaching-specific language proficiency (Gu & Papageorgiou, 2016). While this study only used self-perceived measures, which is a serious limitation, the results appear to further support the notion of classroom proficiency. For LTE programs, and teachers in general, this has broad implications. LTE programs may be better served using this more specific notion of proficiency when preparing teachers for EFL contexts. However, this must be recognized for international LTE programs as well. While many teachers travel overseas to English-speaking nations for higher level LTE degrees, it is often expected that teachers' proficiency will improve simply based on living/studying in an English environment. However, teachers engage with study abroad programs/environments in different ways (Faez & Karas, 2019), and while studying overseas, teachers still may hope to return to their home contexts to teach (Selvi & Peercy, 2016). Thus, LTE programs in both ESL and EFL contexts may benefit from explicit attention to teachers' classroom proficiency in order to improve teachers' confidence across a multitude of teaching areas. With enhanced global self-efficacy in this area, teachers will be better suited to take on new teaching tasks (Wyatt, 2016) and also find some of the benefits of more efficacious teachers, which can include higher motivation, stronger teacher morale and potentially higher achieving students.

5.8 References

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Chapter 6 – Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This section serves as a final discussion about all of the elements in this dissertation. As this thesis took an integrated article format, the relevant discussions for each study are contained

within each article. However, it is useful to consider how the broader literature/theory presented in Chapter 2, and the three main studies, all fit together. This chapter begins with a discussion on the new scale formed for this dissertation. It then moves to a discussion that compares the results from Study 2, with teachers in predominantly ESL contexts of Canada and the United States, and Study 3, with teachers in EFL contexts, bridging the combined results of these studies with the broader theory and literature introduced throughout the dissertation. It ends with a discussion about this study's limitations and potential future directions for research.

6.2 New English language teacher self-efficacy scale

Study 1 outlined the creation of a new English language teacher self-efficacy instrument. This new scale, with 26 items and 6 factors, was used as the main source of data for Study 2 and Study 3. This scale now joins other scales created for (English) language teacher self-efficacy (e.g. Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Swanson, 2012) and more common general measures (e.g. Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The newly formed scale requires validation with confirmatory factor analysis and data drawn from new participants. While it covers many aspects of English language teaching, it does not cover everything, and future researchers may find it beneficial to add items that pertain to their specific contexts. This has been done with the TSES in previous language teacher self-efficacy studies (e.g. Lee, 2009).

It is time for the field of (English) language teacher self-efficacy to move past its overreliance on general education measures. Wyatt (2018a; 2018b) notes that when studies take on quantitative or mixed methods designs, they overwhelmingly use the TSES. This overreliance on the TSES has limited our interpretations and has created confusion as researchers do not distinguish between task-specific self-efficacy (TSE) and global self-efficacy (GSE). This new

measure provides researchers with a useful tool that they can use to measure TSE beliefs with the individual items, but also GSE beliefs, by using the overall factor scores. It is important that researchers explicitly recognize this difference. The individual factors make the scale somewhat more flexible as researchers can use all or some of the factors for their work. Wyatt (2018b) notes more information is needed about the relationship between GSE and TSE beliefs; this new scale could potentially be used for such a purpose. While 26 items cannot fully account for all that there is in English language teaching, it is a highly usable instrument that can be administered across a variety of contexts and allow researchers to explore more focused avenues of language teacher self-efficacy research with quantitative and mixed methods designs. Along with rich qualitative research, this will help the field of language teacher self-efficacy move forward.

6.3 Interpreting Levels of Self-Efficacy

Using the aforementioned scale, Study 2 and Study 3 presented descriptive information to determine teachers' levels of self-efficacy across the 26 items and six factors. While no inferential analysis was conducted to compare the numbers across studies, it is important to consider what these levels of self-efficacy may mean. As noted in Chapter 2, there are two main theories about teacher self-efficacy development. From general education, Tschannen-Moran and colleagues (1998) outline their model of self-efficacy that describes efficacy as cyclical in nature. As teachers' self-efficacy goes up, their performance improves, which further enhances their self-efficacy. With this perspective, higher self-efficacy is unquestionably better as this means teachers will have enhanced teaching performances, which will inevitably lead to higher self-efficacy. It functions as an upward spiral of effectiveness where confidence leads to better teaching, which leads to more confidence, which leads to better teaching, and on and on it goes

(Wyatt, 2016). However, Wyatt (2016) has challenged this notion arguing that higher self-efficacy may not always be beneficial. Rather, self-efficacy that is too high could be a sign of overconfidence, complacency and/or a lack of knowledge about the nuances required for teaching (Wyatt, 2018a). In Wyatt's (2016) model, while high GSE beliefs are desirable as they can serve to protect teachers, 'lower' task-specific self-efficacy can also be beneficial as teachers may be encouraged to seek out professional development and improve their craft.

Looking at the descriptive statistics from Study 2 and Study 3, it is interesting to consider both theoretical models. The raw scores provide some insights into these teachers' TSE beliefs for each item and also their global self-efficacy for the overall factors. The scales for the individual items and the global scores all ranged from 1 – 6, with 6 being the absolute highest score. Encouragingly, many of the scores were above 5. Drawing on Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), where higher scores are deemed unquestionably better, these descriptive data could be interpreted as positive as many of the scores could be considered 'high'. However, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) do not distinguish between TSE and GSE beliefs in their model (Wyatt, 2016). Wyatt (2016) also views 'high' global self-efficacy beliefs as beneficial as these are often more stable and "may protect teachers undertaking new tasks, for which their TSE beliefs may be low" (p. 133), but Wyatt's (2016) model is focused on TSE beliefs which would pertain to the individual items used in this study. In Wyatt's (2016) model, while the 'high' scores from the participants can be encouraging, there is still room for learning and the acknowledgement that through reflection and (practical) knowledge development, teachers can improve and become more confident about specific aspects of their teaching if they did self-assess lower on an individual item. For example, if a teacher self-assessed his/her efficacy as low for the item 'I can use English to manage classroom interactions', this may be problematic as the teacher appears to

lack confidence for this specific task, but it does not mean he/she cannot improve his/her efficacy for this task. However, if a teachers' more global score for the Classroom Proficiency factor is low, this may be more problematic as GSE beliefs are more difficult to change and less impacted by LTE (Wyatt, 2016). Thus, for the teachers in this dissertation, their global Classroom Proficiency scores appear relatively 'high', which is important, but their Learner-Focused Instruction global scores might be considered 'low' and be an issue of concern. However, as mentioned, Wyatt (2018b) notes it is difficult to determine if a score is truly 'high' or 'low' without comparison, which this dissertation did not do.

Wyatt (2018a; 2018b) has lamented at the lack of practical application of much of language teacher self-efficacy research, and for good reason. As he has outlined, the lack of distinction between TSE and GSE beliefs is a major flaw in quantitative self-efficacy research. Thus, while this discussion draws on only descriptive information and theoretical models, it is a worthwhile discussion to emphasize. Specific scale items do not lend themselves well to quantitative research, which is partially why many quantitative studies likely use GSE beliefs, albeit without acknowledging them. However, for practical application for teacher development, such individual items are potentially highly valuable. As part of an LTE course, English language teacher educators could administer this scale to prospective teachers to assess their task-specific self-efficacy beliefs and allow them to reflect on the tasks where they may lack confidence. This can be done quickly and can serve as valuable information for teacher educators to use in order to focus their instruction on the needs of students. While the descriptive information presented in this dissertation did not serve as a focal point for analyses purposes, as is common in many self-efficacy studies, it is perhaps important to give more attention to

teachers' self-efficacy scores, both at the item level and global level, to address the significant failure of quantitative research to be more useful in a practical sense.

6.4 Comparing Regression Models Across Studies

The discussion now turns to analyze the inferential analyses across Study 2 and Study 3, looking at the multiple regression models from each study. Plonsky and Ghanbar (2018) argue that the R^2 statistic is the most important statistic in a multiple regression analysis. With this in mind, this section compares the regression results for each outcome variable and provides the R^2 statistic in Table 1 for comparison across the ESL (Study 2) and EFL (Study 3) contexts. The regression models were slightly different. For the two analyses that used Classroom Proficiency as the outcome variable, the predictors included general proficiency, teaching experience in years, and language teacher education pathway. For Study 2, linguistic identity was also a predictor. For the regression analyses with Learner-Focused Instruction, Assessment, Language Instruction, Culture and Materials as outcome variables, all of the analyses included classroom proficiency, general proficiency, teaching experience in years, and LTE pathways as predictors. Again, Study 2 also included linguistic identity as a predictor while Study 3 did not. Thus, while the analyses are not exactly the same, it is still informative to compare the results across the two studies/contexts as they did share some similarities.

Table 1

R² Statistic across Study 2 and Study 3

Factors	Study 2 (ESL) R^2	Study 3 (EFL) R^2
----------------	---------------------------------------	---------------------------------------

Classroom Proficiency	.150	.257
Learner-Focused Instruction	.097	.303
Assessment	.328	.474
Language Instruction	.260	.364
Culture	.253	.354
Materials	.457	.550

Note. These are presented here for convenience. For further information, please refer back to the Results sections of Study 2 and Study 3.

For both contexts, the R^2 values were largest for the Materials factor. In terms of smallest R^2 values, Classroom Proficiency as the outcome variable was the smallest for the EFL contexts while Learner-Focused Instruction was the smallest for the ESL contexts. Looking at the individual factors and their R^2 scores, the EFL context analyses all accounted for more variance compared with the Study 2 analyses. This is especially interesting when it is noted that, for the most part, Classroom Proficiency as a predictor variable was the unique significant predictor in four of the five analyses. This potentially shows that in the EFL context, teachers' classroom proficiency may be more impactful than in the ESL context. The notion of English-for-teaching was developed for teachers in EFL contexts, especially those teaching beginner and intermediate level students (Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015), but its application into ESL contexts remains unclear. These results suggest that, while classroom proficiency is important across all contexts, it seems to account for much more of the EFL teachers' confidence when considering the explained variance.

It is also interesting to note large differences between the models for some of the factors. The model for Learner-Focused Instruction as an outcome variable in the ESL context accounted for a third of the variance compared to the EFL context. A large difference was also found

between Assessment from the two contexts. Overall, the R^2 values ranged from .097 to .550. Using Plonsky and Ghanbar's (2018) interpretations of .20 and below as small and .50 and above as large, the majority of these R^2 values fall in the moderate range, between small and large. Only Materials as an outcome variable in the EFL contexts would be considered large and Classroom Proficiency and Learner-Focused Instruction for the ESL context would be considered small. Plonsky and Ghanbar (2018) emphasize the R^2 statistic for multiple regression analysis as it indicates how much variance is accounted for by the model used. However, their review focuses on L2 learning studies and not teachers' psychology. Keith (2006) places less emphasis on the R^2 statistic and notes that especially with psychological constructs, such as self-efficacy, the R^2 statistic will not account for all of the variance as human psychology is highly complex. Thus, while the analyses in Study 2 and Study 3 helped determine which variables predict English language teacher self-efficacy across the six factors, future research with these factors will help situate these results even further.

6.5 Comparison of Outcome Variables (Factors) Across Study 2 and Study 3

Moving beyond the overall variance as discussed in the last section, this section focuses on the six outcome variables (factors) used across Study 2 and Study 3. Each section provides a discussion about what elements were significant predictors of each factor across the two studies and also a discussion about potential reasons for these results.

6.5.1 Classroom proficiency.

Freeman (2017) argues that classroom proficiency, or English-for-teaching in his terminology, is bound within general language proficiency. Thus, it was not unexpected that

teachers' self-perceived general proficiency, as measured by the CEFR Self-Assessment Grid (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 26 - 27) was a significant predictor of teachers' Classroom Proficiency for both contexts. For teachers in the EFL contexts, it was the only predictor of Classroom Proficiency and it accounted for a substantial amount of variance. For teachers in the ESL contexts, it was one of two significant predictors of Classroom Proficiency along with teaching experience in years. These results show that teachers who assess their general proficiency as higher will likely have higher confidence in their classroom proficiency capabilities. Again, this result was not unexpected. While general proficiency cannot account for teachers' pedagogical or discursive capabilities, which are also part of the classroom proficiency construct (Richards, 2017), the linguistic aspect of classroom proficiency certainly overlaps with general language proficiency to a large extent (Freeman, 2017).

Teaching experience in years for the ESL teachers was the only other significant predictor of classroom proficiency. This potentially indicates that for teachers in the ESL context, considering they likely use English almost exclusively in the class, as they teach more, they become more confident in their ability to successfully use classroom English. However, its effect was less impactful when accounting for all other variables, especially general proficiency. Highest LTE qualification, which compared teachers with graduate degrees with teachers with other qualifications, did not seem to impact teachers' Classroom Proficiency as there were no significant predictors. This may be due to the studies' limitations, however. The categories were broad and no specifics are known about teachers' LTE experiences. However, one noteworthy consideration is that while many teacher preparation programs in EFL contexts place some emphasis on language development, this is less common for ESL teacher preparation programs (Kamhi-Stein, 2009). In other words, for prospective EFL teachers, learning English is often part

of learning to teach English (Kamhi-Stein, 2009). However, it is unknown how teaching-specific the language components are for EFL teacher preparation programs. Initial research into the ELTeach program, the basis for the Classroom Proficiency factor, shows positive results for teachers across a variety of contexts in Asia and Europe (Gu & Papageorgiou, 2016). Yet, to the best of this study's knowledge, this program has not been implemented as part of any LTE program for new teachers but is rather for professional development purposes.

Finally, linguistic identity in Study 2 did not have an impact on teachers' Classroom Proficiency. When all of the variables were equal, it did not matter if a teacher was a monolingual NEST, multilingual NEST or NNEST in terms of their self-perceived classroom proficiency. These are potentially encouraging results as previous studies have narratively noted power imbalances between NEST and NNEST teachers (Lee, 2004) and difficulties for NNESTs when practice teaching (Brady & Gulikers, 2004), all of which could theoretically impact teachers' confidence. As noted throughout this dissertation, teachers' proficiency is crucial for teachers' confidence (e.g. Hiver, 2013; Murdoch, 1994) and these results encouragingly show that for the ESL teachers in this dissertation, their linguistic identity did not impact their classroom proficiency.

6.5.2 Learner-focused instruction.

When the Learner-Focused Instruction factor was placed as the outcome variable, it had five predictors in Study 2 and four predictors in Study 3. Learner-Focused Instruction only had three items that formed the factor, two of which pertained to students' L1 and one that referred to using knowledge about students' communities when teaching. Classroom Proficiency was a significant predictor for Learner-Focused Instruction for both groups, and for EFL teachers, it

was the only predictor that was statistically significant. Interestingly, for the ESL teachers, while significant, it only accounted for a small amount of unique variance. However, for the EFL teachers, it was a substantial predictor of Learner-Focused Instruction self-efficacy. Considering all of the teachers in Study 3 were NNESTs, these results seem to support past literature that emphasizes the importance of language proficiency for NNEST confidence (e.g. Hiver, 2013; Kamhi-Stein, 2009). However, considering the general proficiency predictor was non-significant for both analyses, the more specific English-for-teaching construct appears better suited to predict teachers' confidence in this area.

For the teachers in the ESL context, teaching experience in years and linguistic identity were also significant. For the ESL group, when controlling for the other variables, the NNEST teachers were significantly more efficacious than the MonoNEST and MultiNEST groups. Again, this is encouraging considering the issue of native speakerism and the unfounded bias against NNESTs that at times exists in the field of ELT. One possible interpretation of this result is that many of the teachers in Study 2 taught in settlement/community ESL programs, and while it cannot be known who their students are, perhaps some of the NNESTs shared students' L1 and were part of their students' communities, enhancing their confidence on this factor. However, this is only speculative. Future research could investigate confidence for Learner-Focused Instruction based on teachers' linguistic identities. Considering the scale items, which emphasize students' L1, the difference between the NNEST group and the MonoNEST group can potentially be explained by the MonoNEST's limited linguistic capabilities (i.e. their lack of another language). By only knowing English, it is perhaps more difficult for them to draw comparisons across students' L1 and English when teaching.

For teaching experience, it was only a significant predictor in the ESL context. One interpretation could be that EFL teachers may teach homogenous student groups with whom they share a common L1; thus, their ability to use students' L1 and apply knowledge of their L1 in the classroom may already be high when they begin teaching and may only improve marginally with experience. However, for ESL teachers, prolonged teaching experience could expose them to a broader variety of students who come from different backgrounds, thus further enhancing their confidence to address these students' L1 when teaching. However, again, this interpretation is only speculative. Future studies may clarify this further to determine if experience teaching ESL groups with heterogenous student groups is more impactful for teachers' confidence when compared with teachers who teach homogenous student groups in EFL contexts.

6.5.3 Assessment.

When placed as the outcome variable, the Assessment factor had more diverse significant predictors compared to the other analyses. For the ESL teachers, classroom proficiency and linguistic identity proved to be significant. The NNEST group showed a significantly higher confidence in their assessment capabilities compared with the MonoNEST group, while this approached significance with the MuliNEST group. The results again support the importance of classroom proficiency for teachers' confidence. The general proficiency predictor was non-significant, but teachers with higher confidence in their classroom language capabilities will have higher confidence in their Assessment capabilities based on these results. Interpreting why the NNEST group was more efficacious for Assessment self-efficacy when other variables were controlled is not eminently clear, but it is encouraging that the NNESTs showed high confidence for Assessment.

For the EFL teachers, classroom proficiency and teaching experience were significant predictors, as was the comparison between the teachers with a graduate degree and those with either a certificate, diploma or bachelor degree (Cert/Dip/BA). This was the only analysis that saw LTE qualification have a significant impact on teachers' self-efficacy. However, for the EFL teachers in the Cert/Dip/BA group, their self-efficacy for assessment was significantly higher than teachers who had completed an LTE graduate degree, when all other variables are controlled. The categories were combined due to limited numbers across the three groups which limits interpretation potentially. However, broadly speaking, some LTE programs may place more of an emphasis on practical aspects of teaching as opposed to theoretical knowledge (Diaz Maggioli, 2014; Widdowson, 1993). Common certificate and diploma programs such as the CELTA (certificate in English language teaching to adults) and DELTA (diploma in English language teaching to adults) are good examples of this. Kanowski (2004) looks at teachers who have completed a CELTA and a graduate degree and notes some teachers felt the certificate program was actually more useful than their graduate studies. This is one possible explanation for this difference here as the teachers who had completed a graduate degree, some including PhDs, actually rated their assessment self-efficacy lower. Another potential interpretation is from Borg and Edmett (2018) who argue self-efficacy develops in a U shape as teachers learn more knowledge, their confidence dips as they become more aware of what they do not know and are not able to do. While further investigation is required, these results, and the lack of predictiveness found across analyses seem to indicate that higher level graduate degrees may not enhance English language teachers' self-efficacy.

6.5.4 Language instruction.

Now turning to the Language Instruction factor as the outcome variable, classroom proficiency was significant across both ESL and EFL contexts, but for EFL teachers, their classroom proficiency was the only predictor that was significant. These results again support the importance of classroom proficiency for teachers' self-efficacy. However, for the ESL teachers, classroom proficiency, general proficiency and teaching experience all significantly impacted teachers' efficacy for language instruction. While classroom proficiency was the biggest unique predictor, general proficiency and experience were similar in their impact on Language Instruction efficacy when other variables were constant. Thus, for teachers who believe they are at the C2 level, their ability to apply their linguistic knowledge in the classroom is enhanced, and this appears to improve with years of experience.

For linguistic identity, the NNEST and MonoNEST comparison was significant in Study 2. As discussed before, this potentially shows the importance of learning another language for language teachers' self-efficacy to apply knowledge of syntax, morphology, semantics, and phonology when teaching, as they may have their declarative knowledge about these aspects enhanced from their own experiences as students of languages. Ellis (2006; 2013), while not specifically looking at self-efficacy, noted the value of language learning experiences for ESL teachers in Australia. The results from Study 2 appear to somewhat support this notion as being a monolingual NEST significantly reduced one's efficacy on this factor. The wording for the items on the Language Instruction factor is largely drawn from the *Standards for Short-Term TEFL/TESL Certificate Programs* (TESOL International Association, 2015, p. 21). This standards document is for short-course programs ranging from 20 – 250 hours long. Thus, ability to apply one's knowledge about syntax, morphology, semantics and phonology when teaching is considered a basic capability required of English language teachers, even if they have only

completed an initial qualification (TESOL International Association, 2015). While ‘applying one’s knowledge’ is somewhat vague, based on the results from Study 2, the experience of becoming proficient in a subsequent language may considerably help with teachers’ confidence for these elements.

6.5.5 Culture.

Next looking at Culture as the outcome variable, for EFL teachers, as was common with the other outcome variables except Assessment, classroom proficiency was the only significant predictor of Culture self-efficacy. However, for ESL teachers, classroom proficiency, general proficiency, and linguistic identity all were significant predictors for this factor. While classroom proficiency again accounted for the most unique variance, linguistic identity as a NNEST was also substantial as again the NNESTs in the ESL context showed considerably higher self-efficacy on a factor. The teaching of culture has progressed in English language teaching. While previously teachers may have focused more on the teaching of ‘inner circle’ culture to students (e.g. American culture, British culture), notions of English as an International Language (EIL) have altered the field’s thinking about culture as English is treated more and more as a global language not attached to any specific culture (Matsuda, 2017). Thus, for this factor, which focuses on using knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction, cultural values and beliefs when teaching, and the interrelationship between culture and learning languages, cultural instruction pertaining to the cultures of Canada and the United States, the contexts for these ESL teachers, may have been less important.

6.5.6 Materials.

Finally, the Materials factor was the only outcome variable to have the same significant predictors across both studies. For both teachers in the ESL and EFL contexts, classroom proficiency was the only significant predictor of teachers' efficacy with materials. This factor was unexpected and only contains three items, which potentially limits interpretation. However, these initial results show the importance of classroom proficiency for teachers' confidence to use/adapt materials for instruction. This is potentially an important avenue for future research. Materials are often used in the language classroom, and with the development of technology, these materials are becoming more diverse. This can enhance teaching and learning, but teachers' confidence to use such materials may also be lacking. Future research that investigates teachers' self-efficacy for materials adaptation/use will add to this discussion.

6.6 Variables that Impact Self-Efficacy

This discussion now switches to look at the impact of the different predictor variables. For Study 2, classroom proficiency, general proficiency, teaching experience, LTE qualification, and linguistic identity were all used as predictor variables. For Study 3, the predictors were the same except linguistic identity was excluded as all of the teachers were NNESTs. The following sections analyze the impact of these variables across Study 2 and Study 3 and situate these results with the broader literature.

6.6.1 Classroom proficiency.

Classroom proficiency was the most prominent predictor of English language teacher self-efficacy. For the 10 analyses it was used as a predictor variable, it was statistically significant for all 10, and it was the only significant predictor for 6 of the 10 analyses. Beyond

statistical significance, classroom proficiency accounted for large amounts of unique variance across the different self-efficacy types and often had the highest effect size. The fact that classroom proficiency was consistently a significant predictor of self-efficacy across the different factors was not unexpected. The Classroom Proficiency factor was moderately to highly correlated with many of the other efficacy factors. Lee (2009) found similar results with her Oral English Language Use factor and the self-efficacy subscales on her study. However, it was only used as a measure of self-efficacy in her study and there are no comparable results in terms of this factor as a predictor of self-efficacy. It is important to consider this notion of classroom proficiency for self-efficacy research as both a component of self-efficacy, but also as a measure of specific teacher language proficiency. As Freeman (2016) discusses, in the (English) language classroom, language is the content of the classroom but also the medium of instruction. Self-efficacy research thus far has emphasized the relationship between self-efficacy and general language proficiency, but moving forward, it is crucial to consider teachers' specific classroom language. As these results show, when analyzed alongside general proficiency self-appraisals, the classroom proficiency predictor was far more impactful for teachers' confidence. This extends to all teachers, not only those who are NNESTs, but NESTs as well. Classroom proficiency requires linguistic capability, but also pedagogical and discursive ability (Richards, 2017). As a way to improve teachers' self-efficacy and capitalize on the benefits that can come with enhanced teacher confidence (e.g. teacher performance, motivation, effort etc.), teachers must be prepared to enact different teaching tasks in the target language of instruction as it appears crucial for their language teaching confidence. For LTE programs, this is especially noteworthy, as many authors have advocated for the inclusion of some form of language proficiency component on language teacher education programs (e.g. Kamhi-Stein, 2009;

Murdoch, 1994). While more common in EFL contexts (Kamhi-Stein, 2009), this could be potentially beneficial for teachers in ESL contexts as well. A course focused on classroom proficiency could be beneficial for teachers of all kinds, giving those with lower levels of proficiency a chance to improve their English, but also instructing teachers on the skillful use of English when teaching.

6.6.2 General proficiency.

General proficiency was measured using self-appraisals with the CEFR Self-Assessment Grid (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 26 - 27). As a predictor variable, general proficiency was a significant predictor of the Classroom Proficiency factor when it was used as the outcome variable. This was expected as Freeman (2017) notes that classroom proficiency is couched within general language proficiency. However, for the other self-efficacy factors, general proficiency was less impactful as it was overshadowed by classroom proficiency which proved more beneficial. Across the regression analyses, excluding analyses with Classroom Proficiency as the outcome variable, general proficiency was only a significant predictor of self-efficacy for Language Instruction and Culture for teachers in Study 2 in the ESL contexts. For both factors, while it was significant, it accounted for the least amount of unique variance compared to the other predictors. These results suggest that when analyzed alongside more teaching-specific measures of language proficiency, self-assessment via general measures such as the CEFR do not predict teachers' confidence in their capabilities as well.

While the regression results are insightful, for comparison with other studies (and also to test the assumptions for the regression analyses), bivariate correlations were conducted between the CEFR scores and the self-efficacy factors. As discussed in Study 2, there was a ceiling effect

for teachers in the ESL context as most teachers rated themselves at the C2 level. This resulted in the quantitative CEFR scores being converted into a categorical variable for Study 2. However, the straight bivariate correlations from both studies, conducted using bootstrapping to account for non-normality (Larson-Hall, 2016), are informative for comparative purposes as most self-efficacy studies have used correlational analysis to determine the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy (Faez & Karas, 2017). Table 2 and Table 3 reproduce the correlations from Study 2 and Study 3 for convenience. Looking at the correlations from Study 2, these are somewhat low compared to the correlations found in other studies, especially considering the scale used for this study was specific to language teaching. A meta-analysis of the relationship between self-efficacy and general proficiency found a result of $r = .37$ (Faez, Karas, & Uchihara, 2018), and these are well below this number with many non-significant results. The largest relationship, excluding the Classroom Proficiency factor, is between the Materials self-efficacy factor and general proficiency. However, the meta-analysis study showed that as scales become more specific to language teaching (e.g. Nishino, 2012), the correlations often become higher compared to those that use more general measures such as the TSES (e.g. Chacon, 2005). Thus, considering this was a language teaching specific scale, it appears these correlations are low. This may have been impacted by the general proficiency measure, however. While the CEFR is a useful measure that allows for a common language to be used across contexts, Hulstijn (2015) argues native-speakers often assume the C2 level is for them, but in actuality, very few people are truly at the C2 level. However, the vast majority of teachers in Study 2 self-assessed their level at C2. Self-perceived proficiency is often inaccurate and this may have been further compounded in this study with the use of the CEFR as many of the native-speakers potentially assessed their general proficiency at the C2 level without fully

contemplating the other levels. This may be one reason for the lower correlations in Study 2 in comparison to other studies in the literature. A second possibility is that most studies that measure the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy are conducted in EFL contexts with teachers who are non-native speakers. The majority of teachers in Study 2 were native-speakers and this also likely impacted these correlations.

Table 2.

Study 2 Correlations between CEFR and Efficacy Factors

	CP	LFI	Assess	LI	Cult	Mat.
CEFR	** .31 (.19 - .43)	.00 (-.11 - .11)	.04 (-.06 - .15)	.10 (.00 - .22)	** .18 (.05 - .30)	** .20 (.07 - .33)

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals in brackets below correlations (2000 iterations).

The correlations from Study 3 are more comparable to the literature that investigates this relationship. Most studies that investigate the relationship between general English language proficiency and self-efficacy have occurred in EFL contexts (e.g. Chacon, 2005; Choi & Lee, 2016; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008, Marashi & Azizi-Nassab, 2018; Yilmaz, 2011). Thus, the studies investigated in the meta-analysis previously are virtually all with teachers in EFL contexts (Faez et al. 2018), similar to Study 3. These correlations provide further support for the moderate relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy as they range from $r = .20$ to $r = .33$ (excluding Classroom Proficiency correlation). Excluding the results from Ghasemband (2014), which are clear outliers, these results are in-line with the majority of past studies that indicate general language proficiency and self-efficacy are moderately related.

Table 3.

Study 3 Correlations between CEFR and Efficacy Factors

	CP	LFI	Assess	LI	Cult	Mat.
CEFR	** .46 (.34 - .57)	** .20 (.06 - .34)	** .24 (.11 - .36)	** .33 (.20 - .45)	** .23 (.11 - .35)	** .31 (.18 - .43)

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Bootstrapped confidence intervals in brackets below correlations (2000 iterations).

Choi & Lee (2016) make the important point that correlational analysis is limited in its informative ability and argue more complex analyses are required to fully comprehend the relationship between general proficiency and self-efficacy. While correlations are provided here to facilitate comparison with past literature, this study acknowledges the call from Choi & Lee (2016) to move beyond simple bivariate correlations. This dissertation's use of multiple regression analyses, and two different types of language proficiency, is an attempt to move past simple correlations. While seemingly significant with bivariate correlations in Study 3, general proficiency did not appear overly impactful for teachers' confidence across most regression analyses. Classroom proficiency was far more predictive of teacher self-efficacy. These results partially confirm calls from researchers (Freeman, 2017; Richards, 2017) to place less emphasis on the importance of general language proficiency and to shift attention to more teaching-specific measures of language proficiency, especially for teachers in EFL contexts.

6.6.3 Teaching experience.

This study's results pertaining to the impact of teaching experience on teacher self-efficacy do not clarify this relationship any further. As mentioned throughout, the literature from general education self-efficacy and language teacher self-efficacy shows conflicting results in terms of experience. For example, from general education, Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2007) found experienced teachers to be more efficacious than their novice counterparts. However, the teachers in Woolfolk and Spero (2005) saw their self-efficacy go down after a year of teaching. For language teacher self-efficacy, Lee (2009) notes general elementary teaching experience as having no positive impact on teacher self-efficacy, but English language teaching experience as a specialist teacher did impact teachers' instructional confidence. Alemi & Pashmforoosh (2013) found no difference between novice and experienced teachers, while Akbari & Moradkhani (2010) did. The results from Study 2 and Study 3 seem to represent these results. For the ESL teachers in Study 2, experience was a significant predictor of self-efficacy for Learner-Focused Instruction, Language Instruction, and Classroom Proficiency. For the Learner-Focused Instruction factor, it was even more important than Classroom Proficiency when analyzing the unique variance. For teachers in the EFL contexts in Study 3, teaching experience was only significant for Assessment. Thus, the results from this dissertation appear to echo past results in that experience is positively impactful on self-efficacy sometimes, for some teachers, and for some types of self-efficacy, but not always, and not to an equal degree.

Considering the differing results across both general education and language teacher education, it may be important to shift attention to why these disparate results exist. One significant limitation of this type of analysis is that it only analyzes experience in years, but there is no qualitative data to accompany this data that could add further clarification. Considering all of the quantitative results that now exist across self-efficacy research, qualitative methods may

be required to add further clarification to this issue. Qualitative and mixed methods studies may clarify why these mixed quantitative results exist and move beyond measuring experience with only numerical values of years.

6.6.4 Language teacher education.

Highest LTE qualification achieved proved to be the least impactful aspect for teachers' self-efficacy, showing only significant results for one regression analysis. This was in Study 3, where the Cert/Dip/BA group showed significantly higher self-efficacy for Assessment compared to the Graduate group. This was potentially attributed to the fact that graduate degrees do not always offer practical teaching skills that teachers can immediately use in the classroom. Rather, while teachers may be presented with ample theoretical and declarative knowledge, this does not always translate into higher confidence, while more skills-based certificate/diploma programs offer more practical teaching strategies for teachers (e.g. Kanowski, 2004). However, this is only one possible interpretation. Regardless, it is still interesting to note that when using teachers with graduate level degrees as their highest LTE qualifications in comparison with teachers with other LTE qualifications, a graduate degree did not positively impact teachers' self-efficacy across any of the factors. Thus, while previous studies have shown mixed results in terms of the impact of higher teacher degrees on self-efficacy, the results from this dissertation clearly show no impact on these efficacy factors. However, the methodological decisions for this study must be considered in regard to LTE and these are discussed further in the Limitations section.

6.6.5 Linguistic identity.

For Study 2, teachers' linguistic identity as a predictor of self-efficacy was investigated across three categories: monolingual NESTs (MonoNEST), multilingual NESTs (MultiNEST), and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs). Linguistic identity was a significant predictor of self-efficacy for four of the six regression analyses in Study 2. For Learner-Focused Instruction, the NNEST group was significantly more confident on this factor compared to the two NEST groups as membership in the NNEST group accounted for the most unique variance. For the Culture factor, the NNEST group was again significantly more confident than both NEST groups. Looking at Assessment and Language Instruction, only the MonoNEST group showed significantly lower self-efficacy compared to the NNEST group which was used as the reference group for the regressions.

These results go against the results of previous studies. For foreign language teachers in the United States, studies have found the non-native speaking teachers to be mostly less efficacious than their native speaking counterparts (Liaw, 2004; Mills & Allen, 2007). In Japan, the Japanese English language teachers were less confident than their native speaking counterparts as well (Praver, 2014). Considering the pervasive issue of native speakerism in ELT (Holliday, 2005), and the discriminatory hiring practices that still exist in the field (Selvi, 2010), these results are highly encouraging as the NNESTs in Study 2 showed more confidence in their capabilities and membership in the NNEST category accounted for significant unique contributions to the teachers' self-efficacy. These results also potentially point to the importance of learning a language for teacher confidence as the MonoNEST group was considerably less efficacious. While the issue of native speakerism still exists in the field of ELT, it is encouraging to see that for this group of teachers in Canada and the United States, their linguistic identity as

NNESTs did not impact their confidence to teach. In fact, it appeared to enhance their confidence over their NEST colleagues.

6.7 Limitations

There are numerous limitations for this dissertation that must be acknowledged. This study utilized a quantitative design which allowed for data analyses with a large participant pool, but because no qualitative information is gathered, further nuanced interpretations could not be made. While many interpretations are made for the results, at times, these are speculative and require further confirmation. In regard to the scale used, the newly formed self-efficacy scale had six unique factors used for analysis. The Classroom Proficiency and Assessment factors were the strongest factors with more than five items each and factor loadings above .5 (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The Language Instruction factor had four items and strong loadings while the remaining factors had only three items each, the minimum required for a latent variable (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Warner, 2013). Thus, while the factors were suitable for research purposes, they certainly cannot account for all aspects related to these topics. The scale development was exploratory and many items were deleted after the EFA, leaving potentially important aspects not investigated by this study.

One significant limitation is that all of the data is self-reported. While this is normal for self-efficacy research, as it assesses teachers' self-belief about their own abilities, for language proficiency, this was a significant drawback. Self-appraisals of language proficiency are notoriously inaccurate (e.g. Denies & Janssen, 2016; Trofimovich, Isaacs, Kennedy, Saito, & Crowther, 2014). For the classroom proficiency measurement, this is potentially less of an issue as these are more specific than the general proficiency measures, and more task-specific items

are associated with more accurate appraisals (Bandura, 1997). However, there are no external objective measures in this study. Furthermore, the use of the CEFR scales as a measure of general proficiency was also a limitation. While use of the self-assessment grid (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 26 - 27) was convenient as it was a fast and recognizable way for teachers to self-assess their general language proficiency, again, there was no way of confirming these self-assessments objectively. Furthermore, one noticeable trend from the data, especially Study 2, was that many of the NESTs in the study self-assessed themselves at the C2 level. While this is potentially true, some have argued that very few adults actually reach the C2 level, but rather, native speakers make the assumption that the C2 level is for them (Hulstijn, 2015). Thus, potentially, the NESTs in this study did not even consider the other levels as they may have simply supposed they were at the C2 level.

Another limitation of this study is that it drew data from a wide variety of contexts. While this was useful to get a large participant body, the teachers in this study taught different levels of students in different contexts. When completing the survey, participants were instructed to consider their capabilities within their own teaching contexts, but this study has no way of knowing the specifics of their teaching contexts. The same can be said about teachers' LTE qualifications. Highest LTE qualification was used as a predictor variable for Study 2 and Study 3, but there is no way of knowing the specifics of these teachers' LTE programs or their LTE experiences. All that is known is the label of the qualification they have obtained. It is likely that there is substantial variation in their LTE experiences, despite teachers having the same qualification (i.e. certificate, diploma etc.).

6.8 Future Directions

Language teacher self-efficacy research is now gaining recognition as a field of inquiry on its own, away from general teacher education self-efficacy research (Wyatt, 2018b).

However, there are still numerous avenues for further research. This dissertation created a new self-efficacy scale, but further research must confirm its factor structure. Also, new items can be added to the different factors to measure any items that were not included for this exploratory study. Future studies may also benefit from the use of scales from other language teacher self-efficacy researchers (e.g. Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Swanson, 2012) to provide further clarification about the underlying latent variables related to language teacher self-efficacy.

This study used a quantitative design, but it moved away from the field's reliance on more basic statistics such as bivariate correlations and ANOVAs. Wyatt (2018b) has noted in his review that more sophisticated quantitative methods are needed to assess the complexity of self-efficacy and this dissertation concurs with this sentiment. Furthermore, Wyatt (2018b) also emphasizes the need for qualitative and mixed methods studies as most studies are quantitative in nature. Such studies could provide further information to answer some of the mixed results (e.g. the impact of experience) found in the field. Also important, the field would benefit from more objective measures of data that could confirm self-report data. These are common in qualitative language teacher self-efficacy studies (e.g. Wyatt, 2010; 2013), but their use in quantitative research is less common. These could come in the form of teaching observations or objective proficiency measures for example. Also, the field would benefit from more studies in ESL contexts as the majority of studies have been conducted in EFL contexts (Wyatt, 2018b). Finally, the field must heed the call from Wyatt (2018b) and focus more on research that can provide practical results for language teachers. This can be done with a variety of methodologies, including quantitative, mixed methods and qualitative designs. Thus, while the field has

addressed many issues in language teacher self-efficacy research, there are still many questions to be answered, and much work to do.

6.9 Conclusion

This dissertation focused on English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs. It included the creation of a new self-efficacy instrument for English language teachers, a discussion on teachers' levels of self-efficacy, both at the task-specific level and the global level, and what factors may influence these global self-efficacy beliefs. As the results showed, teachers' classroom proficiency appears crucial for predicting English language teacher self-efficacy. However, it is not the only factor, as other predictors also made significant contributions to teachers' self-efficacy. In the opening chapter for this thesis, a brief introduction was provided that explained the background information about (language) teacher self-efficacy and its importance for teachers' behaviour, the schools where they work, and even the students they teach. It recounted the lengthy history of (language) teacher self-efficacy research that noted teacher self-efficacy has been positively related to many factors, including: teachers' motivation, the effort they put forth in the classroom, teachers' performance, job satisfaction, teacher attrition rates, teacher and school morale, teacher reflectivity, teacher (practical) knowledge, and even the overall success of students. It is important to remember these positive factors. Self-efficacy, while a psychological construct, is about more than just teachers' minds. Self-efficacy impacts what teachers do. As Bandura (1995) reminds us, "people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively the case" (p. 2).

6.10 References

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Appendices

Appendix A – EL-TSES (Research Instrument)

English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (EL-TSES) (26 items)

Classroom Proficiency (7)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can use English as the medium of instruction.						
I can use English for all classroom functions.						
I can use English to provide spoken feedback in class.						
I can use English to provide written feedback.						
I can model natural English use.						
I can use English to manage classroom interactions.						
I can use common phrases/words that frequently occur in English language classrooms.						

Learner-Focused Instruction (3)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can make appropriate use of learners' first language skills.						
I can apply my knowledge of the native language(s) spoken by students when teaching.						
I can use my knowledge about learner communities to guide instruction.						

Assessment (6)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can design appropriate assessment tasks.						
I can create appropriate tests to assess learners.						
I can connect assessments to stated learning objectives.						
I can make appropriate use of assessment results when teaching.						
I can use appropriate rubrics/rating scales to assess learners' skills.						
I can use various assessment techniques (e.g. performance based, portfolios, observation checklists, self-, peer- etc.).						

Language Instruction (4)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can apply my knowledge of the structure of words (morphology) when teaching.						
I can apply my knowledge of sentence and phrase structure (syntax) when teaching.						
I can apply my knowledge of word and sentence meaning (semantics) when teaching.						
I can apply my knowledge of the sound system of English (phonology) when teaching.						

Culture (3)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can use my knowledge of world cultures to guide instruction.						

I can use my knowledge about cultural values and beliefs when teaching.						
I can apply my understanding of the interrelationship of language and culture to inform instruction.						

Materials (3)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Disagree Somewhat (3)	Agree Somewhat (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
I can use appropriate resources and materials.						
I can design and/or adapt materials for instruction.						
I can incorporate activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.						

Appendix B – Ethics Approval



Research Ethics

Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board NMREB Delegated Initial Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. Farahnaz Faez
Department & Institution: Education/Faculty of Education, Western University

NMREB File Number: 108984
Study Title: English Language Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

NMREB Initial Approval Date: March 08, 2017
NMREB Expiry Date: March 08, 2018

Documents Approved and/or Received for Information:

Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Western University Protocol		2017/03/06
Recruitment Items	Recruitment Message - Email Lists	2017/03/06
Recruitment Items	Recruitment Message - Facebook Wall	2017/03/06
Instruments	Survey (Letter of Information and Questionnaire)	2017/03/07
Letter of Information & Consent	Interviews	2017/02/19
Other	Skype Verbal Consent Script	2017/02/19
Instruments	Interview Questions - Received January 30, 2017	
Other	References - Received January 30, 2017 for Information Only	

The Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the above named study, as of the NMREB Initial Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

Members of the NMREB who are named as Investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.

The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Western University, Research, Support Services Bldg., Rm. 5150
London, ON, Canada N6G 1G9 t. 519.661.3036 f. 519.850.2466 www.uwo.ca/research/ethics

Michael Karas

EDUCATION

PhD in Education, *Western University*, London, ON, Canada March 2019

Division: Applied Linguistics

Thesis: English language teacher self-efficacy beliefs

Supervisor: Dr. Farahnaz Faez

Courses Completed:

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Issues in Second Language Teaching and Learning

Qualitative Research Methods

Second Language Teacher Education

Introduction to Statistics in Education

Advanced Quantitative Research Methods

Research Design and Statistical Modeling

PhD Seminar

Teaching and Learning Vocabulary (Audit)

Master of Education, *Monash University*, Melbourne, Australia 2012

Focus: TESOL International

Thesis: *Travelers to teachers: Native English teachers in Korean private schools*

Supervisor: Dr. Miriam Faine

Courses Completed:

Theory and Practice of TESOL

Professional Practice for TESOL

Language, Society and Cultural Difference

Qualitative Research

Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) 2012

Language Studies Canada, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

B.A. History (Honours), *Brock University*, St. Catharine's, Ontario, Canada 2007

EMPLOYMENT HISTORY

Instructor <i>Faculty of Education, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada</i> Course: Supporting English Language Learners (5439Q) – 2 sections Bachelor of Education Program	Fall 2017 – Spring 2018
Instructor <i>Faculty of Education, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada</i> Course: Language Teacher Education (EDUC 9307) – 2 sections Master of TESOL Program	Spring 2017
Instructor <i>Faculty of Education, Western University, London, Ontario, Canada</i> Course: Supporting English Language Learners (5439Q) – 2 sections Bachelor of Education Program	Fall 2016/ Winter 2017
English Teacher (Part-time & Occasional) <i>EC Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada</i>	2016
English Instructor <i>Western University English Language Centre, London, Ontario, Canada</i>	2015
English Instructor & Curriculum Developer <i>Shanghai Ocean University/University of Tasmania, Shanghai, China</i>	2013–2014
Test Administrator (Part-time) <i>Australian Education Assessment Services, Shanghai, China</i>	2013–2014
English Instructor <i>Liaoning University/ Victoria University, Shenyang, China</i>	2012
Private English Tutor Australia and Canada	2011–2012
English Teacher <i>Ivy School English Academy, South Korea</i>	2009–2010

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Research Assistant, Dr. Farahnaz Faez <i>Western University, London, Ontario, Canada</i>	2014–Present
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REFEREED PUBLICATIONS

- Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2019). Language Proficiency Development of Non-native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) in an MA TESOL Program. *TESL-EJ*, 22(4), 1 – 16.
- Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2019 – Forthcoming). Communicative Language Teaching and Silence: Chinese (pre-service) Teachers' Perspectives. *Asian Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*.
- Karas, M. (2019 – Forthcoming). Book Review of Bao, D. (Ed.) (2018). Creativity and innovations in ELT materials development: Looking beyond the current design. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. *TESOL Journal*.
- Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2017). Connecting language proficiency to (self-reported) teaching ability: A review. *RELC Journal*, 48(1), 135 – 151. doi: 10.1177/0033688217694755
- Karas, M. (2017). Turn-taking and silent learning during open class discussions. *ELT Journal*, 71(1), 13 – 23. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccw051

BOOK/BOOK CHAPTERS

- Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2019 – Forthcoming). *English language teacher beliefs*. Equinox.
- Faez, F., Cooke, S., Karas, M., & Vidwans, M. (2017). Examining the effectiveness of online discussion forums for teacher development. In T. Farrell (Ed.) *TESOL voices: Insider accounts of classroom life – preservice teacher education* (pp. 7 – 12). Virginia: TESOL Press.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- Karas, M., & Balyasnikova, N. (2017). TESOL doctoral research forum: For students, by students. *TEIS News: The Newsletter of the Teacher Education Interest Section*, September. Retrieved from: <http://newsmanager.commpartners.com/tesolteis/issues/2017-09-25/1.html>
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Karas, M. (2015). English language teachers in South Korea: Issues with the trichotomy. *NNEST Newsletter: The newsletter of the nonnative English speakers of TESOL interest section*, 17(1). Retrieved from <http://newsmanager.commpartners.com/tesolnnest/issues/2015-06-02/email.html>

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2019). *The effect of proficiency, teaching experience, linguistic identity, and teacher education on English language teacher self-efficacy*. Paper presentation at American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Atlanta, GA.

Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2019). *English proficiency development of NNESTs in an MA TESOL program: A case study*. Paper presentation at American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Atlanta, GA.

Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2018). *General proficiency vs. classroom proficiency: What type of proficiency is more important for teachers?* Paper presentation at American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Chicago, IL.

Faez, F., & Karas, M., & Uchihara, T. (2018). *Connecting language proficiency to teaching ability: A meta-analysis*. Paper presentation at American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Chicago, IL.

Karas, M. (2017). *Language proficiency and (self-reported) teaching effectiveness*. Paper presentation at TESL Ontario Conference, Toronto, ON, Canada.

Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2017). *The impact of language teacher education on teacher beliefs*. Paper presentation at European Second Language Association (EUROSLA), Reading University, Reading, UK.

Karas, M. (2017). *English language teacher education pathways and novice teacher self-efficacy*. Paper presentation at TESL Canada Conference, Niagara Falls, ON, Canada.

Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2017). *Connecting language teacher proficiency to self-efficacy: How are they related?* Paper presentation at Association Canadienne De Linguistique Appliquée/ Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics, Ryerson University, Toronto, ON, Canada.

Karas, M., & Faez, F. (2017). *English language teacher education pathways, self-efficacy, and preparedness*. Paper presentation at TESOL International Convention, Seattle, WA.

Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2017). *Language teacher education and teacher beliefs: A synthesis of research*. Paper presentation at TESOL International Convention, Seattle, WA.

Faez, F., & Karas, M. (2016). *Language teacher education and teacher beliefs: A synthesis*. Paper presentation at TESL Ontario Conference, Toronto, ON, Canada.

Karas, M. (2016). *Turn-taking and silent learning during teacher-fronted open class discussions*. Paper presentation at Doctoral Research Forum, TESOL International Convention, Baltimore, MD.

Karas, M. (2016). *Language teacher cognition research: A discussion*. Round table presentation at Graduate Research in Education Symposium (GRiES), Western University, London, ON, Canada.

Karas, M. (2015). *Turn-taking and silence during open class discussion*. Paper presentation at TESOL Regional Conference, National Institute of Education, Singapore.

Karas, M. (2015). *Silent engagement and turn-taking during open class discussions*. Paper presentation at TESL Ontario Conference, Toronto, ON, Canada.

Karas, M. (2015). *Travel and teach: Foreign English teachers in Korean private schools*. Paper presentation at Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) Study abroad ReN, The Culture of Study Abroad for Second Languages, St. Mary's University, Halifax, NS, Canada.

Karas, M. (2015). *Foreign English teachers in Korea, Japan and China*. Round table presentation at The Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE), University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada.

Karas, M. (2015). *Travel and teach: The lived experiences of foreign English teachers in Korean private schools*. Poster presentation at Graduate Research in Education Symposium (GRiES), Western University, London, ON, Canada.

INVITED LECTURES/WORKSHOPS

Karas, M. (2017). *Addressing teachers' beliefs in teacher education programs*. Pre-conference Teacher Education Symposium, TESL Canada Conference, Niagara Falls, ON, Canada.

Filipi, A. & Karas, M. (2012). *Keeping the connection: Beyond building 6*. Workshop conducted at Monash University, Melbourne, AU.

ACADEMIC SERVICE

Editorial Assistant
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Book Review Editor TESL Canada Journal	2019 – Present
Coordinator, 2018 TESOL Doctoral Forum 2018 TESOL International Convention	2018
Co-Coordinator, 2017 TESOL Doctoral Forum 2017 TESOL International Convention	2017
Moderator, Non-native English Speaker Interest Section, Electronic Village	2017
TESL Ontario Blog Administrator	2016 - 2019
Reviewer, Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education (CJNSE)	2016 - Present
Reviewer, TESOL International Association 2017 Convention (Non-native English speaker interest section)	2016
Reviewer, TESOL International Association 2016 Convention (Non-native English speaker interest Section)	2015

VOLUNTEER COMMITTEES

Second Year Cohort Representative, Education Graduate Student Association (EGSA)	2016
Graduate Research in Education Symposium (GRiES), Moderator Coordination sub-committee member Western University, London, Ontario, Canada	2016
Graduate Research in Education Symposium (GRiES), Technology sub-committee leader Western University, London, Ontario, Canada	2015, 2016
Graduate Research in Education Symposium (GRiES), Publicity sub-committee member Western University, London, Ontario, Canada	2015
Vice Coordinator, Education Graduate Student Association (EGSA)	2014–2015
Social Coordinator, Education Graduate Student Association (EGSA)	2014–2016
Councilor, Society of Graduate Students	2014–2015
Volunteer, Western Linguistics Department/Thames Valley School Board Outreach Event	2014

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

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