

UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS' SELF-EFFICACY
BELIEFS

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I hereby declare that all the information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOL INSTRUCTORS' SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

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The purpose of this study is to investigate university preparatory school instructors' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English and its interaction with their background characteristics, reported proficiency level in English and their perceived use of teaching strategies with a specific emphasis to three sub-dimensions of self-efficacy. To achieve these aims, the present study employed a mixed methods design which consisted of two main stages. In the first stage, a questionnaire consisting of four parts were distributed to 374 EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of 8 different universities in Turkey. In the second stage, interviews were conducted with 25 instructors from these universities in order to gain deeper insights regarding the issues explored in the questionnaire. The quantitative and qualitative findings of the study revealed that instructors have a rather high level of self-efficacy, especially in terms of classroom management and instructional strategies. Another important finding of the study was that there was a significant relationship between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their language proficiency. In addition, it was also found that there was a significant relationship between teaching experience and self- efficacy.

Keywords: Self-Efficacy, English Language Instructors, Language Proficiency, Instructional Strategies

ÖZ

ÜNİVERSİTE HAZIRLIK OKULLARINDA ÇALIŞAN ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ ÖZYETERLİLİK İNANÇLARI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, üniversitede İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarını ve bunun öğretim elemanlarının dil yeterliği, öğretim stratejisi ve kişisel özellikleriyle ilişkisini incelemektir. Bu amaca ulaşmak için, iki aşamadan oluşan çoklu araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İlk aşamada, dört bölümden oluşan 374 adet anket 8 ayrı üniversitede İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten öğretim elemanlarına dağıtılmıştır. İkinci aşamada, anketteki maddelerle ilgili daha derin bir bakış açısı elde etmek için 25 öğretim elemanı ile mülakat yapılmıştır. Nicel ve nitel analizlerin sonucuna göre öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının oldukça yüksek seviyede olduğu, özellikle de sınıf yönetimi ve öğretim stratejisi alanlarında kendilerini oldukça yeterli gördükleri ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu çalışmanın bir başka önemli bulgusu ise öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ile dil yeterliliği arasında önemli ilişki olmasıdır. Ayrıca, özyeterlilik ile öğretim tecrübesi arasında önemli bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özyeterlilik, İngilizce Öğretim Elemanları, Dil Yeterliliği, Öğretim Stratejileri

To my dad,
I wish I could have finished my thesis earlier.
I hope you see me from somewhere in the universe
and you proud of me...
And to my wife,
It would not be possible without you...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

1.1.1. The Importance of English

English is the most widely spoken language in the world. Communicative abilities in English give us better chances in numerous fields and developing fluency in English is vital to achieve success in all fields of life. It is common knowledge that an increasing number of individuals are learning English today since it is indispensable for science, innovation and business.

According to Tochon (2009), familiarity with a world language will also have positive effects on mastering the mother tongue. Stewart also suggests “It can grow syntactic knowledge, language abilities and narrative strategies for reading and writing, cognitive abilities, metalinguistic abilities and math abilities” (2005, p.19). Bilinguals can surpass monolinguals in meta-linguistic tasks as well as in tasks that need a high level of control. Students who are able to talk two languages have more linguistics space in their memory (Bialystok, 2001).

Learning a foreign language can have some other advantages: heritage transfer to children, connecting generations, providing communication in the family, building global connections, experiencing different cultures, having the capacity to compare and becoming biliterate (Marcos, 1998, referred to in Skillet and Square, 2011). Moreover, such benefits include building up a more extensive perspective;

understanding different traditions, and even strengthening identity and building more tolerance to other cultures.

For all these reasons, we need to know a language other than the native one, most ideally English which is known as a worldwide language. Thus, the role of English preparatory (prep) schools at undergraduate level in EFL context is significant. The prep year is the first year at university where students are taught to reach the required level of English. In prep schools, the aim is to teach the standardized form of English to the students. Unfortunately, in many EFL contexts, prep schools are assumed to have a fundamental part in the education system since language learning success is not at the expected level at lower stages and it was the last chance for students to be able to communicate in English. In this study, English prep schools were chosen as the context of the investigation and the instructors working there were the participants of the study.

1.1.2. The Role of Instructors

Instructors are of most extreme significance in language teaching practices since their characteristics, qualifications and perceptions will affect all the stakeholders. It is important to employ qualified instructors to reach the previously defined aims of the university prep school.

English instructors' method for teaching and their procedures to enhance students' learning are quite significant in EFL classrooms. In light of the literature, the sort of beliefs that instructors have will impact their activities and efficacy in teaching and will determine the strategies adopted during the class time (Richards, 1996). Thus, instructors' beliefs that shape their teaching in the prep school classroom setting should be considered in detail.

Moreover, Putnam and Borko (2000) suggest that how an individual learns a set of knowledge or skills and furthermore the circumstance under which the learning takes place will turn into the most essential part of what is learned. From this sociocultural viewpoint, it can be claimed that instructors' perceptions are

influenced by relevant factors through connection with others in or out of the classroom. As Freeman (1996) suggests, instructors are continually interpreting their universe of teaching such as interpretation of the subject, the classroom and the students. Every one of these affects their reasoning procedure and the way they teach. Thus, to find out why EFL instructors do what they do in their classrooms, it is a prerequisite to be aware of the beliefs that shape and guide their activities and check whether any relationship can be found between their belief framework and teaching strategies. Richards (1996) recommended that teachers create objective standards in light of their belief system, and those standards work as guidelines that shape the activities of the teachers. This means that instructors' teaching may be connected intently to their belief system, observations, and motivation. Therefore, to understand instructors' behavior in the classroom, instructors' belief system should be examined in detail. Among teachers' belief system, self-efficacy has been studied the most in the literature and will be the focus of this study.

1.1.3. The Effect of Instructor's Self Efficacy in Learning

Teacher self-efficacy is also called as "teacher efficacy," "teachers' sense of efficacy," or "teachers' self-efficacy beliefs". Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) have defined it as teachers' confidence in their capacity to organize and perform the activities effectively to satisfy the teaching tasks required in their particular teaching setting.

Many studies have been conducted on self-efficacy as a specific type of belief that explains the correlation between students' academic success and teachers' self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) described self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p.3). Bandura (1997) asserted that teachers' instructional efficacy beliefs will somewhat arrange and structure their teaching in the classrooms. Therefore, it could be implied that when instructors feel confident in choosing and applying appropriate strategies, they attempt to do their best in the classroom.

According to Bandura (1997), teachers' self-efficacy can influence the sort of environment they establish and different teaching strategies they will employ in their classroom. What's more, more efficacious teachers are sure that they can reach even the most troublesome students if they put some extra effort; while the less efficacious teachers feel desperate when they have to deal with unmotivated and problematic students (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). The impact of self-efficacy has been broadly discussed in the literature in view of the social cognitive theory; each one of those beliefs is the underlying foundations of human agency (Bandura, 2001). In literature, there is a common belief that instructors who feel more efficacious use more and better strategies while teaching to improve students' performance but instructors who don't trust themselves will simply stick to their traditional strategies.

It is suggested in the literature that teachers' self-efficacy affects various parts of teaching and learning (Henson, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, 1998; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006). Self-efficacy is identified with students' motivation (Bandura, 1997), student success, (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), feeling of efficacy (Anderson, Greene & Loewen, 1988), writing performance (Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010). Moreover, self-efficacy is also identified with teachers' motivation to teach (Allinder, 1994), to deal with the classroom (Gencer & Cakiroglu, 2007; Shim, 2001), to plan and organize (Allinder, 1994), and to persevere regardless of troubles (Milner & Hoy, 2003), academic motivation and performance (Pekkanli, 2009), emotional intelligence (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009;) and English capability (Chacon, 2005).

Teachers' self-efficacy in particular subject areas has also been studied (Bleicher, 2004; Chacón, 2002, 2005). For instance, in science teaching, teachers' self-efficacy in various settings has been investigated (Bleicher, 2004; Uzun, 2010). However, studies in teachers' self-efficacy in foreign language teaching are not extensive (Chacón, 2002; Cooper, 2009; Lee, 2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Pekkanli, 2009; Shim, 2001). Rather, the students have been the real focal point of study. It is obvious that researching about students' cognitive and affective domains is considered as more significant than focusing on issues related to teachers. However, teachers are also a basic part of the learning procedure, they can't be ignored and

their role is quite significant for progression of teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language.

Exploring teachers' self-efficacy is necessary to comprehend teaching and learning. By considering its solid effect, there is a necessity for further research in this field (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Exploring Teachers' self-efficacy can be quite helpful in the search of ways to make teachers more effective in language classes since it mirrors teachers' basic beliefs systems that can shape teacher practices in the classroom.

In literature, it is also claimed that teachers' low level of English proficiency is one of the greatest hindrances to fruitful teaching and learning of English (Nunan, 2003). Low English proficiency is causally identified with lack of confidence in teaching English. It has been widely believed that one of the most common problems of English teachers is that they basically do not have sufficient English proficiency levels and they do not have enough confidence to teach in English (Nunan, 2003).

It is obvious that such a relationship should also be supported by further studies. For instance, it is likely that a teacher who does not have high proficiency level can feel more confident to teach English to the low-level students, while he will feel less confident when teaching high level students. Thus, exploring English teachers' self-efficacy to teach in their particular setting, considering the effect of their English skills on their self-efficacy beliefs and checking whether any relationship exists and measuring the quality of this relationship is necessary. This study will investigate the EFL University Prep School instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and its interaction with their English proficiency level, teaching strategies and background characteristics.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As it has been mentioned before, teachers' low English proficiency level has been connected with their loss of confidence and thus their unsuccessful teaching (Nunan, 2003). According to Nunan (2003), the biggest problem is that many English

teachers don't have the required capability in English, and as a result they don't have the confidence to teach in English (Nunan, 2003). However, Nunan's argument is not based on any research about the relationship between teachers' language skills and self-confidence. It is necessary to investigate such a relationship.

In literature, there are some studies (Lee 2009, Chacón 2002, Shim 2001) on the relationship of English teachers' proficiency level and self-efficacy. Chacón (2002, 2005) studied self-efficacy of the Venezuelan secondary school teachers and found a positive correlation between their self-efficacy and language proficiency levels. However, Shim (2001) demonstrated that the self-efficacy of the Korean secondary and high school English teachers was not altogether related with their English proficiency. Lee (2009) searched on Korean primary school English teachers and the findings are similar to Chacón's results. These conflicting outcomes show that more research is required on the connection between self-efficacy and language proficiency, rather than simply considering a causal relationship.

Shim (2001) suggested that English teachers' self-efficacy must be researched by more content specific instruments. For example, there is a specific instrument developed for science teaching. However, there is no particular instrument accessible for foreign language teaching. There is a need for an instrument designed to search on efficacy belief in foreign language education. In this study, a few changes have been made to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) questionnaire on self-efficacy to adapt it to the EFL setting. Thus, some different items have been added to the questionnaire regarding the setting of university prep school classrooms.

Besides, there may be some other components influencing English teachers' self-efficacy. Chacon (2005) suggests the teachers' perceived efficacy is a multifaceted construct that changes regarding tasks and contexts of teaching. Chacon claimed that more studies should be done to explore EFL teachers' sense of efficacy. Recent studies employing extra independent variables were suggested to determine indicators of self-efficacy of English teachers in different places and contexts. The use of strategies is another independent variable necessary to concentrate on for its

impact on self-efficacy of EFL teachers. Based on the literature, it is possible to say that self-efficacy belief will affect the choice of strategy and use of strategies will demonstrate the level of instructor self-efficacy (Labone, 2004). Thus, it can be said that there is a corresponding relationship between them. Although there are several studies, it is not possible to find any studies focusing on the consolidated impacts of both teaching strategies and language skills on teachers' self-efficacy. Therefore, more research is required here to examine the relationship between the mentioned variables to fill the gap appropriately.

There are some studies exploring teacher self-efficacy belief in different areas such as maths and science, but the number of studies carried out outside the US is limited (Ladner, 2008; Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010; Ordonez-Feliciano, 2009;). As Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) suggest, instructor self-efficacy belief is not only shaped by their view of individual feelings and knowledge but also the effect that culture and society might have on the teacher roles, social relations and expectations. Besides, university preparatory school context is usually ignored in self-efficacy studies since language teaching is frequently associated with earlier stages of education. Thus, there is a need to examine teachers' ability with respect to their personal skills in EFL university preparatory school context.

In brief, this study will focus on the necessities mentioned above and will primarily investigate university preparatory school instructors' self-efficacy in teaching English and investigate whether there is a relationship between their self-efficacy beliefs and their English proficiency level, their use of strategy in EFL classes and their background characteristics. Considering the recent investigations, it is possible to see a relationship between self-efficacy and teaching strategy. In many studies about self-efficacy, there is a common belief that good teaching strategy can be an indicator of teachers' self-efficacy. However, this belief has not been studied in detail, particularly with EFL instructors teaching in the university prep school context.

Based on the previous studies, it may be hypothesized that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs affect their teaching strategy and those who feel more efficacious will

subsequently use various strategies. Conversely, teachers who consider themselves less efficacious will use only the strategies required in the classroom. It is possible to talk about a two-way relationship between self-efficacy and teaching strategy and this study will also investigate if such a relationship can exist. Thus, this study will also investigate the interaction between self-efficacy, proficiency level, and teaching strategies to check whether any interaction exists among these factors.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

First objective of the study is to search English preparatory school's instructors' self-efficacy in teaching English, their proficiency level, their perceived use of teaching strategies and their background characteristics such as gender and experience.

Secondly, this study aims to investigate the correlation between instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and their a) background characteristics b) proficiency level and c) use of teaching strategies.

To accomplish these objectives, both quantitative and qualitative methods will be used. Questionnaires will be distributed to instructors working at university prep schools and semi structured interview sessions will be conducted with a smaller group of instructors. There have been few studies on prep school instructors' self-efficacy, thus this study can provide a broader picture of self-efficacy with a bigger sample of the instructors in different settings and context.

1.4. Research Questions

Research questions of the study are as follows:

1. How do university prep school instructors evaluate
 - a. their current level of self-efficacy beliefs?
 - b. their English proficiency levels?

- c. the way they use teaching strategies?
2. What is the relationship between prep school instructors' self- efficacy level and
 - a. their English proficiency levels?
 - b. their use of teaching strategies?
 - c. their background characteristics?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Teachers' self-efficacy has been explored in various settings and subject fields. In science teaching, studies have especially been addressing teachers' self-efficacy belief but they just concentrate on teachers teaching from primary to high school. (Maguire, 2011; Morris, 2010). Most studies focus on science and mathematics, or they were carried out in ESL settings; however, for this study, university prep school context is chosen. Since university preparatory (prep) school context has not been examined deeply enough before, investigating instructors' self-efficacy at prep school is necessary.

In prep schools, English is taught as an instrument for students to achieve their academic aims. Students have to enroll in prep schools if their English proficiency level is not at the required level. Students also learn English to achieve international exams such as IELTS or TOEFL. Some others are learning English for individual reasons, for example, to be able to be fluent in English, find better jobs or go abroad.

By looking at prep school instructors' self-efficacy in relation to different factors, this study can contribute to the field in several ways. To begin with, this study investigates instructors' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English at the EFL university context. Despite the direct relationship between instructors' self-efficacy and their teaching, most studies (Henson, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), focus on in a broad educational perspective. Some others (Cooper, 2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Pekkanli, 2009; Rahimi & Gheitasi, 2010; Rastegar &

Memarpour, 2009;) have examined it in the TESOL setting and just a couple of studies (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001) have considered it in connection to instructors' specific features such as proficiency in English. This study aims at giving information on how languages skills can affect instructors' self-efficacy.

Besides, not many studies have dealt with instructors' self-efficacy in university prep school setting. Being aware of the significance of learning English and important functions of university prep schools, there is a need for studies on English instructors' self-efficacy so as to figure out the situation. It is hoped that the results of this study will provide insight into this issue and trigger other studies.

Thirdly, this study also focuses on the interaction between instructors' self-efficacy and different factors, for example, their background characteristics, proficiency level and use of strategies. The interaction between proficiency and self-efficacy was searched before (Chacon, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001); however, the relation between instructors' self-efficacy and their use of strategies has not been explored in previously. By incorporating this variable, which is frequently identified with instructors' efficacy in literature (Moè et al., 2010), this study will try to provide a broader picture of university prep school instructors' self-efficacy by taking into account the possible variables.

Lastly, this study will give valuable data to researchers in identifying the relationship between potential factors which were investigated. Be that as it may, the ramifications of this study won't be restricted to Turkish setting only. In any case, it may be extended to a broader setting of all university prep schools where English is taught as a foreign language.

1.6. Definition of Terms

The following terms are frequently used throughout this study.

Self-efficacy refers to “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (Bandura, 1995, p.2).

Teacher Efficacy is defined as “the teacher’s belief in his/her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p.223).

EFL Instructors refer to “the instructors who are currently working at schools of foreign languages at universities to teach English as a foreign language” and is used interchangeably with the terms “English instructors”, “EFL instructors”, or just “instructors” (Ülkümen, 2013, p.6).

(Self-Reported) English language proficiency is defined as teachers’ self-assessed competence in four domains (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) following Butler (2004).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Overview of the Chapter

This chapter presents a review of existing literature on self-efficacy. First, sense of efficacy is discussed with respect to Bandura's social cognitive theory and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Integrated Model. Second, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and its sources are discussed. Lastly, relevant literature on teacher efficacy from the foreign and second language setting is provided.

2.2. Sense of Efficacy and Teaching

Self-efficacy belief is considered as the foundation of human agency, affecting many aspects of human functioning, such as one's choice of tasks, goal setting, motivation level, efforts, affective states, and accomplishments (Bandura, 2006). In the literature, it is often suggested that high level of efficacy demands more effort and determination, which will lead to much better accomplishments and higher level of efficacy in turn. On the other hand, low efficacy beliefs result in fewer attempts which lead failure and lower efficacy at the end.

In the field of education, teacher self-efficacy is often considered as context-specific and self-perceptions of teaching competence and beliefs about the requirements of a task will determine teacher efficacy (Chacon, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Turnage, 2011). Thus, teachers are supposed to judge what is expected of them in a specific teaching context, which is explained as the analysis of teaching

task by considering factors such as teaching context, student motivation, appropriate teaching strategies, and management issues.

Bandura (1993) suggests that assessing personal teaching competence affect teacher efficacy since it is determined by one's comparative evaluation of whether their skills and strategies are suitable for the required teaching task. While teachers may feel efficacious in one context, they may not feel so in another. Individual's efficacy beliefs are influenced by the belief that whether these skills and strategies are fixed into the context. In self-efficacy assessment, teachers evaluate their teaching competence considering the expected requirements of teaching task. Thus, teachers assess their abilities that define their self-perception of teaching competence, while the analysis of teaching task is the evaluation regarding the resources and limitations in their specific teaching context.

In order to examine self-efficacy concept in detail, two significant theories which are supposed to be infrastructure of self-efficacy are needed to focus on.

2.3. Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory is a well-known learning theory that perceives human functioning through considering human agency and a dynamic interaction between personal, behavioral and social factors in human change (Bandura, 1997). According to Pajares (2002), Bandura's social cognitive theory is different from behaviorist theories since in social cognitive theory as human change is considered as the outcome of environmental experiences or external stimuli in person's life. Different from behaviorist theories, the change process in human cannot only be explained by external stimuli and human thoughts and introspection affects behaviors. Pajares (2002) also states that Bandura's social cognitive theory is different from other behaviorist theories that overestimate the effects of biological factors and ignores the significance of social and contextual factors. While Bandura (1997) rejects the duality between social structure and human agency, he claims that both environmental factors and human agency influences human change equally.

In social cognitive theory, “people act as the active agents and they are contributors to their life circumstances, not just products of them” (Bandura, 2006, p. 164). Bandura (2006) asserts that personal agency develops if an active agent interacts with the social environment, in others words the context they are in.

Social cognitive theory argues that human agency operates via a dynamic interaction among personal, environmental and behavioral factors instead of operating on its own. This notion is demonstrated in Bandura’s (1986) triadic reciprocal causation model (Figure 1) which is based on a mutual interaction among behavior, personal factors and environment. Thus “human functioning is viewed as the product of a dynamic interplay of personal, behavioral, and environmental influences” (Pajares, 2002, p. 1).

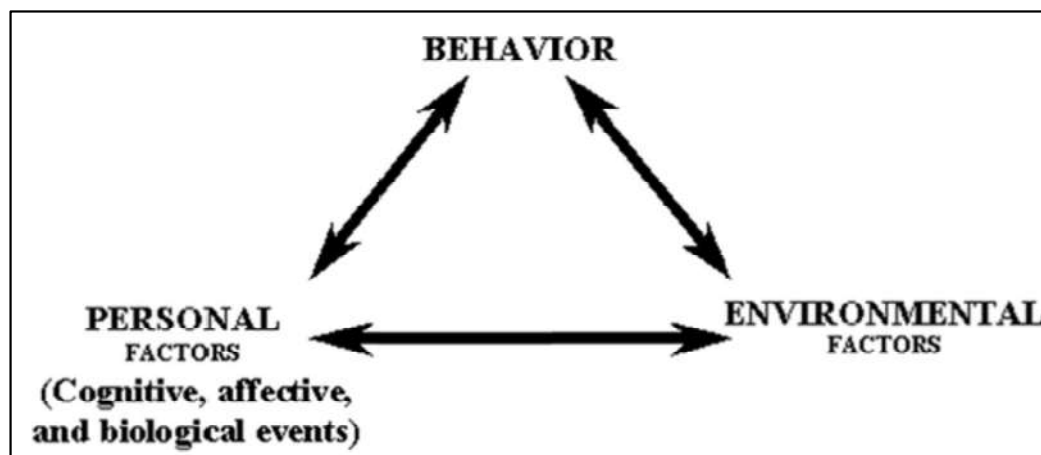
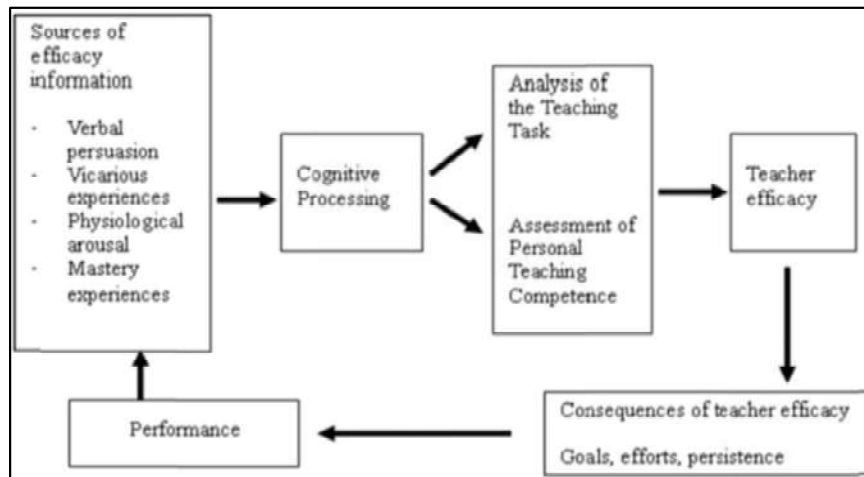


Figure 1. Triadic Reciprocal Causation Model (Bandura, 1997, p. 6)

2.4. Integrated Model and Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (1998) claim that there are conceptual confusions regarding teacher efficacy in Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory. In order to address the confusions and provide unity to the meaning and measuring of teachers’ sense of efficacy beliefs, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) proposed an integrated model.



*Figure 2.*The Cyclical Nature of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 228)

When the figure is examined, it can be seen that the model is largely based on Bandura's self-efficacy theory in many ways: sources of efficacy information cognitive processing, domain-specific nature of self-efficacy beliefs through the analysis of the teaching task and cyclical nature of self-efficacy beliefs. However, instead of just dwelling on the constraints and common challenges that teachers face in forming their self-efficacy perceptions, this model focuses on the analysis of teaching tasks. Information about individual's self-efficacy level is gathered through Bandura's (1997) four sources of mastery experience, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences and physiological arousal. Next, obtained information is analyzed and processed through analysis of judgements. Later, these judgments are used by teachers to determine their aims, amount of effort necessary to achieve the goals and their persistence. Teachers' performance and outcomes of their efforts will provide new mastery experiences and future judgements of efficacy.

Tschannen- Moran et al. (1998) further suggests that in judging self-perceptions of teaching competence, the teacher assesses personal abilities such as knowledge, skills or strategies against personal weaknesses in particular teaching context. The interaction of these two factors results in judgments about self-efficacy for the teaching in that specific context.

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy's integrated model defines teacher-efficacy as "the teachers' belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 222). They emphasize the context specificity of teacher efficacy. Bandura (1997) rejected most of the existing teacher-efficacy scales since they are in a general form rather than dealing with the domains of instructional functioning. Pajares (2006) also underlined:

Omnibus tests that aim to assess general self-efficacy provide global scores that decontextualize the self-efficacy-behavior correspondence and transform self-efficacy beliefs into a generalized personality trait rather than the context-specific judgment Bandura suggests they are... The problem with such assessments is that students must generate judgments about their academic capabilities without a clear activity or task in mind. As a result, they generate the judgments by in some fashion mentally aggregating to related perceptions that they hope will be related to imagined tasks (p. 547).

In the integrated model of sense of efficacy, "the major influences on efficacy beliefs are assumed to be the attributional analysis and interpretation of the four sources of information about efficacy described by Bandura (1986, 1997) - mastery experience, physiological arousal, vicarious experience, and verbal persuasion" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 227). However, teachers' efficacy beliefs may change in different teaching situations and teacher efficacy is context specific. While teachers may feel more efficacious in teaching particular subject in a particular setting, they may feel less efficacious in different settings. Tschannen- Moran et al. (1998) exemplifies the situation by stating that "a highly efficacious secondary chemistry teacher might feel very inefficacious teaching middle school science, or a very confident rural sixth grade teacher might shudder at the thought of teaching sixth graders in the city" (p. 228).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy benefited from Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy scale, which includes a detailed list of teacher capacities in general terms, and developed a nine-point Likert-scale consisting of 52 items. This scale was employed in three studies and reduced to 32 and then to 18 items. Finally, two forms of scale were formed with 24-item long form and 12-item short form and classroom management, student engagement and instructional strategies were determined as

three sub-categories (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). They suggest the integrated model of teacher efficacy in which individual's own judgement of teaching competence is identified via specific teaching tasks.

2.5. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy

Teacher efficacy has been defined in several ways. For instance, "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p. 233), "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977, p. 137, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p. 202), or "teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Guskey & Passaro, 1994, p. 4, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al, 1998, p. 202).

Efficacy is a future-oriented belief that is explained through the perceptions of competence rather than actual level of competence (Woolfolk-Hoy & Burke-Spero, 2005). This is a significant segregation since people have a tendency to underestimate or overestimate their real abilities and these estimations may influence their efforts and actions. As Bandura states (1997) "a capability is only as good as its execution. The self-assurance with which people approach and manage difficult tasks determines whether they make good or poor use of their capabilities. Insidious self- doubts can easily overrule the best of skills" (p. 35).

Henson (2001) suggests that these conceptions of teachers' sense of efficacy leads researchers to social cognitive theory and he explains teacher efficacy as a concept that has mainly stemmed from Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory which determines human agency and triadic reciprocal causation as the factors that influence one's efficacy beliefs. The premise of human agency believes that people are capable of making choice and shaping their lives (Bandura, 1982). Nevertheless, the mechanism through which human agency works is triadic reciprocal causation, a multi-directional model in which behavior, internal personal factors (e.g.

cognition, affect, and attitudes), and the environment exert causal influence on each other (Bandura, 1997). The interaction between these symbiotic influences brings actual behavior and thought to the individual

2.6. Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Social cognitive theory views self-efficacy belief as the most significant and stable mechanism of human agency. According to Bandura (2006), belief of personal efficacy is the pervasive and central mechanism of human agency. If people do not believe they can produce desired effects through their actions, they don't have much enthusiasm to act.

Bandura (1997) specifically describes teachers' perceived self-efficacy as their beliefs on their capabilities to organize and conduct the courses of action needed to produce given attainments from other constructs. He approves in advance that "a composite view of oneself that is presumed to be formed through direct experience and evaluations adopted from significant others" (p. 10). Self-efficacy beliefs vary in accordance with context, difficulty and domain of teaching activities. Bandura (1997) also emphasizes that self-efficacy beliefs are different from self-esteem which is considered as whether one likes or dislikes oneself. While self-efficacy beliefs are associated with the perception of personal capability in a specific teaching context, self-esteem is related to perception of self-worth. Thus, teachers' perception of low capacity and performance for a specific context does not automatically mean a loss of self-esteem. In addition, opposite to self-esteem which influences personal aims and performance, self-efficacy beliefs affect teachers' goals and performance attainments. In other words, Bandura's conception suggests that teachers' self-efficacy is specific to a domain, context and difficulty level. Therefore, self-efficacy beliefs are different from self-concept and self-esteem and should be investigated.

According to Bandura (1997), what individuals believe is more effective than what is the truth on their motivation level, affective states and actions. Pajares (2002) also suggests that how people behave may often be better predicted by their perceptions

on their capabilities than what they can do in real and self-efficacy beliefs may determine what people do with their skills and knowledge. Pajares (2001) also adds that if there is a mismatch between teachers' belief and reality, it is the belief that guides them in engaging course of action. Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy belief is more effective factor than their knowledge in predicting their attainments. Moreover, Bandura (1997) claims that self-efficacy beliefs affect "people's goals and aspirations, how well they motivate themselves and their perseverance in the face of difficulties and adversity" (p. 4). Self-efficacy beliefs are supposed to influence how opportunities and disadvantages are perceived. Thus, teachers' low efficacy makes them give up trying when they face challenges. On the other hand, teachers with high efficacy regard disadvantages as achievable through commitment and development of necessary competencies.

2.6.1. Sources of Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

According to Bandura (1997), people develop their self-efficacy beliefs by processing information obtained mainly from four sources: enactive mastery experience, vicarious learning experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. Bandura (1997) explains information process as follows:

In processing the information from the four sources, there are two separate functions. The first one is the types of information people attend to and use as indicators of personal efficacy, and second function is "the combination of rules and heuristics people use to integrate efficacy information from different sources (p. 55).

Mastery experience which has an important role in strengthening and weakening teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can be the most powerful source of sense of efficacy. If teachers feel that they have performed the teaching task successfully, their self-efficacy beliefs will improve mutually. However, Bandura (1997) warns that efficacy beliefs are not enhanced if success is achieved through external help in easy and unimportant tasks. Success in challenging tasks with little assistance enhances self-efficacy.

According to Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy (1998), among the efficacy information sources identified by Bandura, mastery experiences and emotional reactions related to experiences are more influential on teachers' sense of efficacy. Mastery experience is significant since an individual can assess his or her capabilities only in an actual teaching situation. Teachers can gather information on how their strengths and weaknesses influence their instruction, evaluation and management.

As the second source of teachers' efficacy beliefs, vicarious experience exists when individuals observe and compare themselves with someone else who performs the same task. Bandura (1997) states that this observation may either strengthen or weaken individuals' self-efficacy beliefs. If the observers think that the observee's performance is positive in a similar task to theirs, this perception influences their self-efficacy beliefs in positive way. For this reason, Tschannen-Moran et al., (1998) suggest that modeling and attentive observation are influential tools in teacher education.

Verbal persuasion is the third source of efficacy beliefs and may be strengthened through verbal assessments on individuals' performance on certain tasks. Bandura (1997) asserts that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can be strengthened through evaluative feedback which includes systematic, realistic and constructive appraisals from a significant character in the context. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), verbal persuasion regarding teacher efficacy could be specific or general. In addition, specific performance feedback from trainers, colleagues and even students could be a source of information in order to investigate whether teacher's skills and strategies meet the requirements of a particular teaching task. For self-efficacy beliefs of teachers, specific performance feedback is quite significant since it provides a chance of social comparison and outcomes of the teaching performance. If the feedback is excessively harsh and global rather than focused and constructive, social persuasion lowers the self-perceptions of teaching competence. In this case, teachers might have a self-protective attitude that causes failure.

Finally, individuals' affective states and physiological rousing such as stress, anxiety and mood can affect their self-efficacy beliefs. It is often considered that the level of emotional and physiological arousal of teachers adds to their self-perceptions of teaching competence. Regarding teaching context, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) suggests that arousal may improve performance in focusing attention and energy on the task to some extent. Nevertheless, high levels of arousal may weaken functioning and best use of skills and capabilities.

2.7. Studies on Teacher Efficacy on EFL Context

While there have been a large amount of empirical research on the concept of teacher efficacy in general education (Tournaki & Podell, 2005) or special education (Henson, 2001), the number of studies investigating teacher efficacy in the field of foreign language teaching is limited (Liaw, 2004, Chacon, 2005; Shim, 2001; Kim, 2002). Moreover, studies on foreign language teaching usually dwell on the relationship between teacher efficacy and demographic factors such as experience, being native or nonnative.

Regarding native and non-native foreign language teachers' efficacy and their perceptions of language teaching, Liaw (2004) conducted a study investigated the following topics: (1) advantages and disadvantages of native and nonnative teachers, (2) importance of teaching, teacher training programs and methods of motivating and helping students, and (3) teaching strategies. He found a positive relationship between teachers' perception of their ability in teaching the target language and level of teacher efficacy. Most of the participants reported themselves efficacious in using various instructional strategies, and in engaging students with low motivation level in various classroom activities. Nevertheless, native and nonnative foreign language teachers were not found to be different in their language-teaching efficacy. Similarly, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) investigated the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and experience in addition to academic degree with the participation of 447 EFL teachers. The results revealed that less experienced teachers were reported to have low self-efficacy levels as well as efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student

engagement. However, no significant correlation was found between academic degree and self-efficacy.

In another study, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their success in teaching. In their study, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was completed by 89 EFL teachers while the other scale, Characteristics of Successful EFL Teachers was filled in by their students. The results showed that there was a strong correlation between teacher self-efficacy and their success. In other words, teachers having a higher level of efficacy are more likely considered to achieve certain teaching tasks from the students' viewpoints. The study also investigated the relationship between experience and self-efficacy and found that a significant correlation between them.

In a more detailed study, Shim (2001) investigated the relationship between Korean in-service EFL teachers' sense of efficacy and certain characteristics such as "school stress", "teaching satisfaction" and "language proficiency". The results revealed that "teaching satisfaction", "peer relationship", "school stress" and "classroom management" were the variables that distinguished high efficacious teachers from low efficacious teachers. Shim (2001) also found that teachers with higher levels of efficacy had higher listening proficiency than low efficacious teachers, on the other hand low efficacious teachers had higher speaking skills than high efficacious ones.

Chacon (2005) conducted another significant study in Venezuelan context. She investigated EFL teachers' efficacy with three dimensions of efficacy for student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies; their proficiency level in four language skills and strategies they use in teaching English as a foreign language. She also examined the relationship between these concepts and demographic variables such as experience and studying abroad. Her survey consisted of three parts: (1) Teachers' self-reported English proficiency, (2) Teachers' self-reported pedagogical strategies to teach English, and (3) An adapted version of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The results showed that teachers' belief of their competence to teach has a direct influence on their teaching. In addition, teachers' efficacy for

instructional strategies was found higher than their efficacy for management and engagement. It was also found that there was a positive correlation between teachers' and their language proficiency, which emphasized the perceived importance of content knowledge. Interestingly, the results revealed that teachers tend to employ grammar-oriented strategies more frequently regardless of their efficacy level. In addition, no significant relationship was found between teaching experience and teacher efficacy for student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management.

2.8. Studies on Teacher Efficacy in Turkey

Although the numbers are limited, it is possible to find studies conducted in Turkey. Ortaçtepe (2006) explored the relationship between Turkish EFL teachers' efficacy and their self-reported practice of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and the effect of an in-service teacher education program about CLT on Turkish EFL teachers' efficacy, their self-reported and actual practice of CLT. She used pre and post-test research design on 50 Turkish EFL teachers working in eight foundation schools in Istanbul. Teachers' Background Questionnaire, English Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (ETSES) (Chacon, 2005), Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT): Observation Scheme (Spada & Frönlich, 1995), and the questionnaire version of COLT were used as data collection tools and 20 EFL teachers were observed during the study. The results showed no relationship between Turkish EFL teachers' efficacy and their self-reported practice of CLT. As for effect of the in-service teacher education program on CLT, the results indicated that teachers improved their practice of CLT and reported themselves more efficacious after the in-service teacher education program.

There are also some studies which investigated self-efficacy at university context. In a four-year longitudinal study, Özmen (2012) investigated the effect of an ELT preservice education program on pre-service teachers' beliefs at Gazi University, Faculty of Education in Ankara and tried to examine the changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs' over the course of the ELT preservice program. The findings of the study revealed that different phases of the program resulted in various changes

at certain levels. It was also found that pre-service teachers' engagement in the teaching practicum had significant impact on the development of their beliefs about language learning and teaching.

Yavuz (2005) carried out a study and investigated the level of efficacy perceptions of EFL instructors and the variables that have a relationship with teacher efficacy. Her study included 226 EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of 13 universities in Istanbul and the results showed that EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of 13 universities in Istanbul reported themselves as highly efficacious. More specifically, the results indicated that instructors perceived themselves to be more efficacious in classroom management and instructional strategies than student engagement. Similarly, Solar-Şekerci (2011) investigated the self-efficacy beliefs of 257 Turkish EFL instructors working at university preparatory schools in Ankara to find out whether language proficiency, teaching experience, and graduate department influence instructors' self-efficacy beliefs in terms of classroom management, student engagement and instructional strategies. Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, Self -Reported English Proficiency Scale and Language Teaching Methods Scale have been used as data collection tool and results revealed that instructors had quite high level of self-efficacy beliefs and they felt more efficacious in classroom management. She also found a positive relationship between language proficiency, teaching experience and levels of self-efficacy.

Ülkümen (2013) explored the predictors of university preparatory school instructors' self-efficacy regarding factors such as teaching experience, major, colleague support and administration support with the participation of 285 English language instructors from nine universities in Ankara. Five-section scale including the Turkish version of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Mastery Experience Scale, Colleague Support Scale, Administration Support Scale, and a demographic information section was used as a data collection tool. The results indicated that teaching experience, mastery experience, administration support and university type were significant predictors of EFL instructors' self-efficacy beliefs.

A mixed method case study was conducted by Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez (2012) to examine the extent to which EFL pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement evolve throughout the practice teaching course. The study employed a variety of data collection tools, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001) and Mentoring for Foreign Language Teaching (MEFLT) scale (Hudson, Nguyen & Hudson, 2009), pre-service teachers' weekly reflective journals, semi-structured face-to-face interviews and an open-ended survey. The results indicated that none of the dimensions of practicing teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs developed significantly after practice teaching. However, sense of efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management significantly decreased at the end of the practice teaching. It was also found that sense of efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management beliefs had a significant relationship with the Personal/Professional Attributes of the cooperating teachers.

In a more recent study, Taşer (2015) investigated predictors of Turkish EFL instructors' self-efficacy beliefs at the tertiary level and to find out the most influential factors that shape preparatory school instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and its sub-dimensions. She employed an explanatory mixed methods design consisting of two main stages. In the first stage, a questionnaire was applied to 434 Turkish EFL instructors working at universities in Ankara, İstanbul, and İzmir and interviews were conducted with twenty teachers in the second stage. The results indicated that the instructors have a rather high overall level of self-efficacy, especially in classroom management and instructional strategies subdimensions. It was also found that teaching experience and working environment were important predictors of instructors' efficacy beliefs. She also added that in-service training showed significance when combined with an effective working environment and administrative support.

2.9. Summary of the Chapter

In brief, this chapter provides information about self-efficacy and two significant theories which are frequently mentioned in self-efficacy literature: Bandura's social

cognitive theory and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's Integrated Model. Next, literature on teachers' sense of efficacy is discussed by providing its sources. Lastly, the relevant literature on teacher efficacy is presented.

As it has been mentioned before, the number of self-efficacy studies focusing on EFL prep school context is too limited. In addition, these studies usually focus on one potential variable which influences prep school instructors' self-efficacy level. However, this study focuses on the interaction between instructors' self-efficacy and several various factors such as their background characteristics, proficiency level and use of strategies. By incorporating various factors, this study will try to provide a broader picture of EFL university prep-school instructors self-efficacy.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This section will provide information on research design, participant characteristics, context, instruments and data collection procedures.

3.2. Research Design

This study aimed at exploring university prep school instructors' self-efficacy and its interaction with their background, proficiency level and use of strategy and mixed methods research design was adopted. Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods are incorporated since quantitative data is not enough to provide deeper insights into instructors' self-efficacy beliefs and semi-structured interviews will be used as a qualitative data collection tool in the study. According to Creswell (2008), mixed methods design is particularly valuable when researchers pursue a quantitative research with quantitative one to obtain more detailed data that can't be acquired through statistical methods. Furthermore, as Tschannen- Moran et al. (1998) points out, it is possible to see different perspectives and there is a great need for qualitative data in teacher efficacy research.

In the first stage of the study, participants' background characteristics such as gender and experience will be investigated through the first part of the questionnaire. Then, data on participants' own evaluation of their a) self-efficacy level, b) language proficiency level and c) use of teaching strategies will be gathered through second,

third and fourth part of the questionnaire. Therefore, first research question of “*How do university prep school instructors evaluate their (a) current level of self-efficacy beliefs, (b) English proficiency levels and (c) the way they use teaching strategies?*” will be answered.

Next, second research question of “*What is the relationship between prep school instructors’ self-efficacy level and their (1) English proficiency levels (2) background characteristics (3) use of teaching strategies?*” will be answered based on the data gathered through the second, third and last part of the questionnaire. The data will be analyzed through canonical correlation analysis and each relationship will be presented in tables and figures. Then, more detailed results will be presented through inter-item correlations analysis between three dimensions of self-efficacy and sub-categories of language proficiency, teaching strategies and background characteristics.

3.3. Participant Characteristics of Quantitative Stage

Turkish EFL instructors working at state and private universities in Turkey formed the population of this study. In order to include as many instructors as possible and to provide better basis for the research, convenience sampling method was selected. For more than 400 questionnaires distributed, 374 of them were answered by the instructors appropriately and took part in the study. The demographic information for the 374 instructors that took part in this study is illustrated through the table below.

Table 1
Participants’ Demographic Information in Quantitative Stage

University	Frequency	Percent
Atılım	56	14.9
Bahçeşehir	93	24.8
Çanakkale	18	4.8
Hacettepe	69	18.4
Kırklareli	7	1.9
Namık Kemal	28	7.6
Trakya	12	3.2
Uludağ	91	24.4
TOTAL	374	100.00

3.4. Participant Characteristics of Qualitative Stage

Convenience sampling was also used in qualitative stage. Interviewees were selected from the survey respondents based on voluntariness and 25 instructors were randomly chosen and interviewed from 5 different universities. As it is presented in the table below, interviewees consisted of 14 males and 11 females with different background who had an average 5-15 years of experience.

Table 2
Participants' Demographic Information in Qualitative Stage

University	Frequency	Percent
Atılım	4	16
Bahçeşehir	2	8
Çanakkale	3	12
Hacettepe	1	4
Kırklareli	2	8
Namık Kemal	8	32
Trakya	4	16
Uludağ	1	4
TOTAL	25	100.00

3.5. Research Context

The study was conducted at preparatory schools of eight different universities in Turkey. While two of them are private universities and six of them are state universities. While English prep class is compulsory in six of these universities, other two provide English prep class on a volunteer basis. All of the prep schools are administered by director and vice director. Students are grouped through a placement test given to the students at the beginning of the year and instructors are appointed to these classes randomly. Instructors generally teach 16-24 hours a week and some of them have other extra duties such as materials development and testing.

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments were used in this study: questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

3.6.1. Questionnaire

The quantitative data were collected through questionnaire which consists of four parts. In the first part, participants provided their background information in the space given and other three parts are Likert scale.

Part 1. Instructors' Personal and Professional Background;

This part of the questionnaire was developed to obtain information about instructors' personal information: gender, education and experience.

Table 3

Questionnaire Part 1- Instructors' Personal Background

Factors	Items
Gender	1. I am: <u>male</u> <u>female</u>
Education	2. My highest degree earned and specialization: <u>B.A. in</u> <u>M.A. in</u> <u>Ph.D. in</u>
Experience	3 How long have you been teaching English? <u>Less than 1 year</u> <u>1-3 years</u> <u>4-6 years</u> <u>7-10 years</u> <u>More than 10 years</u>

Part 2. Instructors' Sense of efficacy;

In this part of the questionnaire, adapted version of Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen- Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was used. Some adaptations were made in order to make the instrument more appropriate to EFL prep school context.

Table 4

Questionnaire Part 2- Instructors' Sense of Efficacy (Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001)

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

Items in this part were Likert scale from one to nine and participants are asked to choose the degree for each item. Choosing one means that instructors are able to do nothing about the statement and choosing nine indicates that instructor is able to do much about the statement.

Construct validity of TSES was tested by Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001) and their test has a uniform and stable structure that assesses most of significant functions required for efficacy research. Efficacy for *student engagement*, efficacy for *teaching strategies* and efficacy for *classroom management* were identified as three sub-dimensions of self-efficacy in TSES. Reliability of the original TSES was .90 and this means that it would be a good instrument for instructor self-efficacy. In order to adapt the original scale to the context of the study, words such as “school work”, “learning”, “classroom”, and “children” were replaced by more context specific words like “English”, “learning English”, “in English class”. Changes were made to adapt the original test to EFL university prep school context can be seen as italicized and underlined

Part 3. Instructors' Language Proficiency Level;

This part of the questionnaire focuses on instructors' self-reported proficiency level and their beliefs to their effective teaching in prep school EFL classrooms. There are 25 items adapted for this research based on the study conducted by Chacon (2005). Instructors are supposed to evaluate their own proficiency in a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

Table 5

Questionnaire Part 3: Instructors' Self-reported Language Proficiency Level - Adapted Version of the Self-Reported English Proficiency (Chacon,,2005; Shim, 2001)

Constructs	Items
Listening	<p>1. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully.</p> <p>2. On the telephone, I understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully.</p> <p>3. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine.</p> <p>4. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker.</p> <p>5. I understand movies without subtitles</p> <p>6. I understand news broadcasts on American television.</p> <p>7. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.</p>
Speaking	<p>8. I can give simple biographical information about myself (place of birth, composition of family, etc.)</p> <p>9. I can talk about my hobbies at some length, using appropriate vocab.</p> <p>10. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.</p> <p>11. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (e.g. birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution.)</p> <p>12. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics</p> <p>13. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I do not have any difficulty.</p> <p>14. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty</p>
Reading	<p>15. I can read and understand magazine articles without using dictionary</p> <p>16. I can read and understand popular novels, without using dictionary</p> <p>17. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary.</p> <p>I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.</p> <p>19. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.</p>
Writing	<p>20. I can write official (business) letters, which convey meaning accurately and which contain relatively few grammatical errors.</p> <p>Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English.</p> <p>I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).</p> <p>I can write short research papers.</p> <p>I can select proper words in writing.</p> <p>I can write a short essay on a topic of my knowledge.</p>

Part 4. Instructors' Use of Teaching Strategies;

In this part, an adapted version of the scale developed by Moe et al. (2010) on teaching strategy and practices was used. They implemented the strategy scale through ethnographic method and asked teachers to choose the teaching strategies they make use of in the classroom. Then, all the strategies stated by teachers were collected, 30 of them selected and teachers stated the frequency of their use each strategy on a 5-point scale ranging from “almost never” to “almost always”. The correlation was $p < .01$ and this result revealed that all of the selected strategies were representative.

Table 6

Questionnaire Part 4- Instructors' use of Teaching Strategies Adapted Version of the Self-Reported Strategy Scale (Moe et al., 2001)

Category	Items
	1. Ask students to take notes during the lesson
	2. Dictate some definitions. If needed translate in their mother tongue
	3. Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained
	4. Summarize the content of a book orally. If necessary L1 will be used
	9. Ask students to read aloud from the book
	12. Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson
M	14. At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing
E	
C	16. Summarize the concepts taught. Use L1 to clarify the concepts
H	17. Ask students to write down key words on the topic described
A	23. Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones, in case of
N	need will get the help of L1
I	26. At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught
C	27. Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself
A	31. Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books
L	35. Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book
	39. Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain
	5. Invite students to ask questions during an explanation
C	6. Introduce the topic covered using a problem-solving strategy, i.e. by asking questions
O	7. Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously.
	8. Students work together in groups of two or three
M	10. Errors are tolerated and will be notified later
	11. Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know
M	13. Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab
	15. Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students.
U	18. The students discuss what they have learned in the class.
	19. Introduce a new topic using familiar examples
N	20. Create links between different topics and subjects

Table 6

(continue) *Questionnaire Part 4- Instructors' use of Teaching Strategies Adapted Version of the Self-Reported Strategy Scale (Moe et al., 2001)*

Category	Items
I	21. Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs.
C	22. Activate students' learning through playing English games 24. Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation 25. Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning
A	28. Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question 29. Organize working groups during the lessons
T	30. Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson. 32. Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes
I	33. Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on)
V	34. The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem
E	36. A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore it. 37. Build logical chains using temporal links 38. Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs 42. Discuss study topics during lessons 43. Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized 44. Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic 45. The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in class

The strategy scale developed by Moe et al. (2010) was not subject specific and some items such as 'using L1' were added and the scale was adapted for the aims of the study. In the adapted version, instructors are asked to choose on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from "almost never" to "almost always".

To check reliability, piloting process was applied and no significant difference from the previously conducted studies was found and the questionnaire was used in the study. Composition of the questionnaire is presented in Table 3.7.

Table 7

Composition of Quantitative Data Collection Tool

QUESTIONNAIRE			MODIFICATIONS
Part 1	Background Characteristics	Developed by the Researcher	➤ gender, ➤ degree
Part 2	Sense of Efficacy	Adapted Version of Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001)	"school work", "learning", "the classroom", "children" were replaced "English", "learning English", "in English, "language teaching", "students"

Table 7

(continue) Composition of Quantitative Data Collection Tool

QUESTIONNAIRE			MODIFICATIONS
Part 3	Language Proficiency Level	Adapted version of the self-reported English proficiency Chacon, (2002)	very small changes were made e.g. “replying answering machine” was replaced by “talking on the phone”
Part 4	Use of Teaching Strategies	Adapted Version of Moe et al. (2010) Scale on Teaching Strategy	It was not subject specific. Some items such as” using L1” were added.

3.6.2. Interview as a Qualitative Data Collection Tool

In order to extend the qualitative data, semi-structured interview sessions were organized with the instructors. The purpose was to explore instructors’ perceived level of self-efficacy, their making use of teaching strategies, and influence of their background, language proficiency and teaching strategies on their self-efficacy beliefs. Nunan (2003) states that qualitative methods such as interviews, observation and documents can lead to new variables, new paradigms and they help researchers to gain deeper insights about the study.

Nunan (2003) characterizes semi-structured interviews as the interviewer has a general thought of where researchers want the interview to go. The advantages of semi-structured interviews can be considered as giving the interviewee a level of control of the process and providing the interviewer flexibility.

Twenty-five instructors were interviewed in the qualitative part and interview sessions were conducted in Turkish to make instructors feel more relaxed. The comprehensibility of interview questions was checked by thesis dissertation committee members. In order to provide the participation of instructors from different universities, 13 of the interviews were conducted on the phone since they were located in different cities. Each interview lasted about 8-10 minutes and the interviews were recorded. As mentioned above, the interviews questions were semi-structured and open ended.

Questions asked to the participants are as follows:

1. How efficacious do you find yourself in teaching English? Would you consider yourself to be self- confident? (Interviewees were asked to evaluate themselves on a scale from 1 to 9 and provide their reasons)
2. In which aspect(s) of language teaching do you feel more confident? Please provide your reasons.
3. In which aspect(s) of language teaching are you more worried about? Please provide your reasons
4. Which strategies make you feel more efficacious in the classroom?
5. Does your language proficiency level affect your self confidence in the classroom? In what way? Please give examples.

3.7. Validity

Validity can simply be defined as whether an instrument measures what is supposed to measure. As Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) suggest, checking the correctness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the instrument will guarantee the validity of the instrument. The construct validity of teacher efficacy part of the questionnaire had already been provided by Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001) and Turkish Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale by Çapa, Çakıroğlu et. Al, (2005). The TSES was used in three different studies in which the original items were reduced to 24 as long form and 12 to short form. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) found a three-factor solution to teachers which included efficacy for ‘student engagement, ‘instructional strategies’ and ‘classroom management’. Likewise, in the Turkish version of the scale, Çapa et al (2005) found the same factors in a sample of 628 preservice teachers from six different universities in Turkey. A necessity to check the instruments of this study again emerged since some items were adapted for the context of the study and principal component analysis was conducted. The three mentioned factors were found valid again and variance was accounted as 60.4 %.

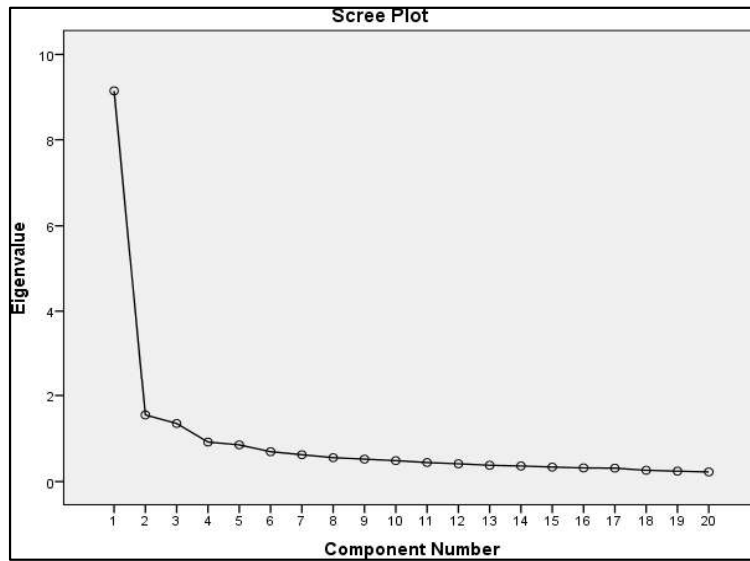


Figure 3. Scree Plot Self Efficacy Dimensions

The Scree Plot above shows the total number of sub-factors. There is a gradual decrease after the third component which confirms that data in Table 3.7 which revealed that there were total of three sub-factors.

3.8. Reliability

Reliability is simple defined as “the consistency of the obtained results” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Instrument developed by Tschannen- Moran and Hoy’s (2001) mentioned in the previous part had been checked by using Cronbach alfa and results were found quite high. Since the instrument used in this study was an adapted one, again reliability was checked through coefficient alfa. Thirty instructors were chosen as a pilot group and Cronbach Alfa coefficient was found .929 for the Instructors’ strategy use part and it was still reliable.

The same procedure was applied for language proficiency part of the instrument and reliability coefficient of each sub-category was calculated as .958. Finally, the Cronbach alpha was calculated .958 for listening, .912 for speaking, .947 for reading and .947 for writing. Moreover, the reliability of the whole test was calculated as .929 and this is applicable.

Table 8
Item-Total Statistics of Language Skills

<i>Item-Total Statistics of Listening skills</i>				
	<i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Corrected Item- Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
<i>Eng.Proficiency1</i>	24.67	78.782	.865	.962
<i>Eng.Proficiency2</i>	24.67	78.782	.865	.962
<i>Eng.Proficiency3</i>	25.00	73.655	.883	.954
<i>Eng.Proficiency4</i>	26.13	63.223	.959	.943
<i>Eng.Proficiency5</i>	26.73	58.823	.973	.943
<i>Eng.Proficiency6</i>	26.73	57.168	.965	.946
<i>Eng.Proficiency7</i>	26.87	58.395	.953	.946
<i>Item-Total Statistics of Speaking skills</i>				
	<i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha if tem Deleted</i>
<i>Eng.Proficiency8</i>	26.60	42.179	.609	.920
<i>Eng.Proficiency9</i>	26.63	40.930	.802	.911
<i>Eng.Proficiency10</i>	26.90	39.403	.832	.904
<i>Eng.Proficiency11</i>	27.80	35.131	.809	.893
<i>Eng.Proficiency12</i>	27.80	31.407	.872	.882
<i>Eng.Proficiency13</i>	28.73	26.685	.934	.879
<i>Eng.Proficiency14</i>	29.13	25.361	.933	.885
<i>Item-Total Statistics of Reading skills</i>				
	<i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
<i>Eng.Proficiency15</i> 18.50		17.569	.857	.935
<i>Eng.Proficiency16</i> 18.50		16.259	.936	.920
<i>Eng.Proficiency17</i> 19.47		14.120	.905	.934
<i>Eng.Proficiency18</i> 18.17		18.626	.808	.945
<i>Eng.Proficiency19</i> 18.17		17.592	.842	.938
<i>Item-Total Statistics of Writing skills</i>				
	<i>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</i>	<i>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
<i>Eng.Proficiency20</i>	24.83	23.040	.349	.947
<i>Eng.Proficiency21</i>	24.40	18.731	.922	.864
<i>Eng.Proficiency22</i>	23.83	21.454	.848	.885
<i>Eng.Proficiency23</i>	25.17	15.730	.859	.882
<i>Eng.Proficiency24</i>	24.03	20.378	.906	.874
<i>Eng. Proficiency 25</i>	24.07	20.064	.830	.880

3.9. Data Collection and Analysis

In data collection process, 400 questionnaires were distributed to instructors working at state and private universities in Turkey. Colleagues from different universities helped to the researcher for data collection and 374 of the questionnaires could be included to the study approximately in three months process. After data collection, SPSS and its canonical analysis feature were used for the statistical

analysis. The Confidence level of .05 (alpha.05) was used to determine statistical significance. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the part 2, 3 and 4 of the questionnaires. Data analyses involved factor analyses, frequencies, central tendency and variability measures. In order to analyze the relationship and interaction between different variables, canonical correlational statistics and Pearson correlation coefficient (r) were used when appropriate.

Twenty-five instructors were interviewed in the qualitative part of the study. Sessions were conducted in Turkish and comprehensibility of the questions was verified by the members of the dissertation committee. Before the interview sessions, the term self-efficacy and its dimensions were explained briefly and participants were also guided during the sessions. Sample guiding questions used in the interviews were as follows:

1. Why do you evaluate yourself as such?
2. Which of your teaching characteristics affected this grade?
3. Does your self-confidence level change in parallel with the strategy you adopted?
4. Which strategies increase your self-efficacy
5. Which strategies affect your self confidence in negative way?
6. Did your self-confidence change in time? If so, which factors have affected this change the most? If you had to put these factors in order, how would you order them?

While some thirteen of the interviews were conducted face to face, twelve of them were conducted on the phone. Sessions were recorded after the permission of the participant and lasted about 8 -10 minutes. After the process, the transcribed data were coded according to emergent themes. The chosen recurring themes were examined in relation to the research questions of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, data gathered through the questionnaire were presented and analyzed by adopting factor analysis and canonical correlation analysis.

4.2. Instructors' Personal and Professional Background

The questionnaire was applied at eight universities in seven cities and distribution of participants can be seen in table below.

Table 9
Distribution of Participants

		Frequency	Percent
University 1	Atılım	56	14.9
University 2	Bahçeşehir	93	24.8
University 3	Çanakkale	18	4.8
University 4	Hacettepe	69	18.4
University 5	Kırklareli	7	1.9
University 6	Namık Kemal	28	7.6
University 7	Trakya	12	3.2
University 8	Uludağ	91	24.4
	TOTAL	374	100.00

As it can be seen in the table, University 2 (U2) and University 8 (U8) have the greatest number of participants (24.8% and 24.4%) in this study. U2 is a private university located in İstanbul and U8 is a state university in Bursa. Both of the universities provide compulsory English classes for students. After that, U1 and U4

(14.9% and 18.4) are other two universities that have the greatest number of participants. Both of them are located in Ankara, and prep class is again compulsory. U6 (7.6%) is a state university in Tekirdağ and prep class is optional. U3 (4.8%), U5 (1.9%) and U7 (3.2) other state universities that are located in the western part of the country and prep class is not compulsory.

4.2.1. Gender

Table 10 demonstrates the gender distribution of the participants of the study. Female instructors (67%) doubled the number of male instructors (33%). It is obvious that the number of female instructors is often higher than the number of male instructors.

Table 10
Participants by Gender

	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>Male</i>	129	36.6
<i>Female</i>	245	63.3
	374	100.0

4.2.2. Experience in Teaching English

Participants reflected their teacher experience in year; under five groups given to them to browse. The most crowded group is 4- 6 years of experience which represented 33% of the total. The second highest number is (%23) for the participants who had 1-3 years of experience. These two groups represented approximately 57% of the total participants in the study. Instructors with 7-10 years teaching experience is the third group with 21% and those who have more than ten years made up 23% of the study.

Table 11
Participants by Teaching Experience

		<i>Frequenc y</i>	<i>Percen t</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Less than 1 year	19	4.8	4.9	4.9
	1-3 years	86	23.2	23.3	28.2
	4-6years	123	33.1	33.3	61.5
	7-10years	79	21.6	21.7	83.2
	More than 10 years	67	16.6	16.8	100.0

4.3. Instructors' Sense of Efficacy in Teaching English

This part introduces the findings regarding participants' current level of self-efficacy beliefs. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on 12 questions of the self-efficacy questionnaire to decrease them to a smaller set of derived and uncorrelated parts which could keep the greatest data in the original set of variables. PCA was additionally performed so as to have a correlation between the removed factors of this study and the original TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Afterward, the factors derived were named and the component scores were calculated. The scores demonstrated instructors' self-efficacy in each factor. The component scores were used to analyze the correlations with other variables in the research such as instructors' background characteristics, proficiency level and teaching strategies.

Mean and standard deviation of the items are demonstrated in Table 12 In light of the means, it is obvious that the participants evaluated their self-efficacy quite high. While the lowest mean value of the 12 items was 7.02 (items 9 and 12), the highest value is 7.66 (item 8), which implied that their self-efficacy level was high. It may also be implied that English instructors were less sure about the tasks related to English teaching strategies but they are more confident in classroom management.

Table 12
Mean and Standard Deviation of the Self-Efficacy Items

<i>Self-Efficacy Items</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in your English class?	7.41	1.501
2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?	7.20	1.614
3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in English?	7.03	1.799
4. How much can you do to help your students value learning English?	7.27	1.584
5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7.20	1.747
6. How much can you do to get students to follow classroom rules in your English class?	7.56	1.600
7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy in your English class?	7.54	1.549
8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students in your English class?	7.66	1.548
9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies in your English class?	7.02	1.874
10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when your English students are confused?	7.18	1.917
11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English?	7.34	1.236
12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your English classroom?	7.02	1.927
1 = Nothing/not at all, 3 = Very little, 5 = Some influence, 7 = Quite a bit, and 9 = A great deal		

Qualitative results are also consistent with the quantitative results above. Explanation of one participant who rated her self-efficacy as 9 out of 9 was as follows:

I don't want to be too modest because I graduated from one of the well-known universities in Turkey. I also have seven years of experience at university setting, I took part in many seminars, in-service training sessions and I am still doing my MA to improve myself. During the first years of my career, I had a problem in speaking fluently in the classroom because I worked at primary school for two years without speaking English in the classroom. But now I am a fluent speaker and experienced in teaching different levels from elementary to intermediate.

The correlations among the items are presented in Table 13 The matrix revealed that the correlation was quite high and many items were correlated with each other. Majority of the loadings were higher than .60.

Table 13
Correlation Matrix of the Self-Efficacy Items

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

4.3.1. Level of English Teacher Efficacy Dimensions

In this part, the average value of each part was calculated to search instructors' self-efficacy level (Table 14). The mean score of the individual components was calculated by first including the value of items which loaded on the component and then dividing the total score by the number of the items.

Results indicate that participants evaluated their self-efficacy at a very high level in the three sub-categories of student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. While instructors felt increasingly positive about classroom management ($M = 7.54$), they feel less confident in student engagement. ($M = 7.10$).

Table 14
Means and Standard Deviation of Teacher Efficacy in Teaching English

	Mean	STD
<i>Student Engagement</i>	7.21	1.558
<i>Classroom Management</i>	7.54	1.550
<i>Instructional Strategies</i>	7.10	1.870

During the interview, participant 8 complained about student engagement as follows:

I always try to do my best but seeing students just looking at you without any interest is really disappointing and frustrating. I try to ignore most of the time but what can I do if a class mostly consists of those kinds of students?

Besides, Cronbach reliability coefficient was .96 for instructional strategies, .95 for student engagement and again .95 for instructional strategies in this study. These scores reveal that reliability of self-efficacy questionnaire was quite high.

Other than that, inter-item correlation of the self-efficacy items for each subcategory was also calculated and results show that there is a high correlation in subcategories of student engagement.

Table 15
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Self-Efficacy Dimensions

<i>Student Engagement</i>				
	Self.efficacy.2	Self.efficacy.3	Self.efficacy.4	Self.efficacy.11
elf.efficacy.2	1.000			
elf.efficacy.3	.878	1.000		
elf.efficacy.4	.860	.918	1.000	
elf.efficacy.11	.806	.834	.840	1.000
<i>Classroom management</i>				
	Self.efficacy.1	Self.efficacy.6	Self.efficacy.7	Self.efficacy.8
Self.efficacy.1	1.000			
Self.efficacy.6	.915	1.000		
Self.efficacy.7	.920	.885	1.000	
Self.efficacy.8	.746	.812	.771	1.000
<i>Instructional strategies</i>				
	Self.efficacy.5	Self.efficacy.9	Self.efficacy.10	Self.efficacy.12
Self.efficacy.5	1.000			
Self.efficacy.9	.865	1.000		
Self.efficacy.10	.838	.905	1.000	
Self.efficacy.12	.833	.917	.935	1.000

In the meantime, correlation among three subcategories of instructional strategy, classroom management and student engagement was also checked. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .956 which can be considered as significant and high (Table 15). Thus, it may be suggested that all the three sub-categories of self-efficacy are correlated and the whole test is reliable in measuring instructors' self-efficacy beliefs.

Table 16
Reliability Statistics of Self-Efficacy Beliefs

<i>Cronbach's Alpha Items</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized</i>
.956	.960

Next, all three subcategories of self-efficacy were analyzed and high correlation was found among them. The highest correlation was found between self-efficacy and instructional strategy dimensions.

Table 17
Correlations among Dimensions of Self-Efficacy

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

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

4.3.2. Summary of Instructors' Sense of Efficacy in Teaching English

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted on the self-efficacy items to make them smaller set of derived components including the maximum information. Thus, similar to previous studies (Chacón, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). “*student engagement, classroom management and teaching strategies*” were extracted as three components.

With respect to the mentioned three dimensions, PCA results of this study showed that TSES factor structure was consistent with other studies which were conducted before. Although some small changes were made all of 12 items of the TSES were loaded on the same factors with previously conducted studies (Chacón, 2002, 2005; Lee, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Participants in this study evaluated their self-efficacy at quite high level in every one of the three sub-categories of student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. This implied that instructors had a noteworthy effect in these three dimensions. While classroom management is the category in which instructors

reported themselves more efficacious ($M = 7.54$), they felt least positive about using instructional strategies ($M = 7.10$)

4.4. Language Proficiency Level Variables

In this part, instructors' own evaluation on their language proficiency level is examined. Instrument developed by Chacon (2005) was adapted to fit into English language teaching context.

4.4.1. Mean and Standard Deviation of the Language Skills

In the third part of the questionnaire, the participants evaluated their language proficiency levels on a 6-point Likert scale range from "Strongly Agree" (6) to "Strongly Disagree" (1). If participants rate higher, it means that they would be more proficient in for main language skills. Table 18 presents means and standard deviations for the 25 items.

Table 18
Mean and Standard Deviation of English Proficiency Items

English Skills	Mean	SD
Listening:		
3. I can understand a message in English on an answering machine.	5.11	1.02
2. In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as ickly as he or she would do to another native speaker.	3.97	1.59
3. I understand movies without subtitles.	3.37	1.85
4. I understand news broadcasts on American television.	3.38	1.98
5. I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.	3.24	1.90
Speaking:		
9. I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.	5.63	0.48
10. I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.	5.35	0.61
11. I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution).	4.45	1.02
12. I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics.	4.43	1.32
13. In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed.	3.50	1.68
14. I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.	3.10	1.81

Table 18

(continue) Mean and Standard Deviation of English Proficiency Items

Reading :		
15. I can read and understand magazine articles, such as Time and Newsweek, without using a dictionary.	4.70	0.99
16. I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary.	4.68	1.09
17. I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use or only very infrequent use of a dictionary.	3.70	1.41
18. I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.	5.02	0.93
19. I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context.	5.02	1.03
Writing:		
21. Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English.	4.86	1.02
22. I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).	5.44	0.76
23. I can write short research papers.	4.09	1.46
24. I can select proper words in writing.	5.22	0.84
25. I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.	5.19	0.94

For reading proficiency, it was reported by the instructors that reading advanced technical materials without using dictionary is the most difficult task for them (Mean = 3.70). However, guessing meaning of unknown words from the context and making inferences from the text were the aspects that instructors feel more confident (Mean = 5.02).

In writing proficiency, while instructors do not feel efficient in writing short research papers (Mean = 4.09), they find themselves very successful in filling out forms such as applications etc. (Mean = 5.44.)

For listening proficiency, instructors feel less proficient to catch up while a native speaker is talking (Mean = 3.24), but they feel more confident in understanding a phone message (Mean = 5.11).

Regarding speaking proficiency, while instructors evaluated themselves less proficient in giving lectures fluently (Mean = 3.10), they rarely have problems in talking about their hobbies and job (Mean = 5.63).

Table 19

Mean and Standard Deviation of English Language Proficiency

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

Table 19 demonstrates that participants' score in listening skills is more mixed ($SD = 8.11$) which means that there are significant differences between participants' listening proficiency level. However, variety of scores is lower in reading ($SD = 5.03$), writing ($SD = 4.0$) and speaking ($SD = 6.40$) and these results indicate that instructors are relatively more confident in these skills.

In light of the Mean/Max value, it can be suggested that instructors have higher writing skills (.82) and lower listening skills (.63). These results are also supported by qualitative data. Participant 19 complained about her inadequacy in certain skills especially in initial years of her career.

To be honest, especially in my first years, I needed to listen to the texts beforehand several times because I had difficulty in understanding fast speakers. Some texts were really too fast to catch.

Besides, participant 2 who has been teaching five years also complained about the same problem.

I am self-confident about my teaching, but I still know that I have two main weaknesses. I am not a native speaker of English and there are times I cannot speak fluently. In addition, I sometimes have difficulty in catching up certain points in listening texts.

Thus, it may be possible to array participants' language skills from the strongest to the weakest as writing, reading, speaking and listening.

4.4.2. Correlation Coefficient on Each Language Skill Domain

In piloting process, Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were calculated again and results were significant for the four skills (Reading .946, Writing .946, listening .973 and speaking .921) which confirms the reliability of language proficiency questionnaire.

Moreover, inter-item correlation of the language proficiency items for four skills was also calculated. As table 20 shows, there is high correlation among listening skills items (.83). Regarding speaking skill items, all correlations are also high and

significant. Correlation among reading proficiency items are all above .65 which can be considered as significant. Lastly, correlation matrix of the writing proficiency demonstrates that all the correlations are high and significant.

Table 20
Inter- Item Correlation Matrix of Language Skills

Listening						
	Eng. Pro 3	Eng. Pro 4	Eng. Pro 5	Eng. Pro 6	Eng. Pro 7	
Eng.Proficiency3	1.000					
Eng.Proficiency4	.880	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency5	.851	.959	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency6	.830	.931	.973	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency7	.836	.941	.964	.956	1.000	
Speaking						
	Eng. Pro 9	Eng. Pro 10	Eng. Pro 11	Eng. Pro 12	Eng. Pro 13	Eng. Pro 14
Eng.Proficiency9	1.000					
Eng.Proficiency10	.686	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency11	.681	.755	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency12	.740	.760	.764	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency13	.727	.791	.786	.857	1.000	
Eng.Proficiency14	.735	.806	.760	.843	.963	1.000
Reading						
Eng. Pro 15		Eng. Pro 16	Eng. Pro 17	Eng. Pro 18	Eng. Pro 19	
Eng.Proficiency15	1.000					
Eng.Proficiency16	.909	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency17	.853	.934	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency18	.659	.735	.721	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency19	.692	.780	.766	.902	1.000	
Writing						
Eng. Pro 21		Eng. Pro 22	Eng. Pro 23	Eng. Pro 24	Eng. Pro 25	
Eng.Proficiency21	1.000					
Eng.Proficiency22	.886	1.000				
Eng.Proficiency23	.865	.821	1.000			
Eng.Proficiency24	.884	.824	.861	1.000		
Eng.Proficiency25	.816	.751	.794	.856	1.000	

Apart from that, correlation among four skills was also checked. As Table 27 presents, The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 and all the skills are highly correlated. Thus, the whole test is reliable in measuring English language skills.

Table 21
Reliability Statistics of English Language Proficiency Skills

<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha Based on Standardized Items</i>
.961	.978

Table 22 presents to what extent four skills are correlated and results are significant.

Table 22
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Language Skills

	<i>Listening. Score</i>	<i>Speaking. Score</i>	<i>Reading . Score</i>	<i>Writing. Score</i>
<i>Listening.Score</i>	1.000			
<i>Speaking.Score</i>	.925	1.000		
<i>Reading.Score</i>	.927	.947	1.000	
<i>Writing.Score</i>	.924	.868	.913	1.000

4.4.3. Summary of Instructors' Proficiency Variables

In this part, frequency and percentage of responses for language proficiency items were presented in tables. Participants of the study evaluated their reading and writing skills proficiency higher than their listening and speaking proficiency. Results also indicated that variety of scores of listening skill was higher than any other skills which affected range of scores correspondingly. In addition, the Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were calculated for reading (.94), writing (.94) listening (.97), speaking (.92) which was significant and acceptable. The reliability coefficient for the whole test as .96 and it proved the reliability of the measure.

4.4.4. Instructional Strategies Related Variables

This part presents what instructors' report on their usage of teaching strategies in the classroom through the results of 40 Likert-type items. The questionnaire developed by Moe et al. (2010) was adapted by adding some items regarding instructional strategies in EFL context. Before the main study, a pilot study was conducted to check the reliability and 40 Likert type items were used.

4.4.5. Mean and Standard Deviation of Instructional Strategy Items

In this part, instructors evaluated their use of instructional strategies from “Almost Never” (1) to “Almost Always” (5). Strategies were divided into two categories as ‘communicative strategies’ and ‘mechanical strategies’.

Table 23 presents means and standard deviations of the items in mechanical category of the instructional strategy part. Results show that most of participants have a tendency to write down rules and formulas on the blackboard (Mean = 4.53). It is surprising that most of the universities where the questionnaires were conducted provide smart board in classrooms but traditional board using is still the most frequent strategy. On the other hand, listing the topics that must be taught at the beginning of the lesson was the least frequent strategy (Mean = 3.48).

Table 23
Mechanical Instructional Strategies

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

Results of communicative strategies part reveal that most of participants believe in the necessity of addressing students’ real needs and basing on experiences for effective teaching (Mean= 4.47). They also tend to foster student interaction frequently. (Mean = 4.38). However, fostering students’ talking about the experiences they have had that day in class is not preferred by instructors very often (Mean = 3.22).

Table 24
Communicative Instructional Strategies

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

Means of communicative and mechanical teaching strategies were compared to each other through paired Sample t-test in order to check whether there is any difference in the mean frequencies of them.

Table 25
Paired Samples t-Test

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	Sig. (2- tailed)
<i>Com</i>	3.8470	1.03687	.07582	-.09649		
<i>Mechl</i>	3.9435	.81782	.05980		-3.865	<.001

Table 25 demonstrates the mean differences of mechanical and communicative strategies and the difference is really significant ($t = -3.865$; $p < .001$). When all the data examined, the mean of mechanical teaching strategies was (Mean = 3.94) higher than communicative teaching strategies (Mean = 3.84) which proves that teachers tend to use mechanical strategies more frequently.

In interview sessions, participant 11 implied that students' proficiency level and attitudes towards class make instructors use mechanical strategies more frequently

My institution always forces us to use communicative strategies in classroom. There are numerous in-service training sessions, rich sources, interactive classrooms etc. We have everything except for students whom I can implement these communicative strategies on.

As it can be implied from the quotation, employing communicative instructional strategies may be difficult especially at lower levels. Sometimes instructors insist on using these strategies graciously but their efforts turned into disappointment, frustration and burnout. Thus, this situation may affect their self-efficacy in negative way.

4.4.6. Correlation Coefficient of Teaching Strategy Items

Cronbach reliability coefficients of the scales were .954 for mechanical and .988 for communicative part. The result was significant and favorable; therefore, instructional strategy part of the questionnaire is a reliable measurement.

Table 26
Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Mechanical Instructional Strategies

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

Apart from that, inter-item correlation of the instructional strategy items for mechanical and communicative categories was calculated and presented in Table 26. Magnitude of correlations ranged from low to high. Magnitude of items 3 and 16 were .20 and this shows that there is a low correlation; whereas items 12 and 26 have the highest correlation with the magnitude .90.

Correlation among all items was also checked. As table 27 shows, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .989 and this proves the reliability of the instrument also.

Table 27
Reliability Statistics

<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha Based on Standardized Items</i>
.989	.989

Correlation between the two categories of communicative and mechanical was also checked. Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 which is significant and considered high.

Table 28

Correlations between Mechanical and Communicative Teaching Strategies

	Mechanical	Communicative
Mechanical	1	
Communicative	.960 **	1

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

4.4.7. Frequency and Percentage on Each Instructional Strategy Items

Regarding mechanical strategies, results show that using the board is very crucial for 64% of instructors. Subsequent to using board, drawing a graph, outline or table on the blackboard based on the reading topics in the book are some of the most preferred strategies in the classroom. On the other hand, only 22% of instructors asked students to write down the keywords of the described topics. In addition, only 10% of instructors almost never ask students to summarize main points orally or in writing at the end of the explanation and only 11% of the never list the topics that should be thought at the beginning of the lesson.

Table 29

Frequencies and Percentage on Each Item of Mechanical Instructional Strategies

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

Results for the communicative strategies are presented in Table 30 and 62% of instructors emphasize students' interaction and 60% of them reported that they encourage students almost always work together in groups of two or three. However, the proportion of teachers who invite students to talk about their own experience is only 13% and inviting students to talk about how they felt during the lesson was only 17%.

Table 30
Frequencies and Percentage on Each Item of Communicative Instructional Strategies

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

4.5. Relationship between Instructors' Background Language Proficiency Level and Their Self-Efficacy Level

This part investigates the interaction between instructors' self-efficacy level and its relationship with their background and language proficiency. For this part, correlation $r = .70$ or higher will be considered as high, correlation between $.50$ and $.69$ will be considered as substantial correlation, correlation between $.30$ and $.49$ will be moderate and correlation from $.10$ to $.29$ will be considered as low, $.01$ to $.09$ will be negligible correlation (based on Lee, 2009).

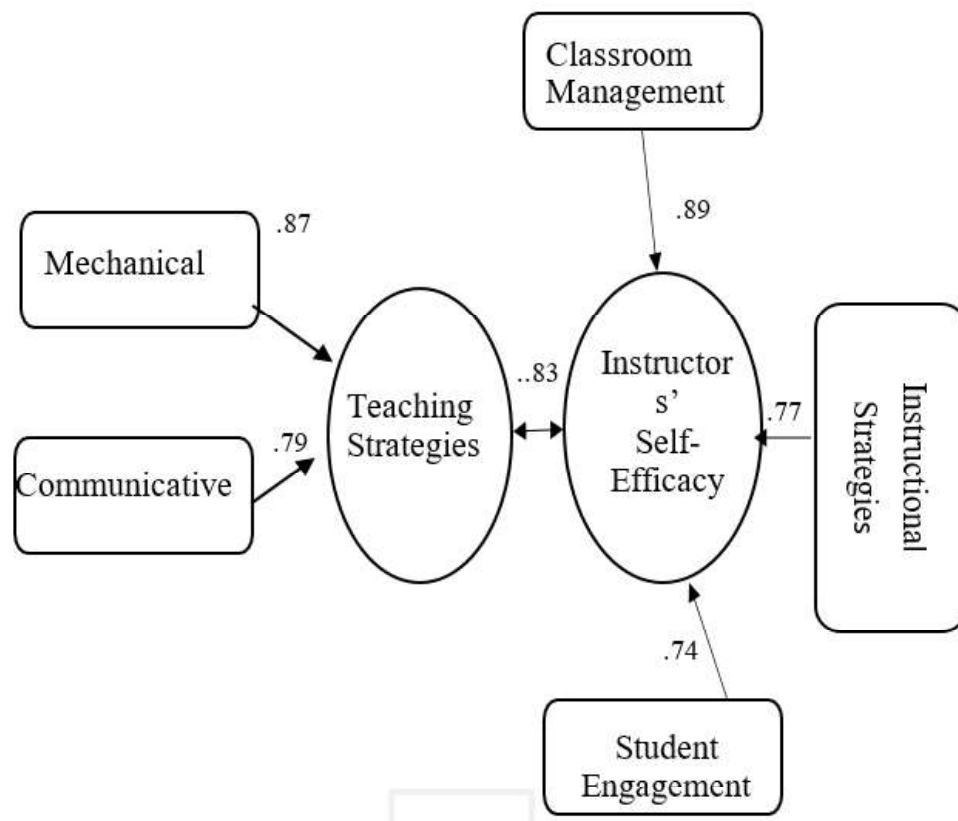


Figure 4. Canonical Analysis of the Relationship between Instructors' Self-Efficacy and Their Language Proficiency and Background

Canonical analysis was performed in order to see the relationship between instructors' language proficiency, background and their self-efficacy level. The set of language proficiency and background involved listening, speaking, reading, writing, gender and experience while the self-efficacy set included classroom

management, instructional strategies and student engagement. The results indicated that gender had a loading below the cutoff value of .30 which implied that there was no significant relationship between instructors' gender and their self-efficacy level. However, during interview sessions, participant 4 who is an experience female instructor claimed that gender influences self-efficacy especially in terms of classroom management.

I think it makes a difference in feeling of self-efficacy. The students' attitude towards male and female instructors can be different. They are more controlled towards our male colleagues. I think it is not the same for female teachers. They approach us more like a mother or older sister and it could be really difficult in terms of classroom management.

On the other hand, all categories of language proficiency and experience accounted for a meaningful overlapping variance which meant that they were all significantly associated with all three dimensions of self-efficacy. Figure 4 illustrates the loadings and canonical correlations for the first canonical variate pair between instructors' language proficiency, background and their self-efficacy level.

Moreover, correlation tests were also conducted to see the detailed inter-relationships between each sub-category of variables (Table 26). The results indicated that among the three sub-categories of self-efficacy, there was a very strong relationship between four language skills and student engagement category of self-efficacy. Experience also showed a strong correlation with student engagement category again and gender did not have any significant relationship between any of self-efficacy categories.

Regarding the relationship between four skills of language proficiency, it is obvious that all skills had a quite high correlation with each other and the strongest correlation was found between listening and speaking.

Table 31
Inter-Relationships Among the Variables of the Study

	<i>L</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>W</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>CM</i>	<i>TS</i>
<i>Listening</i>	1.000						
<i>Speaking</i>	.945	1.000					
<i>Reading</i>	.927	.947	1.000				
<i>Writing</i>	.924	.868	.913	1.000			
<i>Gender</i>	-.243	-.201	-.231	-.298	-.273	-.343	-.486
<i>Experience</i>	.865	.881	.793	.751	.834	.766	.757
<i>Student Engagement</i>	.842	.916	.811	.916	1.000		
<i>Classroom Man.</i>	.816	.826	.800	.880	.880	1.000	
<i>Teaching Strategy</i>	.798	.779	.815	.898	.905	.883	1.000

L = Listening, S = Speaking, R = Reading, W = Writing SE = Student Engagement, CM = Classroom Management, TS = Instructional Strategies

4.6. Relationship Between Instructors' Teaching Strategies and Their Self-Efficacy

In this part, canonical correlation analysis was again performed to investigate the relationship between two set of variables including teaching strategies and self-efficacy.

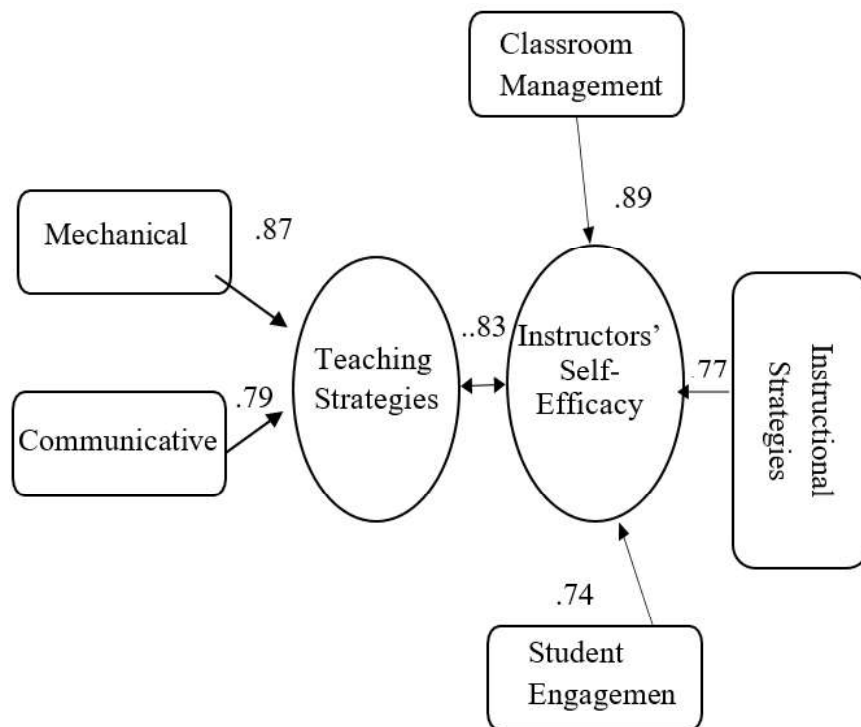


Figure 5. Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Teaching Strategies

The first set of teaching strategies involved mechanical and communicative strategies while the second set self- efficacy included its three sub-categories of classroom management, student engagement and instructional strategies. The results indicated that the correlation between the variates in the first set accounted for a meaningful variance, which meant that both communicative and mechanical teaching strategies influence instructors' self-efficacy.

In addition, inter-relationships between subcategories of each variable were also examined in detail.

Table 32
Inter-Relationships among the Variables of the Study

	<i>ME</i>	<i>CO</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>CM</i>	<i>IS</i>
<i>Mechanical</i>	1.000				
<i>Communicative</i>	.960	1.000			
<i>Student Engagement</i>	.801	.830	1.000		
<i>Classroom Management</i>	.797	.816	.880	1.000	
<i>Instructional Strategy</i>	.791	.793	.905	.883	1.000

Results in table 32 demonstrates that the highest correlation was between communicative teaching strategies and student engagement sub- category of self-efficacy. Results for correlation between instructional strategy and both mechanical and communicative teaching strategies were nearly same. These results implied that both mechanical and communicative teaching strategies influence instructional strategy dimension of self-efficacy. Although it was still very high, the weakest relationship was between mechanical teaching strategies and instructional strategy. This result is understandable since communicative strategies are supposed to be more effective in attracting students. In addition, there is a higher relationship between dimensions of instructional strategies with student engagement than with classroom management and instructional strategy.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

Findings of quantitative data analysis were reported in the previous chapter. In Chapter 5, summaries and discussion of the findings with the integration of qualitative data results, implications and recommendations for further research will be presented.

5.2. Summary of the Findings and Discussion

This study is based on the theoretical framework of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) teachers' sense of efficacy and investigated university prep school instructors' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English. Factors such as instructors' background, proficiency level and teaching strategies used in the classrooms were also examined in order to investigate how they can influence instructors' self-efficacy beliefs.

In this part, findings regarding research questions will be provided and discussed within theoretical and practical perspective.

5.3. Research Question 1

How do instructors evaluate themselves on

- a. their current level of self-efficacy beliefs?
- b. their English proficiency levels?
- c. the way they use teaching strategies?

5.3.1. Instructors' Evaluation on their Current Level of Self Efficacy Beliefs

In addition to self-efficacy scale in the questionnaire, participants were also asked to evaluate themselves on a scale from 1 to 9 and provide their reasons in semi-structured interview sessions. Results show that participants evaluated their self-efficacy at a quite high level. They reported themselves to be efficacious in all three dimensions of student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. Results reveal that instructors felt more efficacious in classroom management ($M = 7.54$) than in other dimensions. Although it was still not too low, they felt less confident in instructional strategies ($M = 7.10$) than in the other dimensions.

Qualitative results are also consistent with the quantitative results since almost all of the interviewees reported themselves as highly efficacious. Only one participant rated herself as 6 out of 9 and all of others rated themselves 7 and higher. Participants who rated themselves with a high level of self-efficacy often attributed this perception to being experienced, using variety of teaching strategies and having a high level of language proficiency. This can be an expected result since instructors working at university level are required to have higher level of teaching skills. There is a demanding and competitive atmosphere, and instructors are employed after a series of challenging exam processes

When compared to other studies which used the same scale, self-efficacy levels of participants of this study were higher. In Chacon's study (2005), Venezuelan middle school English teachers' self-efficacy was $M = 6.59$ for student engagement $M = 7.13$ for instructional strategies; $M = 7.00$ for classroom management. Lee (2009) found lower results in correlation with the others. Participants in her study rated their self-efficacy at the "some influence" level ($M = 5.53$ for student engagement; $M = 5.70$ for classroom management; $M = 5.36$ for instructional strategies). Furthermore, in their non-subject specific approach, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) have reported similar degrees with Chacon's (2005) and Lee's (2009) studies of self-efficacy beliefs.

When three dimensions of self-efficacy considered in detail, instructors evaluated themselves more efficacious in classroom management whereas they feel less efficient in students' engagement. Especially with lower level students, it is often difficult to make students participate in the lessons and this causes loss of confidence for instructors. Findings of classroom management dimension of this study are also parallel with previous studies carried out by Taşer (2015), Solar-Şekerci (2011) and Yavuz (2005). They also found that instructors' self-efficacy level in all three dimensions are high but classroom management is the highest. Yavuz (2007) carried out a study with 234 instructors working at university prep schools and found low values for student engagement dimension of self-efficacy. Taşer (2015) conducted a similar study with 434 participants working at preparatory schools of private and state universities of Turkey and also found the same results. She argues that this could be the result of tight schedules, standardized test and diverse student levels as it was also mentioned in the qualitative part of this study.

However, in Chacon's (2005) study, teachers reported themselves more efficacious in instructional strategies than classroom management and student engagement. The reason of this inconsistency could be related to contextual factors since Chacon's (2005) study was conducted among middle school teachers in Venezuela. However, there is still one common point in all the mentioned studies that student engagement dimension of self-efficacy ranked the lowest among all three dimensions. This low ranking can be explained with the perception that student engagement is a more

difficult task for instructors and there is a need to a process in which strategies are discovered to improve this skill.

Interview sessions conducted with the participants could provide some reasons why student engagement is the most problematic dimension of instructors' self-efficacy. During interviews, participants often complained about students' low motivation and unwillingness to participate.

It can be implied that student engagement is problematic because it is the most student-based dimension of self- efficacy. Classroom management and instructional strategy dimensions are more related to instructors themselves; however, factors such as student participation and motivation are more directly related to students' attitudes and this may be the reason of fragility of instructors' self- efficacy in terms student engagement. As Tschannen Moran & Hoy (2007) assert, student engagement is a more advanced task for teachers and it develops gradually through the discovery of strategies that may improve this skill.

5.3.2. Instructors' Evaluation on their Proficiency Level

Self-assessment survey was conducted to investigate instructors' proficiency levels and results reveal that instructors' writing proficiency levels were higher comparatively. Results revealed that instructors' language skills can be ranged from the strongest to the weakest as writing (.82), reading (.77), speaking (.73) and listening (.63).

This outcome is consistent with Cummins' (1980) Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) which can be defined as a type of language proficiency necessary for participating in a dialogue or debate, responding to writing texts and reading textbooks. CALP is based on oral explanation of abstract or decontextualized ideas such as textbook reading assignments or classroom lectures.

In the same way, Chacon (2002) also found that teachers' evaluation of themselves were lower in listening and speaking comparatively. Moreover, she found a positive

correlation between personal teaching efficacy and speaking and listening which meant that teachers with higher level of proficiency skills had also higher sense of efficacy. On the other hand, when Lee's (2009) findings are not totally consistent with it. She found that teachers' proficiency levels in receptive skills of listening and reading were higher than productive skills of speaking and writing. In addition, Park (2006) also investigated Korean secondary English teachers' proficiency and found that their receptive skills were higher than their productive skills.

Qualitative results also concur with the quantitative results since many participants complained about their inadequacy especially in listening and speaking skills. During interview sessions, participants often reported that reading and writing are the skills that they did not have any difficulty in teaching. However, many of them denied that they had serious problems in fluency, accuracy and pronunciation. Some participants claimed that they have improved these skills in during their classroom practices.

One potential reason for why instructors have lower proficiency level in listening and speaking skills can be instructors' educational background. Although they had intensive courses on listening and speaking during their university education, they came to university level with low levels of listening and speaking skills. In spite of recent progress in language teaching practices in Turkey, there is still dominance of grammar and reading comprehension. It is not an easy task to improve speaking and listening skills dramatically after a certain point in language learning journey. Furthermore, in EFL setting, both students and instructors have too limited opportunities to practice and improve their listening and speaking skills out of the classroom.

5.3.3. Instructors' Evaluation on their Using Teaching Strategies

After comparing mechanical and communicative teaching strategies, a significant difference between both types were found. While the mean of mechanical strategies was 3.94, the mean of communicative strategies was 3.83 which indicated that instructors tend to employ mechanical strategies more frequently in their

classrooms. On the other hand, when qualitative data results are examined, it is not possible to observe such a difference between mechanical and communicative strategies. In other words, in quantitative data collection tools, instructors reported themselves have a tendency to use mechanical strategies more frequently; whereas they did not confirm it in interview sessions and they claimed that they try to use communicative strategies as much as possible. The reason behind this could be the ideal teaching in participants' minds and the reality that they had to face off in classrooms. As it was mentioned before, university settings are competitive working environments and there may be pressure on instructors. In quantitative part, they could feel safer but it might be more difficult and riskier to express their real classroom experiences orally. Moreover, most of participants complained about students' insufficient proficiency level and motivation in classroom and this could prevent them from employing communicative strategies in the classroom.

5.4. Research Question 2

What is the relationship between prep school instructors' self- efficacy level and

- a. their language proficiency level,
- b. their use of teaching strategies, and
- c. their background characteristics?

5.4.1. Instructors' Self-Efficacy and Their Language Proficiency Level

It can be deduced from the results that all dimensions of instructors' self-efficacy were highly related to their English proficiency. This result is consistent with the literature which sees perceived language proficiency as significant for nonnative teachers and it has an important effect on their self-efficacy (Chacón, 2002, 2005, Kim, 2001; Lee, 2009; Shim, 2001).

Although all of the relationships are significant, the strongest relationship was found between English proficiency level and student engagement dimension of self-

efficacy. The relationship between proficiency level and classroom management dimension was $r=.810$ to $.880$ and lowest relationship was between proficiency level instructional strategy= $.780$ to $.896$. Results indicate that instructors having sufficient proficiency level believed they managed to achieve tasks related to student engagement more than tasks related to classroom management and instructional strategy.

These findings are understandable for the context of this study since tasks on student engagement are language specific as is the case with instructional strategies. Qualitative results also showed that in some institutions, prep school instructors are strictly warned about not using native language in classrooms and instructors may not be able to increase student motivation without using native language or deal with disruptive student behaviors.

In brief, results of the research show significant relationship with previous studies on English teacher efficacy and high level of English proficiency is supposed to result in high level of teacher efficacy in teaching English.

5.4.2. Instructors' Self-Efficacy and Their Use of Teaching Strategies

Results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between three sub-dimensions of self-efficacy and two dimensions of teaching strategies. This result is also consistent with Bandura's self-efficacy theory which claims that feeling of self-efficacy is correspondingly determined for it influences instructors' behavior and pedagogical actions as well as their sense of the consequences of such actions.

The strongest relationship was found between communicative teaching strategies and student engagement ($r=.830$). Although it was still high, the weakest relationship was between mechanical teaching strategies and instructional strategy ($r=.790$). In other words, instructors who are more successful in engaging students employed communicative strategies more frequently than mechanical strategies. It

is also suggested in the literature that communicative strategies could be more efficient in engaging students.

Moreover, there was a stronger relationship between teaching strategy and student engagement dimensions ($r=.802, .830$) than classroom management ($r=.790$ to $.796$) and instructional strategy ($r=.797$ to $.816$). Qualitative results also show that instructors who can apply either mechanical or communicative teaching strategies are able to achieve tasks related to student engagement more than instructional strategy and classroom management. In brief, there were high correlations between the two dimensions of teaching strategies and three dimensions of self-efficacy.

5.4.3. Instructors' Self-Efficacy and Their Background Characteristics

Quantitative results showed that the relationship between gender and self-efficacy is not significant. On the other hand, in interview sessions male instructors reported themselves more efficacious in all three categories of self-efficacy and felt more confident in classroom management than female instructors.

However, Chacon's (2002) and Lee's (2009) studies did not find a significant correlation between gender and self-efficacy. Nevertheless, Lee's study was conducted in Korean public elementary schools and Chacon's study was conducted in middle schools in Venezuela. Thus, contextual factors may be the reason of this difference.

Teaching experience had also very high and positive relationships with all three dimensions of self-efficacy which implied that experienced instructors reported themselves to be more confident in student engagement ($r = .834, p < .001$); in applying instructional strategies ($r = .834, p < .001$) and in classroom management ($r = .844, p < .001$). Although Lee did not find any significant relationship, Chacon's (2005) findings were consistent with the results above. Qualitative results also confirm that experience is the best teacher for instructors since they may be able to learn how to use put their theoretical knowledge into practice through experience. Some participants often emphasized that they couldn't do anything without looking

the answer key or coursebook in initial years of their career but they now they have a map in their minds which provides them everything necessary to conduct a successful class.

5.5. Implications of the Study

In this section, the implications based on the findings of the study will be discussed. The findings of the study may provide significant insights into the influence of language proficiency and teaching strategies on instructors' self-efficacy perceptions.

First of all, this study presents evidence for Bandura's self-efficacy theory, Gagne's theory of instruction, and Canale and Swain's Communicative competence theory and their point of view to teacher's self-efficacy in teaching English in EFL setting which asserts teaching strategies and language proficiency have important impact on teacher's self-efficacy beliefs. The participants of the study evaluated their self-efficacy at a very high level. Their perception of efficacy in classroom management and student engagement was higher than for instructional strategies. Participants' relatively low confidence in applying teaching tasks regarding instructional strategies in an English class shows that instructors should be supported in improvement.

The results also show that instructors' efficacy levels were higher than the previous well-known studies in this field such as Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's TSES (2001). It may be implied that instructors feel more efficacious in EFL university setting. As it was suggested in the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002), the beliefs that individuals have in order to achieve a task can influence how they perform much better than what they really accomplish. This has also been confirmed in the field of education based on the research on teacher self-efficacy and it was suggested that teacher's self-efficacy had strong effect on various aspects of language teaching and learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006).

This study suggests that instructors' English proficiency level and teaching strategies used in the classrooms (mechanical and communicative) have strong influence on their self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, instructors' confidence in teaching English may be improved by improving their language proficiency and by helping them to apply various teaching strategies more effectively. This also confirms the theoretical framework of this study, which presupposed that teaching strategy and language proficiency would have strong influence on instructors' self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, if instructors' language proficiency and use of teaching strategies are improved, their self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English may also increase.

Based on all these results on self-efficacy, it is necessary to help instructors to have positive beliefs about their ability to teach English in the EFL university prep school settings. Instructors' high self-efficacy levels in this study is worthy but there may still be a need for more improvements.

5.6. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Studies

Adopting mixed method design, this study has investigated university prep school instructors' self-efficacy, level of proficiency in English and perceived use of teaching strategies. The study also examined the relationship between instructors' self-efficacy with factors including their background characteristics, English language proficiency level, and their use of teaching strategies.

Some limitations have been identified in this research. First of all, the participants of this study were only instructors working at 8 different universities in 7 cities in turkey. A nation-wide study can be conducted to have a broader perspective on university prep-school instructors' self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, this study was mainly based on participants' self-reported evaluation on their levels of self-efficacy, language proficiency and teaching strategies adopted in the classrooms. Thus, only participants' self-reported evaluations on their language proficiency was taken into consideration and the actual level of their proficiency was not checked. Further studies can apply a proficiency exam and measure the real level of teacher

proficiency and compare the results. Third, the participants of this study self-reported the types of strategies they applied in their classrooms. Further studies may observe the classes and investigate how and to what extent instructors are employing the strategies they reported in their classrooms and check whether any difference exists between instructors' perceptions and their actual practice in the classrooms. Besides, conducting a confirmatory factor analysis could be more useful in further research since it could not be applied in this study due to the large sample size.

This study may also give some directions for future research. As it has been suggested in the literature, teachers' efficacy belief is a multifaceted concept that varies in different tasks and contexts of teaching. Further studies need to be conducted to investigate teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in different contexts. Besides, additional studies focusing on teachers' perspectives can be conducted to find out how self-efficacy beliefs influence their teaching. In-class observations may be used as another source of data to examine instructors' self-efficacy level and its effects on their teaching performance.

Further research is necessary to find out how teacher self-efficacy belief is formed (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). In this study, it was found that instructors' language proficiency and teaching strategies significantly influenced their self-efficacy level. However, how these two dimensions influenced instructors' self-efficacy has remained unanswered. In future research, mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological may be examined in detail as four sources of efficacy beliefs (Labone, 2004).

Results of the study indicated that participants reported more use of mechanical teaching strategies than the communicative ones. This should be considered by prep school managements. Participants have tendency to employ mechanical strategies more frequently than communicative strategies, although students' main aim for attending the prep school is to be equipped with communicative skills in so that they can be global citizens. This causes loss of motivation and even quitting school. Supervisors and managers should consider this result seriously and try to encourage

instructors to employ communicative strategies more and provide suitable circumstances for them.

Further studies are needed to investigate the sense of efficacy of EFL instructors. The questionnaires employed in this research were designed to investigate self-efficacy in EFL teaching for student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. New studies using some other variables may determine predictors of prep school instructors' self-efficacy in the EFL context.

Longitudinal studies are also recommended to explore whether instructors' efficacy beliefs change across time. It is recommended to follow-up instructors to see whether or not and how their efficacy beliefs changes over the years.

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APPENDICES

A. INSTRUCTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: Personal and Professional Background

Instruction: This section asks for your personal and professional information. Please respond to each question.

Name of institution you currently work -----

Email address (optional) -----

Gender *1. I am:* *male* *female*

Education *2. My highest degree earned and specialization:*
 _____ *B.A. in* _____
 _____ *M.A. in* _____
 _____ *Ph.D. in* _____

Experience *3 How long have you been teaching English?*

 ----- *Less than 1 year*

 ----- *1-3 years*

 ----- *4-6 years*

 ----- *7-10 years*

 ----- *More than 10 years*

Part 2: Self-efficacy Beliefs

Instruction: This part contains statements about the kinds of difficulties you may face when teaching English in your classrooms. Answer the questions based on your usual way of teaching English. Please use the answer key below and circle the number that best expresses your opinion about each of the following statements.

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

Part 3: Language Proficiency Level

Instruction: In this part you are asked to assess your own proficiency in English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Please choose the correct number from the following **answer key** that best describes your best judgment about level of proficiency in the following English skills.

1= Strongly Disagree (SD) 2= Disagree(D) 3= Slightly Disagree(SLD)
4= Slightly Agree (SLA) 5= Agree(A) Strongly Agree (SA)

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I can understand a message in English on an the phone.						
2	In face-to-face conversation, I understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly as he or she would do to another native speaker.						
3	I understand movies without subtitles.						
4	I understand news broadcasts on American television.						
5	I understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another.						
6	I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary.						
7	I can talk about my present job or other major life activities accurately and in detail.						
8	I can argue for a position on a controversial topic (for example, birth control, nuclear safety, environmental pollution)						
9	I can express and support my opinions in English when speaking about general topics.						
10	In face-to-face interaction with an English-speaker, I can practice in a conversation at a normal speed.						
11	I can give lectures to my students in English without any difficulty.						
12	I can read and understand magazine articles, such as <i>Time</i> and <i>Newsweek</i> , without using a dictionary						
13	I can read and understand popular novels, without using a dictionary.						
14	I can read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field with no use of dictionary.						
15	I can draw inferences/conclusions from what I read in English.						
16	I can figure out the meaning of unknown words in English from the context						
17	Errors in my writing rarely disturb native speakers of English.						
18	I can fill in different kinds of applications in English (e.g., credit card applications).						
19	I can write short research papers.						
20	I can select proper words in writing.						
21	I can write a short essay in English on a topic of my knowledge.						

Part 4: Use of Instructional Strategies

For of the following statements, please *select the correct choice* from the following *answer key* that best indicates the number of times you use these teaching strategies during one term of English language teaching. For example, if you use this strategy almost every session, please select 6 from the following answer key. If you never use this strategy or practice, please select 1.

1= Almost never 2= Only occasionally 3= Sometimes 4= Very often 5= Almost always

1.	Draw a graph or outline on the blackboard the topics read in the book or explained					
2.	Summarize the content of a book orally. If necessary L1 will be used					
3	Invite students to ask questions during an explanation					
4	Use a variety of educational games to let the students enjoy and learn simultaneously.					
5	Students work together in groups of two or three					
6	Errors are tolerated and will be notified later					
7	Summarize concepts already known on the topic and ask the students to discuss their ideas and/or what they know					
8	Draw an outline, graph or table before the lesson					
9	Use drama or show experiments in the classroom or lab					
10	At the end of an explanation, ask students to summarize the main concepts orally or in writing					
11	Communicative situations will be provided to help the interaction among the students					
12	Summarize the concepts taught. Use L1 to clarify the concepts					
13	Ask students to write down key words on the topic described					
14	The students discuss what they have learned in the class.					
15	Introduce a new topic using familiar examples					
16	Create links between different topics and subjects					
17	Education is most effective when it is experience-centered, when it relates to students' real needs					
18	Activate students' learning through playing English games					
19	Summarize previous topics before introducing new ones, in case of need will get the help of L1					
20	Use multimedia, such as DVD, web navigation					
21	Play music, songs to motivate the students' learning					
22	At the beginning of the lesson, list the topics that are to be taught					
23	Provide a summary chart of the main concepts, written out by yourself					
24	Ask students if they are encountering any difficulties in studying the topic in question					
25	Students are invited to talk about how they felt during the lesson					
26	Ask students to point out the main concepts in their books					
27	Teacher will try to support students' confidence by not over correcting their mistakes					
28	Use pictures to illustrate a theoretical topic (slides, drawings, charts, and so on)					
29	Give a brief explanation of the key concepts, and then read them in the book					
30	The teacher leads the class in discussing the problem, ending with students responding with solutions to the problem.					
31	A student makes an error. The teacher and other students ignore					
32	Build logical chains using temporal links					
33	Give students a riddle and ask them to solve it in pairs					
34	Read the book (teacher or students) and then explain					
35	Note rules, formulas or properties on the blackboard					
36	Provide summaries of topics to be taught, e.g. outline chart					
37	Discuss study topics during lessons					
38	Students' interaction in their groups is emphasized.					
39	Give indications about the content of the following lesson, or ask questions about possible developments of a topic					
40	The students are invited to talk about the experience they have had that day in the class.					

B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How efficient do you find yourself in teaching English? Would you consider yourself to be self- confident? (Interviewees were asked to evaluate themselves on a scale from 1 to 9 and provide their reasons)
2. In which aspect(s) of language teaching do you feel more confident? Please provide your reasons.
3. In which aspect(s) of language teaching are you more worried about? Please provide your reasons
4. Which strategies make you feel more self-efficient in the classroom?
5. Does your language proficiency level affect your self confidence in the classroom? In what way? Please give examples.

C. CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Surname, Name : Can, Seçkin
Nationality : Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth : 17 January 1983, Tekirdağ
Marital Status : Married
Phone : +90 362 312 19 19
Email : seckin.can@omu.edu.tr

Educational Information

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MA	METU English Language Teaching	2009
BA	Hacetepe, English Language Teaching	2006
High School	Kepirtepe Anatolian High School, Kırklareli	2001

Work Experience

Year	Place	Enrollment
2019 - Present	Ondokuz Mayıs University	Instructor
2010- 2019	Namık Kemal University	Instructor
2006 -2010	Atılım University	Instructor

D. TURKISH SUMMARY / TRKE ZET

Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretiminin önemi her geçen gün gittikçe artmaktadır. Buna paralel olarak, bu dili öğreten öğretmenlerin de nitelikli olması beklenmektedir. Konu alan uzmanlığı ve öğretmenlik bilgisinin yanı sıra, öz yeterlilik inancı da öğretmen niteliğini etkileyen faktörlerden biri olarak görlmektedir (Pajares, 1996). Bu doęrultuda, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi konusunda da özyeterlilik araştırmaların yapılması gerektięi açıktır.

Trkiye’ de İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretimi ilköğretim düzeyinde başlamaktadır fakat birçok öğrenci üniversiteye başlayana kadar uluslararası seviyede İngilizce yeterlilięine ulaşamamaktadır. Bunun sonucu olarak, üniversite hazırlık okullarının önemi daha da artmaktadır. Trkiye’de İngilizce, yabancı dil olarak öğretilen bir ortamda olmasından dolayı, öğrenciler dil öğreniminin büyük çoęunluęunu sınıflarda gerçekleştirmektedir. Bu bağlamda, müfredatın uygulanması, materyallerin uyarlanması, uygun yöntem ve tekniklerin kullanılması için üniversite hazırlık okulu öğretim elemanlarının rol oldukça kritiktir. Dolayısıyla, bir öğretim elemanının etkili bir öğrenme-öğretme ortamı yaratabilmesi için alan bilgisi ve pedagojik bilginin yanında İngilizce öğretimi ile ilgili olumlu inanç ve tutumlara sahip olması gerekmektedir (Lee,2006).

Tm bunların sonucunda, üniversite İngilizce öğretimi alanında öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilięini araştırmak oldukça önemli ve yararlı bir araştırma alanı haline gelmiştir. Bu alanda yapılan araştırmalar, öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inançlarının etkili öğrenme ortamları yaratmada, öğrenci motivasyonunu artırmada ve daha birçok alanda önemli rol olduęunu göstermiştir.

Öğretmen özyeterlilięi ve öğrenim sürecindeki rol son zamanlarda üzerinde çok durulan konulardan biridir (Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Bu alandaki çalışmalar, bilişsel

ve sosyokültürel yönelime dayanan yaklaşımlar olarak iki ana kategoride değerlendirilebilir: 1) bilişsel yönelime dayanan yaklaşımlar 2) sosyo-kültürel yönelime dayanan yaklaşımla. Bilişsel yönelime dayanan araştırmalar, genellikle anket ve mülakat yöntemlerini kullanarak özyeterlilik inancını zihnin içsel ve bağımsız bir unsuru olarak ele almıştır. Sosyokültürel yönelime dayanan çalışmalar ise, durum çalışması, günlük çalışmaları ve hikayeler gibi nicel araştırma yöntemlerini kullanarak özyeterlilik inancında çevrenin ve bireysel faktörlerin önemini vurgulamıştır (Johnson,2006).

Öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik kavramının temeli Bandura'nın (1977) Sosyal Öğrenme Teorisine dayanmaktadır. Bandura (1977), özyeterliliği davranışların oluşmasında etkili olan bir olgu olarak tanımlamış ve bireylerin olası zorlukların üstesinden gelebilmek için gerekli eylemleri ne kadar iyi yapabileceklerine ilişkin bireysel inançlarının özyeterlilik seviyelerini yansıttığını vurgulamıştır. Bandura (1977,) kişinin kendi deneyimlerini, başkalarının deneyimlerine ilişkin gözlemlerini, başkalarının anlatımları temelindeki kavrayışlarını ve fizyolojik durumunu özyeterlilik belirtisinin kaynakları olarak belirlemiştir.

Öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inançlarına ilişkin pek çok araştırma yapılmasına rağmen, üniversite hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarını araştıran çalışmaların sayısı sınırlıdır. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ve bunun dil becerisi, öğretme stratejileri gibi faktörlerle ilişkisini inceleyen çalışmalar oldukça azdır. Bu ilişkiyi incelemek üzere yapılan çalışmalar farklı sonuçlara ulaşmışlardır. Örneğin, Shim (2001) Kore'de ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin katılımıyla yaptığı araştırmada dil yeterliliği ile özyeterlilik inançları arasında ciddi bir ilişki bulamamıştır. Fakat Chacon (2002) tarafından Venezüella'daki ortaokul İngilizce öğretmenlerinin katıldığı bir araştırmada, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarını incelemiş ve dil yeterliliği ile özyeterlilik inançları arasında pozitif ilişki bulmuştur. Sonuçlardaki bu farklılıklar, bu alanda yeni araştırmalara ihtiyaç duyulduğunu göstermektedir.

Shim (2002) İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarının daha içerik odaklı ölçekler vasıtasıyla araştırılması gerektiğini vurgulamıştır. Örneğin, fen bilgisi

eđitimi alanında öđretmen özyeterliliđini arařtırmak için oldukça iyi hazırlanmıř bir ölçek bulunmaktadır fakat yabancı dil öđretmenlerinin özyeterliliđini ölçmek için hazırlanmıř özgün bir ölçek yoktur. Bu çalışmada da, Tschannen-Moran ve Hoy (2001) tarafından hazırlanan özyeterlilik ölçeđi, belirli eklemelerle İngilizce öđretimine uygun hale getirilmeye çalışılmıřtır

İngilizce öđretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarını etkileyen başka faktörlerden de söz etmek mümkündür. Chacon (2005) öđretmenlerin özyeterlilik inançlarının çok yönlü bir yapı olduđunu ve bağlama göre deđişiklik gösterdiđini öne sürmüřtür. Bu dođrultuda, İngilizce öđretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarını etkileyen farklı deđişkenleri farklı bağlamlarda inceleyen çalışmalara da gerek duyulmaktadır. Bu deđişkenlerden biri de İngilizce öđretmenlerinin kullandığı öđretim stratejileridir. Labonne (2004), İngilizce öđretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları ile öđretim stratejileri seçimi arasında karşılıklı bir ilişki olduđunu öne sürmüřtür. Farklı bağlamlarda yapılacak arařtırmalarla bu hipotezin dođruluđunu arařtırmak, İngilizce öđretmenliđi özyeterlilik alanında yapılacak diđer arařtırmalar için de önemli bir kaynak oluřturacaktır.

İngilizce öđretmenlerini özyeterlilik inançları ile ilgili öđretimin alt kademelerinde yapılmıř arařtırmalar bulunmasına rađmen, üniversite hazırlık okulu öđretim elemanlarını özyeterlilik inançları ile ilgili arařtırmaların sayısı oldukça azdır. Üniversite bağlamında yapılan arařtırmaların birçođu ise (Cooper,2009; Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Pekkanlı, 2009; Rahimi& Gheitasi, 2010; Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009) sadece öđretim elemanlarının öz yeterlik inançlarına odaklanmış, özyeterlilik inancının etkileyen faktörleri incelemişlerdir. Bundan dolayı, üniversite hazırlık okulu bağlamında özyeterlilik inançları ve bunları etkileyen çeřitli deđişkenleri inceleyen arařtırmalarının yapılması gerekmektedir.

Alanyazında, özyeterlilik birkaç farklı şekilde tanımlanmıřtır. Bunlardan bazıları “öđretmenlerin belirli bir bağlamdaki öđretimi başarılı bir şekilde geçekleřtirme kabiliyetine olan inancı” Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, s.233), “öđretmenlerin, öđrenci performansını etkileme kapasitelerine olan inancı” (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977, p. 137, alıntı Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998, p. 202)

ve “ öğretmenlerin, zorlu ve motive olmayan öğrencileri ne kadar olumlu yönde etkileyebileceklerine olan inancı” (Guskey & Passaro, 1994, p. 4, cited in Tschannen-Moran, et al, 1998, p. 202) şeklinde özetlenebilir. Yüksek özyeterlilik inancının daha fazla çaba gerektirdiği, yüksek çabanın da başarıyla sonuçlandığı ve bunun daha da yüksek özyeterlilik inancına dönüştüğü alanyazında sıkça işlenmiştir. Buna paralel olarak, düşük özyeterlilik inancının daha az çabaya neden olduğu ve bunun da özyeterlilik inancını daha alt seviyelere çektiği vurgulanmıştır.

Özyeterlilik olgusunu daha iyi anlayabilmek için, özyeterliliğin altyapısını oluşturan iki önemli teoriyi incelemek gerekmektedir. Bunlardan ilki, Bandura’nın (1977) Sosyal Öğrenme Teorisidir. Bandura (1977) özyeterliliği davranışların oluşmasında etkili olan, bireyin belli bir performansı gösterebilmek için gerekli olan etkinlikleri başarılı olarak yapma kapasitesi hakkında kendine olan inancı olarak tanımlamıştır. Bandura (1977), kişinin özyeterlilik inancını dört temel kaynağı olduğunu öne sürmüştür. Bunlar kişinin kendi deneyimleri (mastery experiences), başkalarının deneyimlerine ilişkin gözlemleri (vicarious experiences), başkalarının anlatımlarına dayanan kavrayışları (verbal persuasion) ve fizyolojik durumdur (physiological arousal). Özyeterlilik inancı, sosyal psikoloji temelinde geliştirilmiş bir kavramdır ve bireylerin bir alanla ilgili olarak kendilerinin algılayışlarıyla ilgilenir. Özyeterlilik inancı yüksek olan bireyler, yaptıkları işlerde daha başarılı olmakta; özyeterlilik inancı düşük olan bireyler ise başarısızlık oranını artırmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, özyeterlilik inancı hedefe ulaşma sürecinde gösterilen çabada ve sonuca ulaşmada önemli rol oynamakta ve bireylerin karar alma süreçlerini önemli ölçüde etkilemektedir (Bandura,2006).

Özyeterlilik alanındaki çalışmalara temel olan ikinci önemli çalışma ise, Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk-Hoy’un (1998) entegre modelidir. Bu model, Bandura’nın (1977) sosyal öğrenme teorisini temel almış fakat salt öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inançlarının oluştururken karşılaştığı zorluklar ve kısıtlamaların yerine , öğretim görevlerinin analizlerine de odaklanmıştır. Bu model, Bandura’nın (1977) betimlediği özyeterliliğin dört temel kaynağı yoluyla kişinin özyeterlilik seviyesi hakkında bilgileri topladıktan sonra, bu bilgilerin analiz edilmesini önerir. Analiz edilen bu bilgiler, öğretmenler tarafından amaçlarını belirlemede, hedefe ulaşmada

gösterilecek çaba ve uygulanacak yöntemleri belirlemede kullanılır. Öğretmenlerin performans ve çıktılarının onlara yen deneyimler sağlaması ve gelecekle ilgili özyeterlilik yargıları oluşturulması hedeflenir. Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk-Hoy (1998) öğretim yetkinliğini yargılamada, öğretmenlerin belirli bağlamlardaki bilgi, beceri ve kişisel zayıflıklarına karşı ürettiği stratejileri değerlendiklerini öne sürmüşlerdir. Bu faktörlerin etkileşimi de öğretmenlerin belirli bağlamlardaki özyeterlilik inançlarıyla ilgili yargılarını oluşturmaktadır.

Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk-Hoy (1998) Bandura'nın (1997) geliştirdiği ve genel anlamda detaylı öğretmen yeterliliklerini listeleyen ölçekten yararlanarak, 52 maddeden oluşan dokuzlu likert ölçeği geliştirmişlerdir. Bu ölçek daha sonra 32, bir diğer çalışmada ise 18 maddeye indirilmiştir. En sonunda, ölçek 24 maddeli uzun form, 12 maddeli kısa form olarak düzenlenmiş ve sınıf yönetimi, öğrenci katılımını sağlama ve öğretim stratejileri üç alt başlık olarak belirlenmiştir (Tschannen-Moran ve Woolfolk-Hoy,1998).

Alanyazın incelendiğinde, öğretmen özyeterliliği alanında yapılmış olan çeşitli çalışmalar mevcuttur fakat yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarını içeren çalışmaların sayısı kısıtlıdır. Liaw (2004) anadili İngilizce olan ve anadili İngilizce olmayan öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik inançlarıyla ilgili bir çalışmayı üç ana başlıkta yürütmüştür: anadili İngilizce olan ve olmayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin 1) avantaj ve dezavantajları, 2) öğrencileri motive etme ve öğrencilere yardımcı olma becerileri, 3) öğretim stratejileri. Araştırma sonuçları üç başlıkta da anadili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik algıları arasında ciddi farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir. Başka bir çalışmada, Akbari ve Moradkhani (2010), öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarıyla deneyim ve akademik dereceleri arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmıştır. 447 İngilizce öğretmenin katıldığı bu araştırma, daha az deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerini özyeterlilik inançlarının, özyeterliliğin üç alt boyutu olan sınıf yönetimi, öğrenci katılımını sağlama ve öğretim tekniklerinde de düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, akademik derece ve özyeterlilik arasında ilişki bulunamamıştır.

Başka bir çalışmada, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançlarıyla öğretme başarıları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmıştır. 89 İngilizce öğretmenine özyeterlilik anketi dağıtılmış, bu öğretmenlerin öğrencilerine ise başarılı İngilizce öğretmenlerini özelliklerini listeleyen anketler dağıtılıp iki anketin sonuçları karşılaştırılmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları ile öğretim başarıları arasında güçlü bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, mesleki deneyim ve özyeterlilik arasında da önemli ilişki olduğu saptanmıştır. Shim (2001) Kore’de İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları ile okul stresi, mesleki doyum, dil yeterliliği gibi kişisel özellikler arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Araştırma sonuçları, sayılan bu değişkenler ile İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları arasında doğrusal bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Shim (2001) ayrıca özyeterlilik inancı yüksek İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinin özyeterlilik inancı düşük olanlardan daha iyi olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Chacon (2005) Venezüella’daki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin katılımıyla yaptığı çalışmada, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançları ile dil becerileri ve kullandıkları öğretim stratejileri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Chacon (2005) ayrıca katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançları ile mesleki deneyim ve yurtdışında eğitim alma gibi demografik özelliklerin ilişkisini de araştırmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretim yetkinliği ile özyeterlilik inançları arasında güçlü bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Özyeterliliğin öğretim stratejileri alt boyutunun katılımcılarda daha yüksek olduğu ve özyeterlilik ile dil yeterliliği arasında doğrusal ilişki olduğu saptanmıştır. Katılımcıların mekanik beceriler odaklı stratejileri, iletişimsel stratejilere oranla daha çok kullandığı da çalışmanın bir diğer önemli sonucudur. Daha önceki çalışmaların aksine, Chacon (2005) mesleki deneyim ile İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inancı arasında önemli bir ilişki bulamamıştır.

Sayıları çok fazla olmamasına rağmen, Türkiye’deki İngilizce öğretmenlerini özyeterlilik inançlarını inceleyen araştırmalar mevcuttur. Ortaçtepe (2006) İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları ile iletişimsel dil öğretimi metodunu kullanımlarını arasındaki ilişkiyi katılımcıların kendi değerlendirmelerini baz alarak incelemiştir. Araştırmaya, İstanbul’da bulunan 8 vakıf okulunda çalışan 50 İngilizce

öğretmeni katılmıştır ve sonuçlar İngilizce öğretmenlerinin özyeterlilik inançları ile iletişimsel dil öğretim metodu kullanımı arasında bir ilişki olmadığını göstermiştir.

Özyeterlilik alanında üniversite ortamında yapılan çalışmaları da mevcuttur. Dört yıllık uzun süreli bir çalışmada, Özmen (2012) Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce öğretmenliği eğitim programının, bu bölümde okuyan öğretmen adaylarının özyeterlilik inançlarına etkisi ve katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının dört yıllık süreçteki değişimini incelemiştir. Araştırma sonuçları, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının, program ilerledikçe yükseldiğini göstermiştir.

Yavuz (2005) üniversitede çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik algılarının ve bunun yor dayıcılarını araştırmıştır. İstanbul'da bulunan 13 üniversitenin hazırlık okullarında çalışan 226 öğretim elemanının katılımıyla yapılan araştırma, öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının oldukça yüksek seviyede olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna ilaveten, katılımcıların sınıf yönetimi ve öğretim stratejileri alt boyutlarındaki inançlarının, öğrencilerin derse katılımını sağlama alt boyutundan daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Solar-Şekerci (2011) Ankara'daki üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında çalışan 257 öğretim elemanının katılımıyla yaptığı araştırmada, öğretim elemanlarının dil yeterliliği, mesleki deneyim ve mezun oldukları bölümlerin özyeterlilik inançlarına etkisini incelemiştir. Araştırma sonuçları bahsedilen üç değişkenin de öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları üzerinde önemli etkisi olduğunu ve katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının oldukça yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir.

Ankara'da bulundan 9 üniversitenin hazırlık okullarında çalışan 285 öğretim elemanının katıldığı çalışmada, öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ile mesleki deneyim, alan, yönetsel destek gibi değişkenleri Ülkümen (2013) tarafından incelemiştir. Araştırma sonuçları, mesleki deneyim, uzmanlık alanı, yönetsel destek ve üniversite türünün öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının önemli yordayıcıları olduğunu göstermiştir.

Çoklu araştırma yönteminin kullanıldığı çalışmada, Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez (2012) İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının özyeterlilik inançlarının öğretmenlik staj uygulaması

süresindeki değişimini araştırmıştır. Sonuçları, öğretmen adaylarının özyeterlilik inançlarının staj uygulaması sonucunda önemli bir gelişme göstermediğini; aksine, öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi alt boyutundaki özyeterlilik inançlarının staj uygulaması sonucunda azaldığını göstermiştir. Ankara, İstanbul ve İzmir'deki üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında çalışan 434 öğretim elemanının katıldığı çalışmada Taşer (2015), öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarını ve yordayıcılarını çoklu araştırma yöntemim kullanarak araştırmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının özellikle sınıf yönetimi ve öğretim stratejileri alt boyutlarında oldukça yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Araştırma ayrıca mesleki teneyim ve çalışma ortamının öğretim elemanların özyeterlilik algılarının önemli yordayıcıları olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Bu çalışma, üniversite hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarını, sınıf yönetimi, ders anlatım stratejileri ve öğrencilerin derse katılımını sağlama alt boyutları özelinde incelemektedir. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretim görevlilerinin cinsiyet ve deneyim gibi kişisel özelliklerinin, dil yeterliliklerinin ve tercih ettikleri öğretim stratejileri ile özyeterlilik inançları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın cevaplanması amaçlanan araştırma soruları aşağıdaki gibidir:

1. Üniversite İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğretim elemanları
 - a) Özyeterlilik inançlarını,
 - b) Dil yeterlilik seviyelerini ve
 - c) Öğretim stratejilerini kullanma şekillerini nasıl değerlendirmektedirler?
2. Üniversite İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ile
 - a) Dil yeterlilik seviyeleri,
 - b) Öğretim stratejilerini kullanma şekilleri ve
 - c) Kişisel özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiler nelerdir?

Bu amaca ulaşmak için iki aşamadan oluşan çoklu araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İlk aşamada, 4 bölümden oluşan anket dağıtılmıştır. Anketin birinci bölümü öğretim görevlilerinin kişisel özellikleriyle ilgilidir. İkinci bölümde öğretim görevlilerinin

özyeterlilik inançlarıyla ilgili bilgi almayı amaçlayan ve Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001) tarafından geliştirilen öğretmenlerin özyeterlilik anketi, dil öğretimiyle ilgili uyarlamalar yapılarak kullanılmıştır. Anketin üçüncü bölümünde Chacon (2005) tarafından geliştirilen dil becerileri ile sorular kullanılmıştır. Anketin dördüncü bölümünde ise Moe (2001) tarafından geliştirilen öğretmenlerin öğrenme stratejileri tercihleri anketi, İngilizce öğretimi ile ilgili uyarlamalar yapıldıktan sonra kullanılmıştır.

Nicel araştırma sonucu elde edilen veriler tek başına yeterli olmayacağından, araştırmanın ikinci aşamasında, anketi sonuçlarının desteklemek ve daha derin bakış açısı elde etmek amacıyla, ilk aşamadaki katılımcılardan rastgele seçilen 25 öğretim elemanı ile mülakat yapılmıştır. Mülakatların bir kısmı şehir farklılıklarından dolayı telefon yoluyla yapılmış ve ortalama 8-10 dakika süren mülakatlar kayıt altına alınmıştır.

Anketin birinci kısmı, katılımcıların cinsiyet ve mesleki deneyim gibi kişisel özellikleri hakkında veri toplamayı amaçlamıştır. Anketin ikinci, üçüncü ve dördüncü bölümlerinde, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançları, dil yeterlilikleri ve öğretim stratejilerini kullanımlarını ortaya çıkaran veri elde edilmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bunun sonucunda, ilk araştırma sorusu olan “Üniversite İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğretim elemanları a) Özyeterlilik inançlarını, b) Dil yeterlilik seviyelerini ve c) Öğretim stratejilerini kullanma şekillerini nasıl değerlendirmektedirler? “sorusu cevaplanmaya çalışılmıştır. .

Daha sonra, ikinci araştırma sorusu “ Üniversite İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ile a) Dil yeterlilik seviyeleri, b) Öğretim stratejilerini kullanma şekilleri ve c) Kişisel özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiler nelerdir?” sorusu, anketin ikinci, üçüncü ve dördüncü bölümlerden elde edilen verilerin analizi ve bunların mülakatlardan elde edilen verilerle entegrasyonu yapılarak cevaplandırılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler, faktör analizi ve kanonik analiz kullanılarak karşılaştırmalı olarak tablolar aracılığıyla sunulmuştur. Daha sonra, özyeterliliğin alt boyutları ve dil yeterliliği, öğretim stratejileri ve kişisel özelliklerin alt boyutları ilişkiler detaylı olarak incelenmiştir.

Katılımcılar, 6 devlet üniversitesi, 2 vakıf üniversitesi olmak üzere Türkiye’de bulunan 8 üniversitenin hazırlık okullarında çalışan 374 öğretim elemanından oluşmaktadır. Bu üniversitelerin 6 tanesinde İngilizce hazırlık eğitimi zorunlu, 2 tanesinde ise isteğe bağlı olarak sunulmaktadır. Anket sonuçlarının analizinde betimleyici istatistik ve kanonik analiz kullanılırken, mülakat sonuçlarında içerik analizi ve kodlama analizi kullanılmıştır.

Nice ve nitel analizlerin sonucunda, üniversite hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının oldukça yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Özyeterliliğin üç alt boyutuna bakıldığında, öğretim görevlilerinin sınıf yönetimi alt boyutundaki sonuçlarının diğer iki öğretim stratejileri ve öğrenci katılımı boyutlarından daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Nicel sonuçlar da bu bulguları doğrulayıcı niteliktedir. Mülakata katılan öğretim görevlilerinden sadece biri kendisini 9 üzerinden 6 puanla değerlendirmiş, diğer bütün katılımcılar kendilerine 7 ve üzerinde puan vermişlerdir. Katılımcılar bu durumun sebebini mesleki deneyim ve yüksek seviyede dil yeterliliği olarak açıklamışlardır. Bu araştırmanın sonucu, daha önce yapılan araştırmalarla karşılaştırıldığında, katılımcıların özyeterlilik algılarının daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. (Chacon, 2005; Lee, 2009; Tschannen-Moy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

Katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının alt boyutları detaylı olarak incelendiğinde, katılımcıların sınıf yönetimi alanındaki özyeterlilik inançlarının daha yüksek olduğu, öğrencinin derse katılımını sağlama alt boyutunda ise düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Özellikle düşük dil yeterliliğine sahip öğrencilerin derse katılımını sağlamakta zorlandıkları ve bunun özyeterlilik inançlarını olumsuz yönde etkilediği görülmüştür. Bu sonuç, Solar-Şekerci (2011), Taşer (2015), ve Yavuz (2005) tarafından yapılan araştırmaların sonucuyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Chacon’un (2005) araştırmasında ise, katılımcıların öğretim stratejileri alt boyutundaki özyeterlilik inançlarının, diğer iki alt boyuttan daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Bağlamsal faktörlerin bu farklılığın sebeplerinden biri olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bununla birlikte, bahsedilen tüm çalışmalarda, katılımcıların özyeterlilik inançlarının öğrenci katılımını sağlama boyutunda en düşük seviyede olduğu görülmüştür. Mülakatlarda katılımcılar sıklıkla öğrencilerin düşük motivasyonu ve

derse katılımdaki isteksizliklerinden bahsetmiş, bu durumun da öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının özellikle öğrenci katılımı alt boyutunu olumsuz etkilediği görülmüştür.

Katılımcıların dil yeterlilikleri incelendiğinde, yazma ve okuma becerilerinin yüksek seviyede olduğu, konuşma ve dinleme becerilerinin ise daha düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Bu sonuç, Chacon (2005) tarafından yapılan araştırmanın sonucuyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Fakat Lee (2009) öğretmenlerin dinleme ve okuma becerilerinin konuşma ve yazma becerilerinden daha yüksek olduğunu saptamıştır. Mülakat sonucu elde edilen veriler de katılımcıların dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinin daha düşük olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Mülakatlarda katılımcıların birçoğu sıkça akıcı konuşma ve telaffuz problemleri yaşadıklarını ve bu problemlerin ancak mesleki deneyimleri arttıkça azaldığını vurgulamışlardır.

Katılımcıların öğretim stratejileri incelendiğinde, öğretim elemanlarının mekanik öğretim tekniklerini iletişimsel öğretim tekniklerine oranla daha fazla kullandıkları görülmüştür. Diğer yandan, mülakatlarda katılımcılar iletişimsel öğretim tekniklerini de diğeri kadar kullandıklarını öne sürmüşlerdir. Bu farklılığın sebebinin, katılımcıların daha ideal olan iletişimsel öğretim tekniklerini daha fazla kullanmak istemeleri fakat öğrencilerin düşük motivasyonu ve yetersiz dil seviyesi gibi sebeplerle bunu gerçekleştirememeleri olduğu düşünülmektedir

Araştırma sonucunda, öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları ile dil yeterlilikleri arasında yüksek bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Özyeterliliğin alt boyutları incelendiğinde, en yüksek ilişkinin dil yeterliliği ile öğrenci katılımını sağlama alt boyutu arasında olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç, dil yeterliliği yüksek olan öğretim elemanlarının, öğrenci katılımını daha yüksek seviyede başardığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışma ayrıca özyeterlilik ile öğretim stratejileri arasında önemli bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Tüm alt boyutlar arasındaki korelasyon yüksek olmasına rağmen, en yüksek ilişki iletişimsel öğretim stratejileri ile öğrenci katılımını sağlama arasında görülmüştür. Diğer bir deyişle, öğrenci katılımını sağlamada daha başarılı olan öğretim elemanları, iletişimsel dil öğretim stratejilerini daha sıklıkla kullanmaktadır.

Araştırma sonucunda, öğretim görevlilerinin özyeterliliği ile cinsiyetleri arasında bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bununla birlikte, deneyim ve özyeterlilik arasında çok güçlü bir ilişki bulunduğu hem nicel hem de nitel sonuçlarla saptanmıştır. Birçok öğretim elemanı, deneyimin sınıf yönetimi ve doğru öğretim stratejilerini kullanmayı desteklemesinin yanında, dil yeterliliğini artırmada ve öğrencilerin derse katılımını sağlamakta önemli bir faktör olduğunu vurgulamışlardır. Sonuçlar, dil yeterliliği ve özyeterlilik arasındaki ilişkinin de oldukça önemli olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğretim görevlilerinin konuşma ve dinleme becerilerinin öğretiminde yaşadıkları problemlerin özyeterlilik inançlarını olumsuz yönde etkilediği açıkça görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretim görevlilerinin kendilerini en yeterli gördüğü alanların okuma ve yazma bölümleri olduğu da hem nicel hem de nitel sonuçlarla saptanmıştır.

Sonuç olarak, bu araştırma üniversite hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının oldukça yüksek olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Buna ilaveten, cinsiyet ve özyeterlilik arasında bir ilişki bulunmadığı, fakat mesleki deneyimin ile özyeterlilik arasında çok yüksek seviyede bir ilişki olduğu saptanmıştır. Dil yeterliliği ve özyeterlilik arasında önemli bir ilişki olduğu, katılımcıların İngilizce okuma ve yazma becerilerini yüksek, dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinin ise düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Mekanik dil öğretim becerilerinin iletişimsel becerilere oranla daha sık kullanıldığı nitel yöntemlerle saptanmış fakat mülakatlarda öğretim görevlilerinin iletişimsel yöntemleri daha fazla kullandıklarının iddia ettikleri görülmüştür.

Bu araştırmanın bazı kısıtlamaları vardır. İlk olarak, bu çalışma Türkiye’de 7 farklı ilde 8 üniversitenin hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin özyeterlilik inançlarını incelemiştir ve sonuçlar Türkiye’nin tamamına genellendirilemez. Buna ilaveten, bu çalışma öğretim görevlilerinin özyeterlilik, dil yeterliliği ve strateji kullanımlarında kendileriyle ilgili değerlendirmelerini baz almıştır. Bu alanlarda yapılan bağımsız değerlendirmeler ile öğretim görevlilerinin kendi değerlendirmeleri ile farklılık gösterebilir.

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, özyeterlilik alanındaki çalışmalara ışık tutmaktadır. İlk olarak, dil yeterliliğinin öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarını önemli ölçüde etkilediği görülmüştür. Dolayısıyla, üniversitede çalışan öğretim elemanlarının yeterli seviyede dil yeterliliğine sahip olması, etkili bir öğrenme-öğretme ortamı oluşmasında temel gereksinimlerden biridir. Buna ek olarak, araştırmanın nicel ve nitel sonuçları, mesleki deneyimin önemli bir faktör olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu doğrultuda, kurumlar öğretim elemanları arasındaki etkileşim ve paylaşımın artırılmasını amaçlamalı ve öğretim elemanlarının birbirlerinin tecrübelerinden faydalanmasını sağlamalıdır. Bu çalışmanın bulgularından hareketle, Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerindeki üniversitelerin hazırlık okullarında çalışan öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançları incelenebilir. Bu çalışma, katılımcıların özyeterlilik, dil yeterliliği ve strateji kullanımlarını katılımcıların öz değerlendirmelerini baz alarak incelemiştir. Gelecekteki çalışmalar, özyeterlilik kavramını incelerken bağımsız değerlendirme sonuçlarını kullanabilir, katılımcılara dil yeterlilik sınavı, günlük ve sınıf içi gözlem gibi farklı veri toplama araçlarından yararlanabilir. Uzun süreli araştırmalarla, öğretim elemanlarının özyeterlilik inançlarının süreç içerisinde hangi parametrelerin etkisiyle ne ölçüde değiştiği araştırılabilir.

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