

12-1-2016

From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

Abdullah Khamis Al-Shukri

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, abdullah_alshukri@yahoo.com

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations>

 Part of the [Teacher Education and Professional Development Commons](#)

Repository Citation

Al-Shukri, Abdullah Khamis, "From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language" (2016). *UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*. 2847.
<https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations/2847>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Digital Scholarship@UNLV. It has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

FROM BELIEF TO ACTION: OMANI EFL TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY IN
RELATION TO THEIR TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

By

Abdullah Khamis Al-Shukri

Bachelor of Education -- English Language
Sultan Qaboos University
2001

Master of Arts -- Applied Linguistics
University of Liverpool
2008

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Doctor of Philosophy -- Curriculum & Instruction

Department of Teaching and Learning
College of Education
The Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
December 2016

Copyright by Abdullah K. Al-Shukri, 2016

All Rights Reserved



Dissertation Approval

The Graduate College
The University of Nevada, Las Vegas

November 16, 2016

This dissertation prepared by

Abdullah Khamis Al-Shukri

entitled

From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy – Curriculum & Instruction
Department of Teaching and Learning

Shaoan Zhang, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Chair

Kathryn Hausbeck Korgan, Ph.D.
Graduate College Interim Dean

Steven G. McCafferty, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Member

Jane McCarthy, Ed.D.
Examination Committee Member

E. Michael Nussbaum, Ph.D.
Graduate College Faculty Representative

ABSTRACT

From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of
English as a Foreign Language

By

Abdullah Khamis Al-Shukri

Dr. Shaoan Zhang, Committee Chair

Dr. Jane McCarthy, Committee Member

Dr. Steve G. McCafferty, Committee Member

Dr. Michael Nussbaum, Graduate College Faculty Representative

Research has documented that teacher self-efficacy has positive impacts on different aspects of teaching and learning. Yet, research on teacher self-efficacy in the field of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is relatively limited. Considering the powerful impacts of teacher self-efficacy on teaching and learning, it is crucial to pursue this line of research into the field of teacher education. Examining EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English seems to be particularly useful in the Omani teaching context, where English is increasingly used in schools. The present study examined Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, its sources and factors, and the relationship between EFL self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' practices. Through using an explanatory mixed methods design, the study explored the perceived levels of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy for (a) engaging students, (b) classroom management, and (c) instructional strategies. In addition, the study investigated the ability of the variables, years of teaching and training courses to predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy. The study also investigated the sources that composed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and the factors that influenced these self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language was examined in this study.

The study revealed several major results. First, the participants perceived their capabilities for instructional strategies as higher than their capabilities for classroom management and students' engagement, respectively. Second, both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Third, the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy included: enactive mastery experiences (including teacher's English knowledge, students' achievement, professional development, and years of experience), vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, intrinsic motivation, and teacher dispositions. Fourth, Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy were influenced by contextual factors (including school environment, work load, educational facilities and materials, society and culture, school curriculum, teacher's relationships, number of students and school system), extrinsic motivation, and demographic factors. Fifth, the study has confirmed that there is a relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching practices in the classroom. In general, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language.

This study adds to the literature that claims the importance of EFL teacher self-efficacy in teaching and learning. It also expands the theoretical foundation of the sources of the information for EFL teacher self-efficacy and the factors influence it. Additionally, the study suggests some practical implications for teacher development, teacher education programs, in-service teacher training, and research in EFL teacher self-efficacy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to acknowledge the invaluable help of the following people who have contributed to the completion of this dissertation. The most important, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Shaoan Zhang, my doctoral advisory committee chair, for his precious time, abundant patience, and invaluable guidance. His support together with his advice helped to clarify ideas that shaped this research. Moreover, his assistance and encouragement as an academic advisor throughout the years of my doctoral study is extremely appreciated.

I am also very grateful to the other members of my committee, Dr. Jane McCarthy, Dr. Steve McCafferty, and Dr. Michael Nussbaum, who guided me throughout my research and helped me to gain valuable research skills. In addition, I wish to acknowledge other faculty members in the Department of Teaching and Learning for their consideration and constant support.

I am truly grateful to the participants of this research who openly welcomed me and shared their experiences and thoughts with me. I want to thank them for their participation and commitment in this study. Their involvement, dedication, and valuable feedback were incredibly helpful in completing this dissertation. I would also like to take this opportunity to express my heartfelt gratitude to Fulbright Commission and the United States Department of State who made it possible for me to study in the USA and complete my doctoral studies. Their support must also be acknowledged.

My special thanks go to my family, especially my parents and sisters for their patience, continuous prayers and support, my wife for her commitment, love and support, and my children for their inspiration. It is a pleasure to record my debts to the named people, without their valuable assistance and consideration this dissertation would not be possible.

DEDICATION

To my mother and father

To my wife and my kids

To my sisters

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	v
DEDICATION.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	iv
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	4
Purpose of the Study	6
Significance of the Study	7
Research Questions	9
Definition of Terms	10
Assumptions of the Study	10
Dissertation Outline.....	11
CHAPTER TWO	13
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	13
Overview	13
Social Cognitive Theory.....	13
Self-efficacy beliefs.....	15
Sources of self-efficacy beliefs.....	17
Teacher self-efficacy beliefs.....	20
Rotter’s Locus of Control Theory	24
Attribution Theory.....	27
Summary	31
CHAPTER THREE	33
LITERATURE REVIEW	33
Overview	33
Review of Studies on EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy	34
Literature Selection and Review Process	34
EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Enactive Mastery Experiences	35
EFL teacher self-efficacy and English practical knowledge.	36

EFL teacher self-efficacy and English language proficiency.	36
EFL teacher self-efficacy and teaching strategies.	37
EFL teacher self-efficacy and years of experiences.	40
EFL teacher self-efficacy and professional development.....	41
EFL teachers’ self-efficacy and students’ achievement.	42
EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Demographic Factors	44
EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Contextual Factors	46
Limitations of the Studies	48
Context of the Study	49
The Educational System.....	49
ELT and Students	49
EFL Teachers	51
In-Service EFL Teacher Training	51
Summary	54
CHAPTER FOUR.....	56
METHODOLOGY	56
Research Questions	57
Research Design.....	58
Participants and Research Site	59
Instruments.....	62
Demographic survey.....	63
Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES.	63
Classroom observation protocol and pre- and post-classroom observation interviews....	65
Semi-structured, open-ended interview.....	66
Data collection.....	67
Data analysis	70
Quantitative data.....	70
Qualitative data.....	72
Open-ended questions.....	72
Classroom observations and interviews.....	76
Validity and Reliability (Trustworthiness).....	78
Validity.....	78
Reliability (Trustworthiness).....	79
Role of Researcher	80

Human Subjects.....	81
Ethical considerations.....	82
Privacy.....	83
Confidentiality.....	83
Potential Risks.....	83
Informed Consent.....	83
Summary	84
CHAPTER FIVE	85
RESULTS	85
Teacher Demographic Characteristics Survey	85
Gender.....	85
Age.....	86
Participants' teaching experience.....	86
Educational background.....	87
In-service teacher training.....	87
Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy.....	87
Descriptive statistics.....	87
Teacher Self-Efficacy, Teaching Experience, and Training Courses	90
Independent samples t-tests.....	90
Model (1) students' engagement.....	92
Model (2) classroom management.....	93
Model (3) instructional strategies.....	95
Teachers' Self-Efficacy: Sources and Factors	99
Sources of teacher self-efficacy.....	102
Factors that influence teacher self-efficacy.....	106
Self-Efficacy and Ability to Teach EFL	109
Summary	113
CHAPTER SIX.....	115
DISCUSSION.....	115
Summary of Results	115
Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy.....	117
Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Teaching Experience, and Training Courses	119
Teachers' Self-Efficacy: Sources and Factors	121
Sources of teachers' self-efficacy.....	124

Enactive mastery experiences.	124
Vicarious learning experiences.	125
Verbal persuasion.....	126
Physiological arousal.	126
Intrinsic Motivation.	127
Teacher dispositions.....	127
Factors that influence EFL teachers' self-efficacy.	128
Contextual Factors.	129
Extrinsic Motivation.	130
Demographic Factors.	130
Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Ability to Teach EFL.....	132
Limitations	135
Implications for Theory and Practice in Teacher Education.....	136
Implications for teacher self-Efficacy theory.	136
Implications for practice in teacher education.....	138
Introducing teacher self-efficacy in teacher education programs.	139
Reforming in-service training.	139
Enhancing teachers' self-efficacy.	140
Directions for Future Research	141
Conclusion.....	142
APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER WITH INFORMATION SHEET	144
APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM	148
APPENDIX C: TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS.....	152
APPENDIX D: TEACHER SENSE OF EFFICACY SCALE – TSES.....	153
APPENDIX E: PRE-CLASSROOM OBSERVATION INTERVIEW.....	155
APPENDIX F: POST-CLASSROOM OBSERVATION INTERVIEW	156
APPENDIX G: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL	157
APPENDIX H: OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW	170
APPENDIX I: PERMISSION FOR USING TSES	171
APPENDIX J: LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION	172
APPENDIX K: IRB APPROVAL.....	173
REFERENCES	175
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	183

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Template of Research Design	59
Table 4.2 Sample of the Study	61
Table 4.3 Profile of 12 Omani EFL Teachers	62
Table 4.4 Reliability Statistics	65
Table 4.5 Data Sources and Research Questions	67
Table 4.6 Timeline of Research Activities	70
Table 5.1 Study Participants by Gender	85
Table 5.2 Study Participants by Age.....	86
Table 5.3 Study Participants by Teaching Experience	86
Table 5.4 Descriptive Statistics for Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy	88
Table 5.5 Group Statistics	91
Table 5.6 Independent Samples Tests.....	92
Table 5.7 Standardized Coefficients and R Square of Teachers' Self-Efficacy	97
Table 5.8 Correlations between DV and IVs	98
Table 5.9 Sources of Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy - Document 1	106
Table 5.10 Factors that Influence Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy - Document 2	107
Table 5.11 Selected 12 Teachers' Characteristics	110
Table 5.12 Teachers' Level of Teaching Quality	111

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 6.1 Sources of Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy	124
Figure 6.2 Factors that Influence Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy	129
Figure 6.3 Teacher's Self-Efficacy Beliefs & Teacher's Practice	133

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Founded in social cognitive theory, Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy beliefs as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance” (p. 391). Hence, self-efficacy beliefs are considered as the major mediator for people’s behavior change. Bandura (1986) argues that people’s beliefs in their abilities strongly affect their motivation, behavior, and eventually their success or failure. He also argues that since self-efficacy beliefs are obviously self-referent in nature and directed toward perceived abilities regarding a specific task, they are considered to be powerfully predictors of behavior (Bandura, 1997). This argument has been supported by the research literature in different fields, such as clinical settings (Bandura, 1983) and educational field (Pajares, 1996). In education, self-efficacy beliefs are usually associated with academic achievements and regulated learning (Pajares, 1996).

Based on the theoretical foundations of self-efficacy beliefs in Bandura’s social cognitive theory, a teacher’s self-efficacy is defined as “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 & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p.223). Therefore, teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs are understood as self-perceived beliefs by the teachers about their abilities to carry out certain teaching tasks in a specific teaching context, successfully. Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) indicate that self-efficacy beliefs are goal-directed, domain and task-specific. They state that “teachers feel efficacious for teaching particular subjects to certain students in specific settings, and they can be expected to feel more or less efficacious under different circumstances” (p. 220) depending on the task or context. Teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to

challenge themselves with difficult teaching tasks and be intrinsically motivated (Bandura, 1997).

Research in teacher self-efficacy has projected the powerful impact of self-efficacy beliefs in determining success and failure in different educational contexts and tasks. Mostly, literature research has shown that teacher self-efficacy has powerful impacts on different aspects of teaching and learning (Henson, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In teaching, for instance, different studies have proved that teacher self-efficacy positively affects teachers' classroom management (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990), persistence in carrying out difficult teaching tasks (Milner, 2002; Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003; Ross, 1998), planning and organization (Allinder, 1994), motivation and instructional behavior (Allinder, 1994), and job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003). In regard to learning, teacher self-efficacy has indirectly affected students' future learning, achievement, motivation, and self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares, 2003; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Along with investigating the influence of teacher self-efficacy in teaching and learning tasks, researchers have also explored teacher self-efficacy in specific subject areas (Chacón, 2005). For instance, in science, teacher self-efficacy in teaching different aspects of this subject has been actively investigated in different contexts (Bleicher, 2004; Roberts & Henson, 2000). Also, teacher self-efficacy of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) has been explored, despite the limitation of this exploration (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Huangfu, 2012; Sabokrouh, 2013; Wyatt, 2010; Yilmaz, 2011).

As teacher self-efficacy is subject to ongoing debate regarding its meaning and the way it is measured (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), research has witnessed using various terms with some differences in meaning to refer to teacher self-efficacy such as teacher

efficacy beliefs and teachers' sense of efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Based on Bandura's (1977, 1997) theoretical foundation of self-efficacy, many researchers have argued that self-efficacy regarding specific behavior should be measured within the context of that behavior (Pajares, 1996). Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argue that teacher self-efficacy is currently in the stage of inquiry despite the compelling findings from research. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) clarify that by stating that "teachers' beliefs about their own capacities as teachers somehow... enjoyed a celebrated childhood, producing compelling findings in almost every study, but it has also struggled through the difficult, if inevitable, identity crisis of adolescence" (p.202).

Considering the role of teacher self-efficacy in influencing teachers' behavior and students' learning, ongoing research on EFL teacher self-efficacy is valuable to the educational field generally and to the field of EFL particularly. However, research on teacher self-efficacy beliefs has been theoretically confused. Most of the research into EFL teacher self-efficacy has used quantitative methodologies (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2010) to explore the construct. Moreover, quantitative studies have utilized methods that depend on teacher self-reports to assess teachers' self-efficacy. These EFL studies, in fact, failed to investigate the relationship between teachers' perception of their self-efficacy beliefs and their actual behavior or performance in the classroom (Wheatley, 2005; Wyatt, 2010).

In an attempt to advance and improve the research on teacher self-efficacy, this study was conducted to explore Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs of teaching English, the sources they utilized to form their self-efficacy, the factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language. The study shed some light on the theoretical foundation of EFL teacher self-efficacy. It also enriched teacher education and teacher

development programs in Oman specifically and elsewhere generally with a view of improving the quality of training for EFL teachers.

Statement of the Problem

The most valuable piece of information gained through my experiences as a teacher trainer in the Ministry of Education in Oman comes from my training, observations and feedback of Omani teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL). In an attempt to improve students' English, the Ministry of Education in Oman is constantly providing in-service training for EFL teachers at all grade levels for the past 25 years. The training contains workshops and short courses, and it is conducted in different training centers throughout the country. In addition, the ministry has introduced a new system of education called Basic Education (started in the academic year 1998-1999) where English is taught from grade one through grade twelve. I had the opportunity to train Omani EFL teachers through several courses designed by the training department (courses such as Basic Education Courses: Cycle One and Cycle Two, Post-Basic Education, Research for Professional Development, etc.).

Despite the ministry's effort to improve students' English language, facts and figures showed that the majority of students had low language proficiency; they lacked the ability to use English effectively and appropriately in basic daily living situations (Al-Issa 2010; 2011). Therefore, the Ministry of Education emphasized the necessity of in-service EFL teachers' training to improve teachers' teaching abilities and knowledge and provide them with the needed skills to help students meet academic requirements and standards (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012).

However, one shortcoming associated with EFL teachers was their performance inside the classroom (Al-Issa, 2011). Omani EFL teachers seemed to lack the practical knowledge and experience due to their inadequate training (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2010). It seemed that EFL teachers had no persistence in facing the challenges of teaching different

types of EFL tasks. The teachers appeared to “get fed up quickly and give up when they do not get an immediate response from their students” (Al-Mahrooqi, 2012, p. 265). Throughout my experiences observing EFL teacher trainees, I noticed that most of them lacked confidence in their EFL teaching. They followed “safe teaching routines by total adherence to the prescribed steps in the teacher’s guide” (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012, p. 149) book and emphasized rote learning at the expense of exploring varied instructional strategies that might be more appropriate for students.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argue that teachers’ expectations and behaviors are influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs tend to exhibit higher organization and planning, willingness to experiment with new teaching methods and ideas, persistence and resilience in difficulties of teaching, and critical sensitivity to students’ learning (Jerald, 2007). As far as Omani EFL teachers are concerned, I had a strong belief that these teachers might have the content knowledge and teaching skills of English language, but sometimes lacked the confidence to teach English in a way that would promote their students’ learning. The ability to teach English language depends on the confidence and beliefs of Omani EFL teachers in their ability to teach the language effectively. Their self-efficacy beliefs can potentially influence the teaching environment they create and the various instructional methods they use in the classroom (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008). In addition, teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs affect their students’ achievement positively (Navidinia, Mousavi & Shirazizade, 2009; Saeidi & Kalantarypour, 2011).

Nevertheless, research on EFL teacher self-efficacy beliefs has not been successful in clarifying the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and EFL teachers’ behavior in the classroom. Hence, there is a need for exploring the relationship between Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy and their ability to teach English as a foreign language effectively. In the field of EFL teaching, no study has investigated the relationship between teacher self-

efficacy and teachers' behavior in the classroom. In addition, no study has explored Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy in teaching English. Therefore, this study aimed to explore Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in relation to their teaching English as a foreign language, the sources these teachers utilized to form their self-efficacy, the factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore Omani EFL Cycle Two (schools that include grades 5 to 10) teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In doing so, the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for (a) engaging students, (b) classroom management, and (c) instructional strategies were measured. In addition, the relationship of the variables, years of teaching and training courses with teachers' self-efficacy beliefs was investigated. More specifically, the study investigated whether years of teaching and training courses could predict teachers' self-efficacy beliefs or not. Also, the study investigated the sources that composed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and the factors influenced these teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, the study examined the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Researchers on teacher self-efficacy have recommended the inclusion of qualitative data to deepen the understanding of how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs affect their teaching practices and to explore the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching practices inside the classroom (Henson, 2002; Klassen et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Wheatley, 2005). The current literature on EFL teacher self-efficacy has been limited to quantitative methodologies. Hence, to achieve the purpose of this study, a mixed methods design, more specifically an explanatory mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2005) was used in this study. The study consisted of two phases. In the first phase, two

surveys (the demographic and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale- TSES) were distributed among the teacher participants. In the second phase, classroom observations and open-ended interviews were conducted with a purposeful sample of the same teacher participants. These qualitative methodologies were used to obtain deeper insights concerning answering Questions 3-5 of this study.

Significance of the Study

The study had theoretical and practical significance for Omani EFL teachers, Omani teacher trainers, teacher education programs and educators. This study helped EFL teachers and their trainers to extend their knowledge and understanding of the importance of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and the impacts of these beliefs on teachers' behavior and students' achievement. At the policy level, the study could help to identify and shape the components of EFL teacher professional development and training programs. Educational policy makers could utilize the results of the study to design quality professional development programs aimed specifically at enhancing EFL teachers' self-efficacy through utilizing different sources and factors of teachers' self-efficacy. In-service training programs could be designed based on EFL teachers' needs in compatible with their self-efficacy beliefs, so these programs could maintain and enhance teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The study also could help redesigning appropriate teacher education programs that promote understanding of EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their importance on teaching and learning through exploring related efficacy theories, sources, and factors of EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Furthermore, the study had the advantage of identifying other specific contextual factors that influenced Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy. Review of the previous research on EFL teacher self-efficacy suggested that more research is needed to investigate the existence of different contextual factors which may constitute teacher self-efficacy beliefs

(Klassen, 2004; Pajares, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, the present study aimed to explore the factors that influenced Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy.

At scholarly level, existing studies on EFL teacher self-efficacy beliefs suggested that there is a strong relationship between teacher self-efficacy and other factors connected to efficacy sources (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; 2010; Sabokrouh, 2013; Yilmaz, 2011). However, no study on EFL teacher self-efficacy has focused on the casual relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and the sources of these beliefs. As well, no study has explored the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching ability or teaching behaviors inside the classroom. This study aimed at addressing this gap; the study explored the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Moreover, most of the studies on EFL teacher self-efficacy were quantitative and used only a self-report questionnaire instrument which is not sufficient to gain an in-depth understanding of teacher self-efficacy (Henson, 2002; Klassen et al., 2011; Labone, 2004; Wheatley, 2005). However, mixed method approach was used in this study in order to obtain more detailed and specific information about the reality of how Omani EFL teachers perceived their self-efficacy beliefs and what sources and factors influenced constructing the teachers' beliefs.

Since teacher self-efficacy is context-specific (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), it was important to explore EFL teacher self-efficacy beliefs in its relative context which could help to make sound judgments about efficacy beliefs. There has been scarcity (almost no studies) in research on EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in Oman. Therefore, this study investigated Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and contributed significantly to this important area of teacher beliefs.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language. In doing so, the study measured the level of EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for students' engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Also, the study explored the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the variables, years of teaching and number of training courses. In addition, the sources of information for self-efficacy beliefs Omani EFL teachers utilized and the factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were investigated. Finally, the study investigated the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for: a) engaging students, b) classroom management, and c) instructional strategies among Omani EFL teachers in selected Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District in Oman?
2. Do teaching experiences and training courses predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?
3. What sources constitute Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?
4. What are the factors that influence Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?
5. What is the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language?

Based on literature review, the following research hypothesis was made for this study. Research Hypothesis 1: there is a statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the independent variables, (a) years of teaching and (b) training courses and the dependent variable, Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of key terms apply to this study.

Social cognitive theory views that people learn by watching others performing in social contexts. It uses the triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1986) to explain psychological functioning. In this causal model, personal factors, cognitive, behavior, and environmental events work as interacting determinants that influence each other in bidirectional way (Bandura, 1989).

Human agency is the capability of humans to control their thoughts, behaviors, and their external environments intentionally (Bandura, 2006).

Self-efficacy beliefs refer to “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p.3).

Teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs refer to “teachers’ beliefs in their capabilities of supporting learning in various task and context-specific cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social ways” (Wyatt, 2010, p. 603).

The terms “teacher self-efficacy”, “teachers’ sense of efficacy”, and “teachers’ efficacy beliefs” are used interchangeably in the present study.

Assumptions of the Study

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) state that “assumptions are so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist” (p. 62). The present study had some assumptions that were justified to be true. The underlying assumption of the present study was based on the premise that teacher self-efficacy beliefs have positive impacts on teachers’ teaching practices and students’ learning. The researcher assumed that such impacts of teacher self-efficacy would be applicable to the Omani EFL Cycle Two school teachers. Examining Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs were valuable on showing how effective these teachers’ efficacy beliefs in teaching and learning context of English as a foreign language.

Another major assumption related to this study, when the data were collected through self-reported surveys from teachers, was that those teachers answered honestly and truthfully. The researcher assumed that informing teachers that anonymity and confidentiality were preserved and participants were volunteers who had the right to withdraw from the study at any time, encouraged the participants to be honest and truthful in their answers.

A third assumption was that the sample of the study was representative of the population to which the researcher planned to make inferences. The researcher assumed that the sample of the study represented the population of the study because a stratified purposeful sampling was used in this study. The population of the study was divided into groups (male and females) and subgroups (teachers with high teaching achievement reports, teachers with average teaching achievement reports, and teachers with low teaching achievement reports) according to their annual reports that were accessed through English Department. The sample was then taken from each subgroup based on the ratio of the subgroup's size to the total data population.

Dissertation Outline

The present dissertation includes six chapters. This First Chapter provides an introduction to the background and context of the study. The purpose, the research questions and the significance of the study are also presented.

Chapter Two provides the theoretical framework upon which this study is built. To this end, Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy beliefs are first explained through discussing the theoretical foundation of social cognitive theory including human agency, the reciprocal determinism, and self-efficacy.

Chapter Three provides a review of the previous studies on EFL teachers' self-efficacy, their findings, and their limitations. As well, the context of English language teaching and in-service EFL teacher training in Oman are discussed.

Chapter Four provides a description of how the study was planned and conducted. It starts by stating the purpose of the study and the main research questions. The chapter also provides a full description of how the research design was selected for this study, how participants were selected and approached, and how research instruments were selected and developed. The instruments (the demographic survey, teacher sense of efficacy scale TSES, classroom observation protocol, and open-ended interview) are presented and described. In addition, data collection and analysis are presented and discussed. Finally, the chapter discusses the validity and the reliability of the study, the role of the researcher, and the ethical issues related to the study.

Chapter Five presents the results of the current study. It provides the results to the five questions in the study. In doing so, the chapter provides a summary of the data collected from the 120 EFL teachers in Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District, including the demographic characteristics of the participants and the statistical analyses of the data. The statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, an independent-samples-test, and multiple regression analyses. In addition, the major findings related to the sources of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these efficacy beliefs are presented. Finally, the chapter presents the findings related to the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Chapter Six presents summaries and discussions of the findings of the current study. Summary of the major findings is first provided. Then, the findings are explained and compared in relation to the theories and literature mentioned in the first and second chapters. This chapter also provides the limitations and implications of the study. Finally, suggestions for future research are noted and a final conclusion of the study is drawn.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Overview

This section reviews the theoretical foundations of teacher self-efficacy through discussing three major theories (social cognitive theory, locus of control theory, and attribution theory) that are related to teacher self-efficacy and highlighting some important differences between these theories. Social cognitive theory was particularly selected because it provides a sound basis for understanding teacher self-efficacy. The other two theories, locus of control and attribution were elaborated to provide more clarification for the main foundations of teachers' self-efficacy. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teacher self-efficacy was first explored by Rand (Research and Development) researchers on the basis of Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory. Elaboration on these two theories would also prevent misunderstanding of the theoretical framework used in this study to explore teacher self-efficacy as a result of the overlap between the three theories.

Hence, the theoretical foundation of social cognitive theory including human agency, the reciprocal determinism, and self-efficacy are first discussed. Then, the construct of self-efficacy in social cognitive theory is discussed. I also discuss the four sources of information of self-efficacy and relate them to the teaching context. In addition, I discuss various attempts to define teacher self-efficacy applying Bandura's (1986) definition of self-efficacy beliefs and highlight the limitations of these definitions. Lastly, the most related theories to self-efficacy: Rotter's theory of locus of control and attribution theory are discussed.

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory is different from the behaviorist theories in that it does not view human behavior change as only product of environmental or external

stimuli (Pajares, 2002). Unlike the behaviorist perspective, social cognitive theory rejects the idea that human behavior change is only a result of external stimuli; rather it assumes that behavior change is influenced by human thoughts. Bandura's social theory also differs from other theories that only believe in the influence of biological factors on human change and adaptation. Such theories fail (from a social cognitive theory perspective) to consider environmental and social influences on human change. In fact, social cognitive theory has emphasized the important roles of both: human agency and environmental factors in conceptualizing human adaptation and behavior change (Bandura, 1997).

According to social cognitive theory, people are viewed as active agents who contribute to their life circumstances, rather than being products of these circumstances (Bandura, 2006). Personal agency is socially developed through interaction with people and environment (Bandura, 2006). Bandura (2001, 2006) introduces four main properties of human agency including intentionality, forethought, self-reactiveness, and self-reflectiveness. Intentionality implies that agents carry out actions intentionally (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (2006), forethought refers to "the temporal extension of agency" (p.164), that allows agents to set goals and expect the outcomes in order to guide their effort. Self-reactiveness, on the other hand, refers to the ability to execute appropriate courses of actions and motive this execution (Bandura, 2006). Self-reflectiveness refers to the metacognitive ability of agents to reflect upon themselves and the adequacy of their thoughts and actions (Bandura, 2006).

In reaction to more reductionist theories, Bandura (1997) rejects that the self is seen as only object; "the self is not split into object and agent; rather, in self-reflection and self-influence, individuals are simultaneously agent and object" (p. 5). Bandura (1986) argues that dualistic view that considers mind and body as separate entities does not provide clarification for how "an immaterial mind and bodily events act on each other" (p. 17). From the

theoretical perspective of social cognitive theory, people are seen as self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating rather than as responsive members shaped by environmental and inner stimuli. Thus, the human agency in social cognitive theory does not operate independently. Instead, it functions in a dynamic interaction of personal, behavioral and environmental factors. This is the foundation of Bandura's (1986) conception of reciprocal determinism, which entails a multi-directional causational model suggesting that personal factors including cognition, biological events, behavior, and environmental factors create interaction that causes a 'triadic reciprocity.' The idea of reciprocal determinism suggests that personal factors affect behavior and environmental factors through cognitive interpretation of the events before responding. Bandura (1986) labels his theory as social cognitive theory instead of social theory to emphasize the importance of cognition in people's ability to create a reality, self-regulate, interpret information, and behave.

Self-efficacy beliefs. The concept of self-efficacy beliefs is central to human agency in Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Bandura (2006) conceives self-efficacy beliefs as the core foundation of human agency. He states that "unless people believe they can produce desired effects by their actions, they have little incentive to act, or to persevere in the face of difficulties" (p. 170). Thus, self-efficacy beliefs are described as the major mediators of human behavior change. This important role of self-efficacy beliefs is reflected in Bandura's (1977) article "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change." In this article, Bandura defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3).

Self-efficacy beliefs can be distinguished from other belief constructs, self-concept and self-esteem. Bandura (2006) argues that "the efficacy belief system is not a global trait but a differentiated set of beliefs linked to distinct realms of functioning" (p. 307). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is goal-directed, domain and task-specific depending on the

context. High self-efficacy in certain settings does not guarantee high efficacy in others. In contrast to self-efficacy, self-concept is “a composite view of oneself that is presumed to be formed through direct experience and evaluations adopted from significant others” (p. 10). Self-concept is then a constant general self-image adopted from others. To differentiate between self-efficacy and self-concept, take the example of a student who has high self-efficacy in English, this same student might have low self-efficacy in mathematics. However, the self-concept that the student generally constructs through others stays the same while studying different subject areas; it does not have the specificity that self-efficacy has.

Bandura (1997) also argues that self-efficacy beliefs differ from self-esteem beliefs which indicate a person “likes or dislikes oneself” (p.11). Self-efficacy is related to personal judgments of one’s capabilities of carrying out a task, whereas self-esteem is a judgment of one’s worthiness and value. One’s judgments of his or her capability to perform a task do not necessarily entail his or her self-esteem. For instance, the previous student’s personal judgments of his or her capabilities in mathematics are least likely to affect his or her self-esteem as a good student in general, unless he or she invests his or her self-esteem in studying mathematics. Generally, Bandura (1997) argues that self-efficacy predicts “the goals people set for themselves and their performance attainments, whereas self-esteem affects neither personal goals nor performance” (p. 11). Thus, self-efficacy appears to be different from the other broader constructs, self-concept and self-esteem in that it is domain-specific and goal-directed task depending on the surrounding circumstances such as the level of task difficulty, the judgments of one’s self-efficacy, and the generality of one’s self-efficacy judgments.

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs play a role in human functioning which implies that “people’s level of motivation, affective states, and actions are more based on what they believe than what is objectively true” (p. 2). Therefore, people’s behavior can be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their abilities than by what they are

essentially able to accomplish (Pajares, 2002). Perception of self-efficacy beliefs helps people to determine what to do with their knowledge and skills (Pajares, 2002). This justifies the mismatch between people's behavior and their actual capabilities in some contexts despite their possession of the required knowledge and skills. For example, many qualified people will have some doubts about their abilities to perform a task even with the fact they possess these abilities. On the contrary, other individuals might be confident about performing some tasks despite their lack of required knowledge and skills. Although beliefs do not sometimes match with reality, people are mostly guided by their beliefs when they involve in certain tasks (Pajares, 2002). Therefore, people's behavior and performance are better predicted by their self-efficacy beliefs than by their knowledge and skills (Pajares, 2002).

Bandura (1977) posits that self-efficacy beliefs influence how people behave in certain tasks, how they motivate themselves, and how they persevere in facing difficulties. At the same time, self-efficacy helps to determine how people view opportunities, and shape their outcome expectations (Bandura, 2006). Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs will have more resilience and perseverance in the face of difficulties, while others with low self-efficacy beliefs will suffer facing difficult tasks in which they might easily give up.

How do individuals construct their self-efficacy beliefs? This question will be answered in the following section.

Sources of self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1977, 1997) has identified four sources of information by which individuals construct their self-efficacy beliefs, including: enactive mastery experiences (performance accomplishments), vicarious learning experiences (modeling), verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. Enactive mastery experiences are efficacy information obtained from success and failure when performing certain tasks (Bandura, 1997). Success results in strengthening one's self-efficacy beliefs, whereas failure tends to weaken them. Vicarious learning experiences refer to efficacy information obtained

from “observing models perform a particular task including self-modeling” (Labone, 2004, p. 343). Observing others perform certain tasks provides people the chance to evaluate their capabilities to carry out similar tasks. When observing others’ accomplishments, people may compare themselves as performers in the same situations (Bandura, 1997).

Verbal persuasion refers to efficacy information obtained from others’ appraisals about one’s abilities to perform a task (Labone, 2004). Bandura (1997) argues that when people receive “evaluative feedback” (p. 101) from significant others in a form of verbal persuasion pertaining their accomplishments, people’s efficacy beliefs on their capabilities tend to be strengthened. Physiological arousal refers to the different affective states that influence individuals’ self-efficacy beliefs, such as mood, stress, and subjective threats. People usually process efficacy information they attain, evaluate them, then integrate them and use them to form their personal self-efficacy beliefs (Labone, 2004).

According to Bandura (1997), the most powerful source of information for self-efficacy that tends to strongly influence self-efficacy beliefs is enactive mastery experiences. When people believe that they have successfully performed a task, their self-efficacy is boosted which leads them to believe in their future success to accomplish the same task. Bandura (1997) highlights the importance of the difficulty level of a task and the external assistance level that people might receive when performing the task. He argues that self-efficacy is not enhanced if the external assistance to accomplish the task is substantial, especially if the task is easy. However, if the external assistance level is modest, especially in difficult tasks, it is most likely that self-efficacy will be enhanced.

Hence, Bandura’s (1977) previous argument indicates that certain external factors play a vital role in interpreting the sources of information that create self-efficacy beliefs. This means that in order for people to interpret a source of self-efficacy information, they

need some factors (from the surroundings) to guide their perception in the way in which they experience that source of information. Bandura (1986) states,

Observers' cognitive competencies and perceptual sets dispose them to look for some things but not others. Their expectations not only channel what they look for but partly affect what features they extract from observations and how they interpret what they see and hear. (p. 53)

These factors influence the sources people attend to, what they understand, and how they interpret the sources of information for self-efficacy. Thus, contextual factors act to provide adequate judgments and explanations for the efficacy sources of information. Without considering these factors in certain context, people will always misinterpret the sources of information for their self-efficacy. Usher and Pajares (2008) argue that,

The rich and often complex interplay among the sources of self-efficacy and between the sources and other environmental contingencies may create situations in which any given source is neither most influential nor especially predictive of self-efficacy in a particular context or with a particular group. (p.790)

Therefore, the conclusion that can be driven from this is that sources of efficacy information are different from factors that influence them. I argue based on the previous discussion that the factors have indirect impact on one's self-efficacy by influencing the sources of efficacy information. For instance, people with high self-efficacy beliefs may not feel confident about their abilities if they attend to negative factors in their context. This also suggests that different factors will influence self-efficacy beliefs differently according to the surrounding context. It also suggests that the sources and the factors of self-efficacy beliefs differ from a context to another.

In education, literature has shown that teacher self-efficacy is "highly influential in determining success and failure in all facets of education" (Wyatt, 2014). Different studies

have emphasized the powerful impact of teacher self-efficacy on teaching and learning (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The following section will focus on exploring teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs. In the context of teaching, Bandura (1997) argues that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs related to their teaching influence the learning environment they create for students' learning. Teachers with strong self-efficacy believe that difficult students can be teachable, especially if teachers devote extra time and effort. However, teachers with low self-efficacy believe that there is little they can do to teach difficult students. These teachers believe that students' success is controlled by external factors (Bandura, 1997) such as school environment. Hence, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs determine teachers' pedagogical actions and the consequences of these actions. Bandura (1997) states that,

Teachers who believe strongly in their ability to promote learning create mastery experiences for their students, but those beset by self-doubts about their instructional efficacy construct classroom environments that are likely to undermine students' judgments of their abilities and their cognitive development. (p. 241)

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) point out that teachers' expectations and behaviors are influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers appear to evaluate their performances by using three independent efficacy assessments: personal teaching efficacy (PTE), general teaching efficacy (GTE), and collective efficacy (Goddard et al., 2000; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998). Collective teacher efficacy refers to "teachers' beliefs about the collective (not individual) capability of a faculty to influence student achievement; it refers to the perceptions of teachers that the efforts of the faculty of a school will have a positive effect on student achievement" (Goddard et al., 2000, p. 486). This definition is actually an application of Bandura's (1997) extension of his theory to incorporate mechanisms of collective agency.

According to Bandura (1997), collective efficacy is “the groups’ shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments” (p. 477). Since the focus of this study is on teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, collective efficacy beliefs will not be further explored.

General teaching efficacy (GTE) refers to the teacher’s general beliefs about the power of external factors affecting teaching and students’ learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), whereas personal teaching efficacy (PTE) refers to the teacher’s personal beliefs about his or her capabilities to accomplish desired outcomes on students’ learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) use the term, “teachers’ sense of efficacy,” instead of teachers’ self-efficacy. According to them, teachers’ sense of efficacy is “teachers’ judgments in their capability to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated” (p. 783). Research has found that both constructs (GTE and PTE) are independent (Goddard et al., 2000; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). For instance, a teacher may believe that he or she is able to teach difficult students, while he or she lacks confidence in his or her personal teaching ability. This can be explained by the impact of contextual factors that were discussed in the previous section. The teacher mentioned in the example could have attended to some factors that influence his or her judgments about his or her teaching abilities.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) confirm Bandura’s (1997) sources of information for efficacy beliefs in their theoretical model of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. According to them, teachers’ judgment of their capabilities to accomplish certain teaching task can only happen in actual teaching situations. Therefore, enactive mastery experience is the most influential source of information for teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The second source of information is vicarious experience or modeling and is considered a powerful tool for assessing teachers’ efficacy, especially those of preservice teachers

(Labone, 2004; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). When less experienced teachers observe experienced teachers performing a task which is similar to theirs, less experienced teachers' efficacy beliefs are enhanced.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) also argue that verbal persuasion, general or specific can "provide information about the nature of teaching, give encouragement and strategies for overcoming situational obstacles, and provide specific feedback about a teacher's performance" (p. 219). Regarding physiological arousal, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) argue that a high level of arousal can weaken teachers' functioning of their capabilities and skills, while modest level of arousal can improve teachers' performance by making them more focused on the task.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) also emphasize the role of contextual factors in understanding the self-efficacy sources of information. They argue that such contextual factors may cause different impacts on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Also, these factors influence the interpretations and the availability of the self-efficacy sources of information since the teacher self-efficacy is task and context-specific (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

While Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) definition of teachers' self-efficacy (previously mentioned) recognizes students' involvement in their learning, it unfortunately appears to be limited in some ways (Wyatt, 2014). First, this definition does not reflect the complexity of teaching (Wyatt, 2014). It highlights teachers' management of their students' behavior which shows only one part of teachers' profession. However, as Borg (2003) suggests, teachers in reality work within "complex, practically oriented, personalized and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs" (p. 81). Second, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) definition of teachers' self-efficacy focuses on "an agent-ends" (Wyatt, 2014) or outcomes of teachers' beliefs, and fails to reflect "agent-means" (Wyatt, 2014) beliefs. In reality of teaching, teachers tend to reflect on both, agent-

means beliefs (e.g. am I using effective teaching methods?) and agent-ends beliefs (e.g. are students learning?). Third, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) definition of teachers' self-efficacy is very general (Dellinger, Bobbett, & Ellett, 2008) and does not reflect the task-specificity that characterizes self-efficacy beliefs.

Grounded on the theoretical basis of self-efficacy in Bandura's (1997) theory, Dellinger et al. (2008) define teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as teachers' "individual beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific teaching tasks at a specified level of quality in a specified situation" (p. 752). Contrary to Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) definition of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, this definition focuses on teachers' agent-means beliefs (Wheatley, 2005). However, Dellinger et al.'s (2008) definition fails to consider teachers' beliefs about learning outcomes (e.g. whether students are engaged in learning).

In an attempt to provide a complete definition of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs that mirrors Bandura's (1997) theoretical foundation of self-efficacy, Wyatt (2010) defines teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as "teachers' beliefs in their capabilities of supporting learning in various task and context-specific cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social ways" (p. 603). This definition, to some extent, reflects the complexity of teaching. It combines both teachers' beliefs of 'agent-means' and 'agent-ends'. In addition, it incorporates the task-specificity that categorizes self-efficacy beliefs.

Generally, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are teachers' beliefs of their abilities to perform the actions to produce the desired outcomes within domain-specific and goal-directed task. Just as it is explained by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), "teachers feel efficacious for teaching particular subjects to certain students in specific settings, and they can be expected to feel more or less efficacious under different circumstances" (p. 220). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy beliefs are crucial parameters in determining teachers' behavior and actions in the classroom, and their influence on students' achievement. Hence,

Bandura's (1997) theoretical foundation of self-efficacy was used as a theoretical framework to guide this study.

This theoretical foundation of teacher self-efficacy led me to carefully consider the framework for measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Additionally, it guided me to explore specific research questions of this study. I have argued for the importance of differentiating between the sources of information for self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influence the interpretation of these sources. I have explained that the factors may have indirect impacts on one's self-efficacy beliefs through affecting the understanding of the efficacy sources of information. In this study, the main purpose was to explore Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, its sources, the factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Rotter's Locus of Control Theory

Another related theory to teacher self-efficacy beliefs is Rotter's (1966) locus of control. Locus of control can be confounded with teacher self-efficacy, therefore it is important to discuss how these constructs are related and how theoretical grounds of Rotter's locus of control is different from teacher self-efficacy.

The construct of teachers' self-efficacy was initiated in RAND (Research and Development) studies that aimed at evaluating whether teachers can control the reinforcement of their actions (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman, 1976). The RAND research on teacher self-efficacy beliefs was based on Rotter's (1966) locus of control construct developed in his social learning theory. The theory views behavior as an interaction between the environment and the individual's personal experiences (Rotter, 1966). Rotter's locus of control refers to "the degree to which

individuals believe they have control over their environment” (Bar-Tal & Bar-Zohar, 1977, p. 181).

According to Rotter (1966), locus of control is generalized expectancy beliefs of internal (self-initiated change orientation) versus external control (change comes from outside source or power) over behavior outcomes. Locus of control is viewed by Rotter (1966) as a one-dimensional construct ranging on a continuum from internal to external. Those people with internal locus of control believe that they are responsible for what happens to them. They think that they have the ability to change the results through their effort, personality strength, and intention (Rotter, 1966). However, people who have external locus of control believe that their life is determined by outside factors beyond their control (Rotter, 1966). These people tend to attribute outside sources or powers for the undesirable outcomes. For instance, a student with an internal locus of control will attribute the failure in getting high grade in a mathematic test to poor personal preparation, but a student with an external locus of control will attribute his or her failure to poor teaching or a difficult exam.

According to Rotter (1975), locus of control beliefs are developed from specific past experiences and reinforcement histories. Rotter (1975) proposes that these generalized control expectancy beliefs have great influence when a situation is new or ambiguous and low influence if the situation is known and expected, especially if a person knows how to react in that situation. RAND researchers have developed two items based on Rotter’s (1966) locus of control to measure teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). These items are:

- (1) “When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can’t do much because most of a student’s motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment”
(Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 204).

- (2) “If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 204).

The two items are assumed to assess whether teachers can control their students’ learning and motivation. Tschannen-Moran et al., (1998) note that if a teacher expresses strong agreement with item one, it indicates that external factors overwhelm the teacher’s power to make change over his or her students’ learning and motivation. Teachers’ beliefs about the power of external factors are called general teaching efficacy (GTE). However, if a teacher expresses strong agreement with item two, it indicates that he or she is confident in his or her ability to overcome factors that hinder students’ learning. This type of teachers’ beliefs is called personal teaching efficacy (PTE). The sum of the scores on both items (item one of GTE and item two of PTE) is called teacher efficacy (TE) which is defined by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) as “the extent to which a teacher believed that the consequences of teaching-student motivation and learning-were in the hands of the teacher, that is, internally controlled” (p. 205).

Despite that Rotter’s locus of control and Bandura’s self-efficacy are overlapped belief constructs, they are different in one main aspect. Locus of control is general and focuses on control of behavior (what you think is determining the behavior and affects the outcomes). It contains both beliefs, personal teaching efficacy (PTE) and general teaching efficacy (GTE). However, self-efficacy beliefs are related to individuals’ perceived capabilities to execute a course of actions required to perform a task and persevere in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 1977). This means that self-efficacy beliefs focus on one’s cognitions and feelings regarding confidence of performance level in a specific task (whether you can perform a specific task). Self-efficacy is goal-directed, and task and domain-specific (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1986) argues that a personal control system incorporates self-efficacy and other outcome expectation beliefs. For example, teachers might believe that they

can control their teaching and make change in their students' learning and motivation but at certain times, they may doubt their capabilities of teaching some tasks.

When investigating teacher self-efficacy in teacher education, a researcher must understand the theoretical basis of teacher self-efficacy and differentiate it from teachers' locus of control (Rotter 1966). Without understanding the difference between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and Rotter's (1966) locus of control beliefs, researchers intentionally focusing on investigating teacher self-efficacy might investigate teachers' general beliefs, which are often referred to as teaching efficacy. Bandura (1997) rejects the idea of general teaching efficacy (GTE) to be used in measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. He argues that "efficacy to surmount taxing conditions should be measured in terms of teachers' beliefs about their own efficacy to do so rather than about the efficacy of teachers in general" (p. 243). Additionally, some recent studies have proved that Rotter's external control is unrelated to teacher self-efficacy beliefs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Hence, when investigating teacher self-efficacy beliefs, as a researcher, I was aware of the effect of general teaching efficacy, which refers to the degree to which teachers believe that external factors limit what they can accomplish. In fact, this helped in exploring the external factors that influenced Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, which was one purpose of this study.

Attribution Theory

Another theory that is closely related to teacher self-efficacy is attribution theory. Based on Heider's (1958) attribution theory, Weiner (1986) has developed a theoretical framework that provides understanding of how individuals interpret events in their lives and how they identify the causes of their success and failure in certain situations. Weiner (1986) argues that the explanations of the causes of individuals' success or failure are important because they provide interpretation for the current behavior as well as a basis for future task

engagement. He believes that individuals' initial affective responses to success or failure can significantly influence the extent to which these individuals exert effort to attain future goals (Weiner, 1986).

According to the attribution theory, individuals follow a process of judgments that contains four aspects, which are: identification of the causes of failure or success, identification of the underlying attribution of these causes, eliciting the types of affective responses to attributional judgments, and how attributional judgments affect future behavior. These attributional judgments are called the attributional process (Weiner, 1986).

In regard to identify the underlying attribution of causes, Weiner (1986) developed his comprehensive model to explain the attributional responses along three causal dimensions. These dimensions are locus of control, stability, and controllability (Weiner, 1986). In his model and along the three dimensions, Weiner (1986) has placed four main attributional causes for success and failure including: ability, effort, difficulty of the task, and luck. The first dimension, locus of control defines the cause of outcomes as either internal or external (Weiner, 1986). For example, mood is internal cause, but effort is external cause. Locus of control is usually related to the types of affective responses people experience after certain outcomes. For example, confidence of students in certain subject areas is associated with internal cause of success in these subject areas. Weiner's (1986) locus of control dimension differs from Rotter's (1966) locus of control in that it focuses on the cause of an outcome rather than the control of a behavior. Internal attribution causes are, sometimes, not controllable (Weiner, 1986).

The second dimension of Weiner's (1986) attributional model refers to the stability of the causes. Some causes are assumed to be stable, such as ability. Other causes are seen less stable or unstable such as effort and luck. The stability is related to individuals' success. If outcomes are attributed to stable causes such as ability, these outcomes are repeated in the

future behavior. However, if outcomes are attributed to unstable causes such as luck, these outcomes are less likely to happen again.

The third dimension in Weiner's (1986) model is controllability which refers to whether causes are controllable. Some causes are controllable such as effort. Other causes are seen to be uncontrollable such as luck or interest. This controllability dimension is related to the amount of effort and perseverance individuals devote for a task.

There is a twofold relationship between Weiner's (1986) attribution theory and Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy. First, in self-efficacy theory, attribution forms one type of cues people use to evaluate efficacy. Attributional causes such as task difficulty and devoted effort influence performance indirectly through self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1986). Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs can be influenced by how they attribute causes of the outcomes, and their attributions of the outcomes can also be influenced by the confidence level they have to complete a task (Bandura, 1986). For example, individuals who succeed with huge effort are likely to judge themselves as less capable than those who succeed easily in the same task. According to Bandura (1986), success in easy tasks will not increase self-efficacy as much as success in difficult tasks. Hence, judgments of self-efficacy beliefs depend partially on attributional causes as a source of information.

Second, in regard to the difference between attribution theory and self-efficacy, attribution theory focuses on individuals' interpretations of their achievement outcomes. These individuals' attributions are usually judgments about their past experiences or events. In contrast, self-efficacy beliefs are judgments about future experiences or events (Bruning, Schraw, Norby, & Ronning, 2011). Although individuals' attributions for achievement outcomes can determine subsequent achievement effort (Weiner, 1992), these attributions do not necessary affect individuals' self-efficacy beliefs in performing certain tasks. Bandura

(1986) believes that individuals' self-efficacy beliefs are the major determinant of the task performance, devoted effort, and persistence.

When studying teacher self-efficacy beliefs in a teaching context, a researcher must know that attributions constitute one type of cues that teachers use to inform their self-efficacy beliefs. Attributional factors such as the exerted effort or the difficulty of a teaching task influence teachers' performance indirectly through self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). For example, teachers who spend more effort teaching a specific task are likely to judge themselves less capable than those who succeed easily. Also, success on a specific teaching task judged as easy is not likely to enhance teachers' self-efficacy as much as success on difficult teaching tasks. Hence, teacher self-efficacy is influenced by attributional factors partially with other contextual factors under which performances occur. Understanding the role of attributional factors on influencing teacher self-efficacy definitely helps researchers to be aware of different contextual and external factors that may affect the study on teacher self-efficacy. Two of the purposes of this study were: to explore the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and to investigate the factors that influenced these self-efficacy beliefs.

This summary of the three major theories that are related to teacher efficacy beliefs suggests that self-efficacy is a construct that composes behavior, cognitive, and affective components. This may make such construct overlapping with other constructs of belief such as self-esteem, self-concept, locus of control and attribution. Indeed, Rotter's (1966) locus of control and attribution theories have touched on some aspects and components of Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. However, locus of control and attribution appear to be general constructs, whereas self-efficacy is goal-directed, and task-specific. Bandura (1997) strongly argues that in order to arrive to accurate judgments about teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding their reaction in certain teaching situations or tasks, efficacy beliefs should be

measured in regard to teachers' beliefs about their capabilities to do these tasks. Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy attempts to integrate behavior, cognition, and affective components in order to reach to more accurate judgments about teachers' behavior. Therefore, Bandura's self-efficacy theory was utilized as a theoretical framework to inform this study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

As far as this study is concerned, Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were investigated, focusing on their personal teaching beliefs in regard to their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. The study also investigated the sources of efficacy information Omani EFL teachers used to build their self-efficacy beliefs. The factors that influenced EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were explored, as well. The study also explored the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the variables, years of teaching and number of training courses. Additionally, the study examined the relationship of EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Summary

This chapter has provided the theoretical framework upon which this study was built. To this end, Bandura's social cognitive theory and self-efficacy beliefs were first explained through discussing the theoretical foundations of social cognitive theory including human agency, the reciprocal determinism, and self-efficacy. Bandura's social cognitive theory conceives human functioning as the product of a dynamic interplay of personal, behavioral, and social influences. It has been highlighted that self-efficacy beliefs are considered as the foundation of human agency, influencing many aspects of human behavior such as choice of the task, motivation, effort, and attainment. Individuals construct their self-efficacy beliefs from four sources of information including: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal (Bandura, 1997).

In the teaching context, teachers use the sources of information to construct their efficacy beliefs. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are perceived to have direct impact on teachers' performance and practices. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs influence how much effort teachers make and how persistent they have in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Discussions of various attempts to define teacher self-efficacy beliefs applying Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theoretical foundations were then presented and the shortcomings of these definitions were highlighted. It has been realized that some definitions of teachers' self-efficacy are very general and do not reflect the task-specificity that characterize self-efficacy beliefs.

To illustrate the theoretical foundations of teacher self-efficacy and prevent any misinterpretation in measuring teacher self-efficacy when studying it in the teaching field, self-efficacy beliefs were explored in two main related theories: Rotter's (1966) locus of control and attribution theory. It has been explained that Rotter's (1966) locus of control is related to teachers' beliefs of control over their environment and these beliefs seem to be general. It was also highlighted that teachers' locus of control focuses on control over circumstances when self-efficacy beliefs are seen more specific to the task. In regard to attribution theory, it has been explained that teacher self-efficacy beliefs are indirectly influenced by teachers' attributions. However, teachers' attributions are less likely to provide accurate judgments about teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, especially in specific teaching situations.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

Teacher beliefs and their impact on teachers' cognition and teaching practices have been investigated over the last four decades. Teachers' behaviors are related to their beliefs and assumptions. One of the most important beliefs that have strong impact on teachers' behaviors and students' achievement are teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs help to determine the choices teachers make, the effort they put forth, the persistence and perseverance they show in the face of difficulties, and the degree of anxiety they experience as they involve in different teaching tasks (Bandura, 1997). These beliefs are proved to be “powerfully related to many meaningful educational outcomes such as teacher persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and instructional behavior, as well as student outcomes such as achievement, motivation, and self-efficacy belief” (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 783).

Recently, research on teacher self-efficacy has been increased, but concerns remain about the quality, methods, direction, and validity of the outcomes resulting from different studies (Dellinger et al. 2008; Goddard et al. 2004; Henson 2002; Klassen et al. 2011; Wheatley 2005; Wyatt, 2014). Despite the apparent value of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, research on teacher self-efficacy beliefs in the field of teaching English as foreign language (EFL) remains limited (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Chacón, 2005). Understanding the role of teacher self-efficacy helps improving teachers' practices and students' achievements (Sabokrouh, 2013). In this chapter, the researcher reviews studies on EFL teachers' self-efficacy, their findings, and their limitations. Additionally, the context of English language teaching and in-service EFL teacher training in Oman are discussed.

Review of Studies on EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy

Literature Selection and Review Process

To develop this literature review, the researcher examined some conceptual papers, literature reviews, and sixteen empirical studies in EFL teacher self-efficacy beliefs. These papers were selected through using main library databases (Sage, ERIC, JSTOR, and Scopus) and Advanced Google Scholar search engine. First, the researcher completed Sage search by using different combinations of the key words: *EFL teachers*, *self-efficacy*, *efficacy* and *sense of efficacy* since 1980 to 2015, focusing the research on two main journals: *Review of Educational Research* and *Review of Research in Education*. There were about 35 articles that were mixed between empirical studies and conceptual papers. However, the researcher had to exclude most of them because they were related to students' self-efficacy beliefs and pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs which were not the focus of this study. Second, the reference lists of some articles obtained from the initial search were used to locate additional, relevant studies. The researcher focused on the studies that were conducted on in-service EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. After the titles of these studies were selected, the researcher used the library databases mentioned previously to reach these articles. He also included other articles after checking in Google Scholar about EFL teacher self-efficacy and its relationship with different sources and factors of efficacy beliefs. However, despite this effort, the researcher acknowledged that potential methodological limitations could be present. Some studies might have been missed or were not presented through the used databases. Unfortunately, reviewing literature such as this could fail to locate and process all relevant research.

The researcher divided the literature into conceptual papers and empirical studies. The selection of the literature was based on whether (a) it addressed issues of EFL teachers' self-efficacy and its sources (b) it explored the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy

and its sources or factors that influence it. Drawing upon collected literature, sixteen empirical studies were divided into three groups. The first group of studies investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and different factors of enactive mastery experiences or performance accomplishments. The second group investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and different contextual factors. The third group investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and different demographic factors. The limitations of these studies were then highlighted.

EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Enactive Mastery Experiences

Bandura (1986) argues that “among the types of thoughts that affect action, none is more central or pervasive than people’s judgments of their capabilities to deal effectively with different realities” (p. 21). Many empirical studies have correlated high teacher self-efficacy with successful teacher behavior (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007). Teachers can also utilize different sources of information to build their efficacy information, including mastery experiences or performance accomplishments for succeeding in similar tasks (Bandura, 1986). The most influential source of information for teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is interpreting results from previous attainments, or mastery experiences (Bandura, 1986; 1997). The same case is applied to EFL teachers (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Sabokrouh, 2013; Yilmaz, 2011). After EFL teachers complete certain tasks related to their academic profession, they evaluate and interpret the final results, and based on these results, they make judgments about their abilities and competencies. When EFL teachers achieve success in certain tasks, their level of confidence to achieve similar tasks is raised. However, when they fail to achieve the desired outcomes, their confidence to succeed in similar tasks is reduced (Bandura, 1986, 1977).

The studies in this group investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and different factors of efficacy information that can be incorporated under

enactive mastery experiences or performance accomplishments (this is based on the sources of efficacy EFL teachers have attained in the studies). These factors are: EFL teachers' English practical knowledge (including English proficiency and teaching strategies), years of experiences, professional development, and students' achievement. The studies in this group had identified the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' performance accomplishments. By analyzing the findings of these studies, it appeared that EFL teachers' self-efficacy correlates positively with different factors classified under teachers' performance attainments or mastery experiences.

EFL teacher self-efficacy and English practical knowledge. Enactive mastery experiences or performance attainments encourage knowledge growth and more positive teachers' efficacy beliefs (Fives & Alexander, 2004). According to Borg (2006), knowledge of teachers is practical because most of teachers' knowledge is originated in practice and used to deal with practical issues in their profession. This knowledge is also personal and systematic, and dynamically evolves by professional and educational experiences (Borg, 2006). This practical knowledge includes many dimensions, such as subject matter, curriculum, and instruction (Elbaz, 1981). On the basis of collected literature, English practical knowledge includes English language proficiency and teaching strategies.

EFL teacher self-efficacy and English language proficiency. Many researchers have examined EFL teachers' self-efficacy (for classroom management, engagement, and instructional strategies) and its relationship with reported English proficiency (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Sabokrouh, 2013; Yilmaz, 2011). Using the version of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale based on Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) and two other adapted subscales (self-reported proficiency and pedagogical strategies), the findings obtained from these studies indicated that perceived EFL teachers' self-efficacy was positively correlated with teachers' perceived level of language proficiency. The results

showed that the EFL teachers who perceived themselves more proficient in the four basic skills of English (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), appeared to be more efficacious.

In another study, Zakeri and Alavi (2011) explored the relationship between novice English teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. Using English Teacher Knowledge Test (TKT) and an efficacy questionnaire, they found that there was a significant positive relationship between English Teachers Knowledge Test (TKT) and their self-efficacy beliefs. Iranian novice EFL teachers who scored high in TKT were those who had high teacher self-efficacy. This result confirmed what was found in other studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Sabokrouh, 2013; Yilmaz, 2011).

Drawing on data from proficiency test (TOEFL test, a PBT version), EIL (English as an International Language) attitude survey, and self-efficacy questionnaire (Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), Sabokrouh (2013) examined Iranian English institute teachers' English language proficiency, their attitudes toward English, and their relationship with teachers' self-efficacy. He found that both teachers' English proficiency and teachers' attitudes toward English are significantly related to all of teachers' self-efficacy dimensions. This means that teachers who had strong English proficiency and positive attitudes toward English believed that they had better abilities of using instructional strategies, dealing with classroom management issues, involving students in learning, and using more oral English. Efficacy for oral English use was found as an extra dimension of teacher self-efficacy. Sabokrouh (2013) suggested that oral target language use could be a significant dimension that should be considered when exploring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in teaching certain language.

EFL teacher self-efficacy and teaching strategies. Some studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their use of teaching strategies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Huangfu, 2012; Wyatt, 2010; Yilmaz, 2011). All

these studies were quantitative, except Wyatt's (2010) study, which was qualitative. The findings from these studies have shown that efficacious teachers used different teaching strategies.

Three studies from the previously mentioned were totally identical in their research methodology (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ylimaz, 2011). The results from these studies showed that EFL teachers' self-efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than self-efficacy for classroom management and students' engagement. Chacón (2005) found that the Venezuelan middle school English teachers had tendency to use grammar-oriented strategies in their classrooms. Teachers reported using strategies such as translation, memorization of dialogues, formal lectures, and choral and individual repetition. Teachers were more focusing on accuracy than fluency.

On the other hand, Chacón's (2005) study results contradicted what Eslami and Fatahi (2008) and Ylimaz (2011) found in their studies on Iranian and Turkish teachers, respectively. The results from their studies showed that both Iranian and Turkish EFL teachers are more inclined to use communicative-based strategies, especially those teachers who were more efficacious. The teachers justified their using of grammatical methods to explain complex English and grammar-related activities. The differences in the results could be explained in the light of teaching methodologies that suit certain type of students' level in language. Chacón's (2005) study was on Venezuelan middle school English teachers, whereas Eslami and Fatahi's (2008) and Ylimaz's (2011) studies were on Iranian and Turkish high school English teachers.

In exploring EFL teachers' motivational teaching behavior in regard to their self-efficacy, Huangfu (2012) examined the predictability of Chinese EFL teachers' self-efficacy for motivational teaching behavior. Using a questionnaire survey that included demographic information of teachers, their perception of self-efficacy (adapted from Ohio State teacher

efficacy scale; OSTES), and their motivational teaching behaviors in English classroom (adapted from Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System; TEBS-Self by Dellinger et al., 2008), Huangfu (2012), through descriptive statistics and multiple regression analyses, found that college EFL teachers had higher self-efficacy for instructional strategies more than self-efficacy for classroom management and student engagement. This result confirmed what other studies have found (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ylimaz, 2011). Multiple regression analyses in Huangfu's (2012) study showed that there was a causal relationship between teachers' motivational teaching behaviors and their self-efficacy beliefs. EFL teachers who perceived themselves more efficacious inclined to use more motivational teaching strategies. It also appeared that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for instructional strategies serve as the most powerful predictor of the teachers' motivational strategies use. The most two frequently used motivational strategies by teachers were strategies for generating students' initial motivation and strategies for protecting and maintaining students' motivation. The Chinese EFL teachers appeared to motivate their students to show interest in the schoolwork, use motivational strategies, and establish positive attitudes toward learning.

Using a longitudinal, qualitative case study, Wyatt (2010) explored how an English teacher's self-efficacy beliefs in using group work established, specifically with regard to the teacher's practical knowledge (including knowledge of learners and learning, curriculum, teaching techniques, school context, and teacher as a researcher of his own practice). Wyatt used several methods including: semi-structured interviews, observations, and analysis of the teacher's written assignments (reflective writing). The results of analyses showed that the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs and his practical knowledge were influenced negatively by other contextual factors such as school management and top-down curriculum. These contextual factors restricted the teacher's development in practical knowledge and self-efficacy. It appeared that the teacher needed more activities of hands-on practice in managing

group work, and more space in which the teacher can grow. This result confirmed that enactive mastery experiences have the most impact on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Wyatt (2010) suggested that more micro-teaching should be used in methodology modules in teacher education programs. He also suggested that greater flexibility is needed for teachers to practice materials and teaching in schools.

EFL teacher self-efficacy and years of experiences. Some studies have explored the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and years of teaching experiences (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011). The findings from these studies showed that more experienced teachers had higher self-efficacy than novice teachers. Using a survey that included Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and some information questions, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) and Alijanian (2012) found that experienced teachers (with more than three years of teaching experiences) had a significantly higher level of self-efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for instructional strategies compared to their novice counterparts.

The findings were discussed in the light of different sources of self-efficacy to which experienced or novice teachers might obtain (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010) and to the features of both, experienced and novice teachers (Alijanian, 2012). According to Akbari and Moradkhani (2010), it could be attributed for some factors that experienced teachers had higher self-efficacy than novice teachers. First, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) believed that experienced teachers took advantage of performance accomplishments as the strongest source of self-efficacy, whereas novices were more dependent on verbal persuasion. Second, novice teachers faced a reality shock in their first years of teaching which undermined their self-efficacy beliefs. Third, experienced teachers utilized more opportunities of training programs that enhanced their self-efficacy. Alijanian (2012) contributed this difference to the

knowledge difference between both experienced and novice teachers. He believed that experienced teachers were using learning styles and strategies that suited their students. However, novice teachers were more concerned about classroom management, especially how to control students' behavior and knowledge delivery.

Tajeddin and Khodaverdi (2011) used Dellinger, et al.'s (2008) Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self Form (TEBS-Self) (which consists of six sub-scales related to communication/ clarification, management/ climate, accommodating individual differences, motivation of students, managing learning routines, and higher order thinking skills) to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and years of experience. The findings showed that experienced teachers had stronger self-efficacy than novices significantly in two out of the six sub-scales of efficacy: communication/clarification and accommodating individual differences. The lack of significant difference in most of the sub-scales between experienced teachers and novices was attributed to three reasons based on literature (Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011). First, experienced teachers who had been in the field for a long time noticed that they had an insufficient knowledge about new approaches which made them hold a more realistic perception of their ability. Second, self-efficacy beliefs are future-oriented judgments intertwined with perceptions of competence rather than realized abilities. Consequently, when reporting self-efficacy, the difference between experienced and novice teachers declined. Third, novice teachers overestimate their self-efficacy because they want to promote their efficacy-related image.

EFL teacher self-efficacy and professional development. Bandura (1997) argues that positive changes in self-efficacy beliefs only come through "compelling feedback that forcefully disrupts the preexisting disbelief in one's capabilities" (p. 82). Accordingly, professional development can make some changes in teachers' beliefs of their capabilities. Karimi (2011) used a quantitative study that utilized the reliable survey instrument, Teacher

Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), to study the relationship between professional development and EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Two groups of EFL teachers (an experimental and control) were asked to complete the survey of the study in a pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test. After administering the pre-test on self-efficacy (no significant difference between the two groups), teachers in the experimental group received three 16-session courses in which they were provided with opportunities for professional development. The professional development included mentoring, study groups, in-service training, fellow observation/ assessment, and development/ improvement process. Then the two groups were compared on the post- and delayed post-tests. The results showed that the teachers in the treatment group attained significantly higher self-efficacy scores than the teachers in the control group.

The findings from Karimi's (2011) study can be attributed to the source of self-efficacy, mastery experiences which teachers in the treatment group utilized (Karimi, 2011). This source of efficacy-building information was reported to be the most significant factor in enhancing teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Teaching is a demanding profession which presents many challenges and obstacles to teachers regarding different areas of teaching such as student management, pedagogical knowledge, and content knowledge (Ross & Bruce, 2007). Professional development training provided teachers in the experimental group with mastery experiences in the areas of student and classroom management, content knowledge, and instructional strategies which enhanced their self-efficacy beliefs significantly.

EFL teachers' self-efficacy and students' achievement. Teacher self-efficacy is defined as a teacher's "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p.783). Two studies explored the

relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their students' language achievement (Navidinia et al., 2009; Saeidi & Kalantarypour, 2011). Researchers in these two studies almost used the same research methodologies: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen- Moran and Hoy (2001), Evaluation List of students' final scores, and Pearson correlation analysis. Findings from these two studies indicated a positive relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and students' achievement. These findings are consistent with Carpara et al.'s (2006) study which has found a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and increased students' achievement. The results are also in line with Bandura's (1997) judgment that teachers who have high self-efficacy beliefs about their capabilities can encourage their students and improve their cognitive abilities.

All the studies in this group help to understand the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the source of efficacy information, enactive mastery experiences or performance accomplishments through exploring the relationship with different factors that are attributed to this source of self-efficacy. The studies previously mentioned identify positive relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the following factors: English practical knowledge (including English proficiency and teaching strategies), years of experiences, professional development, and students' achievement. The results imply that EFL teachers' with strong self-efficacy beliefs are more experienced in teaching, more knowledgeable in terms of language proficiency and teaching strategies, and more inclined to achieve better outcomes with their students' achievement. It also appears that the EFL teachers in these studies who had higher self-efficacy have attained and utilized from mastery experiences or performance attainments as the strongest source of self-efficacy (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Wyatt, 2010). Wyatt (2010) and other researchers in these studies have suggested that teachers should utilize different opportunities to practice more

varied teaching experiences in order to elevate their sense of self-efficacy. Hence, the results in these studies have confirmed that enactive mastery experiences or performance attainments have mostly influenced teachers' self-efficacy positively (Bandura, 1997).

Evidence from these studies only provides a partial view of the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and different factors that are attributed to enactive mastery experiences source of self-efficacy. Most of the findings in these studies are based on self-reported data, which implies some limitations. Also, all the studies are quantitative except Wyatt's (2010) and interpretations of the results might be limited by the quantitative used instruments. Almost all the studies have used Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen- Moran and Hoy (2001), which is critiqued for being general and not grounded in the context of the foreign language classroom (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Dellinger et al., 2008). Even in Wyatt's (2010) qualitative study, observational data are limited to six lessons and a single case. Furthermore, it is difficult to identify the relative impact of certain factors on EFL teachers' self-efficacy or to prove a causal link between them without investigating the real sources of information EFL teachers use to build self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, these studies are limited to their contexts and the number of participants in each study in which conclusions from these studies are difficult to be generalized.

EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Demographic Factors

The second group includes studies that explored EFL teachers' self-efficacy with different factors, such as gender, age and academic degree. This classification is based on literature (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). As a factor, gender might influence EFL teachers' professional lives, especially their self-efficacy perceptions (Karimvand, 2011). The dominance of gender and social relations impact teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In education settings, professional females are usually marginalized and subordinate to male authorities,

especially in professional interactions (Bartlett, 2005). As Bandura (1977) argues that self-efficacy beliefs are shaped and reconstructed through individuals' social experiences and interactions, it is possible then that unequal power dynamics affect male and female EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Studies which investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender are few (Alijanian, 2012; Karimvand, 2011; Nejati et al., 2014; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011) and have yielded vastly different results. Tajeddin and Khodaverdi (2011), using Dellinger et al.'s (2008) Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self Form (TEBS-Self), concluded that no significant gender differences were found. The findings showed only marginal gender differences in nearly all dimensions of efficacy in favor of male teachers. Statistically, male teachers had stronger self-efficacy for motivation of students. Tajeddin and Khodaverdi (2011) attributed this result to the male teachers' perception of having more authority to inspire students. On the contrary, Alijanian (2012), using Teacher Self-efficacy scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), found that female teachers had higher self-efficacy beliefs. This result was attributed to males were not interested in teaching as a profession due to some socioeconomic factors.

On the other hand, Nejati et al. (2014) found that no difference in self-efficacy beliefs for classroom management between male and female teachers. However, their self-efficacy beliefs for students' engagement and instructional strategies were different; male teachers were better at students' engagement, while female teachers were better at instructional strategies. Karimvand (2011) concluded that no significant relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender. However, it was found that female teachers had higher self-efficacy in general, and self-efficacy for monitoring, feedback for learning, and accommodating individual differences, in particular. Yet these findings must be treated

cautiously because the female teachers in this study had generally taught for longer periods of time than the male teachers (Karimvand, 2011).

It is clear that the four studies focused on exploring the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender fail to show a general direction; the picture is even less clear because these studies present contradicting results. Unfortunately, the four studies are quantitative and seem to be few relatively to pin down a clear picture on the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender. Additionally, the shortcomings of these studies concern the limitations of their research methodologies. These studies used two different teachers' efficacy beliefs scales (Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self Form - TEBS-Self by Dellinger et al., 2008 and Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale - TSES developed by Tschannen- Moran and Hoy, 2001), which indicates possibilities for different results. In addition, the findings from these studies were based on self-report questionnaire which is not sufficient to gain an in-depth understanding of the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender. These studies did not investigate the link between the sources of information for EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and gender. The effect on EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs might not be related to gender, rather than other factors.

EFL Teacher Self-Efficacy and Contextual Factors

As for this group, it is assumed that teacher self-efficacy is a kind of context-specific construct (Bandura, 1997; Chacón, 2005; Dellinger et al., 2008) and is formed within a particular environment (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, it is expected to be affected by such factors as school environment (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Studies that explored the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and other contextual factors are few (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Alijanian, 2012).

Drawing on data from 40 Iranian EFL teachers (20 from public schools and 20 from private schools), Alijanian (2012) explored the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy

beliefs and working environment. The results indicated that working environment can affect teachers' self-efficacy beliefs significantly. Teachers reported that students in private institutes were more interested in learning and they usually came from higher socioeconomic families compared to public school students. The environment in private schools was more encouraging for teachers. Teachers were more cooperative and had more access for different learning resources and high quality of textbooks. While in public schools, teachers were restricted in terms of materials, learning resources, and curriculum. The results of this study confirmed what other studies found (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Roles of collegial support and school environment are keys in building teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Alijanian, 2012).

On the other hand, Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) argue that the available instruments for measuring teacher self-efficacy are general in terms of both their subject matter and context. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are sensitive to the context and subject matter which is taught (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Wheatley, 2005). To compensate for this generality, Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) conducted a study to design an efficacy instrument special to English language teaching setting. Based on Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy' (2001) efficacy instrument, Ashton et al.'s (1982) efficacy instrument, and a thorough analysis of literature on typical EFL teaching classes, a tentative theoretical model of EFL teacher efficacy was developed. The model was then crosschecked against the results of the observations and interviews with teachers and students. Then the model was designed into a scenario-based, Likert-scale EFT teacher efficacy instrument (ELTEI). The newly developed instrument was validated through administering it to 206 English language teachers, leading to some modifications in the model. The reliability of the ELTEI, using Cronbach alpha, turned out to be .83, which was at high level.

Studies that focused on exploring the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and contextual factors are extremely scarce. Only one study was found in the research of literature (Alijanian, 2012). The results from this study indicate that if EFL teachers have better access to more resources and materials in the school, and enjoy the collegial support, they are more likely to have higher self-efficacy beliefs (Alijanian, 2012). Unfortunately, these results are derived from one study, and thus cannot be generalized. In addition, the study in this category is quantitative and its results are based on self-report. To determine the reliability of the findings, further studies are needed to focus on observing teachers in real teaching contexts which can clarify the nature of the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and school environment. Regarding Akbari and Tavassoli' (2014) efficacy instrument (ELTEI), this instrument has not been used by other studies, so its validation has not been proved except by the experimental studies that were used to test this instrument. Further studies using this instrument can result in better understanding of its appropriateness for EFL teaching settings.

Limitations of the Studies

In the EFL teaching context, research studies examined teachers' self-efficacy in relation to a limited number of variables namely practical language knowledge (including English proficiency and teaching strategies), years of experience, professional development, students' achievement, teacher's gender, and school environment. Still not many research studies have been directed towards the development of self-efficacy and its relationship with different sources of efficacy. Most of the studies in the literature have investigated the correlation between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the variables mentioned previously. No study has focused on the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and the mentioned variables or the sources of efficacy. Moreover, the studies are quantitative except for one and the interpretations of findings are limited by the use of quantitative instruments.

A self-report questionnaire instrument is used in all the studies, so it is not sufficient to gain an in-depth understanding of teacher self-efficacy. Also, self-reported data implies some limitations. Teachers may have reported what they believed to be desirable instead of reporting the reality.

In the context of EFL, more studies are required to explore the sources of information EFL teachers use to build their self-efficacy. Qualitative or mixed methods studies should be used where EFL teachers can be observed in real teaching contexts. Such qualitative studies might provide clear evidence with respect to the findings in the literature. In addition, self-efficacy is sensitive to the context and subject matter in which is taught (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Wheatley, 2005), so using efficacy instrument that reflects the reality and complexity of language teaching is recommended to get clear results. Therefore, this study aims to bridge these gaps in related research.

Context of the Study

The Educational System

The Educational system in Oman is called “Basic Education” which includes: Cycle 1 (Grades 1-4) and Cycle 2 (Grades 5-10). This is followed by “Post-Basic Education” which includes Grades 11 and 12. Grade 12 is the last class in the system where students sit for National Exams in different subjects including English.

ELT and Students

Teaching of English language as a foreign language (EFL) in Oman is relatively new. It has been implemented in the Omani education system since 1970, when the Sultan Qaboos Bin Said came to the throne and started establishing the modern Oman. The official Omanis have ever since acknowledged the importance of English as an official foreign language that is used for multiple purposes locally and globally. Therefore, English receives special support from the government, in general and Ministry of Education, particularly (Al-Issa, 2006).

Students in Oman learn English for different purposes such as science and technology learning, pursuing higher education, and travelling to non-Arabic and English-speaking countries (Al-Issa, 2007).

Nonetheless, facts about EFL teaching in Oman showed that the majority of students who graduated from schools at grade 12, lack the ability to use English for personal and living purposes effectively (Al-Issa, 2006). For example, students who join higher education for science have to retake special foundation programs to learn English at their institutions (Al-Issa, 2010). Some of the reasons behind low performance in learning English were attributed to large classes (about 35-45 students in each classroom), textbook-based teaching, inappropriate teaching approaches, heavy teaching load, and short learning time (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012).

As a result, the Ministry of Education introduced some basic reforms in EFL teaching. In 1998–1999, the Ministry of Education introduced the Basic Education System that mentioned previously. It also made some changes in the curriculum content, textbooks, means of assessment and improved in-service teacher training. Nowadays, students start learning English from grade one along with the mother tongue, Arabic. They receive 5-7 periods per week and each period lasts for about 40 minutes. This means that students are learning English for about 3-4 hours per week. Each school is supposed to have special language classrooms that include all the materials required to learn a language. However, in reality this is not always the case (Al-Jardani, 2012), as some schools lack such facilities. In general, students are rarely exposed to English. Very few of them have the opportunity to listen to English at home through their parents, TV channels, or the Internet. Hence, it is difficult for EFL teachers to create more opportunities for the students to practice English outside the classroom.

EFL Teachers

The majority of Omani EFL teachers in public schools hold a Bachelor degree in education, English language teaching. Few of them hold a Master degree. EFL teachers have a minimum workload of 20 periods per week, but some of them might have up to 28 periods per week, especially if there is a shortage of teachers in their located schools (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). These teachers have also other administrative and technical responsibilities. Generally, teaching is not considered a socially prestigious profession in Oman, especially among male teachers (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012).

One of the main important shortcomings in EFL teaching is associated with the teachers' teaching performance and using appropriate teaching methods inside the classroom (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). According to Al-Issa and Al-Bulushi (2012), this shortcoming is caused by the conflict of cultural and training backgrounds. Hence, the Ministry of Education have decided to reform EFL teaching by taking further steps into funding in-service teacher training and rewarding some distinguished EFL teachers with opportunities for graduate studies in EFL, TESOL and Applied Linguistics.

In-Service EFL Teacher Training

In-service training is one type of the professional incentives that the Ministry of Education in Oman is providing to its EFL teachers. In-service training helps EFL teachers to improve their teaching practices and continue their expertise (Nunan et al., 1987). The Ministry of Education believes that Omani EFL teachers have to be competent and capable of having considerable impact on teaching and learning outcomes. Also, the ministry would like to see its EFL teachers showing more commitment to their teaching work (Nunan et al., 1987). Therefore, the Ministry of Education has been providing in-service training for EFL teachers and other teachers for the last 30 years (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). This in-service training consists of short courses and workshops and it aims at improving teachers' subject

knowledge and developing their teaching skills to help their students to meet academic needs and content standards.

EFL teacher in-service training is conducted and organized in different parts of Oman (usually in the training centers) by the English Language Training Department at the Ministry of Education. The in-service training courses are:

- Cycle One (1-4) Course: This in-service training course aims to develop the ability of teachers of English to teach in Cycle One Basic Education schools effectively. Participants develop their understanding and techniques of teaching English to very young learners. The course has a minimum of 50 contact hours.
- Cycle Two (5-10) Course: This in-service teacher training course aims to equip Cycle Two teachers with the knowledge, skills, and strategies to teach English effectively in Cycle Two Basic Education schools, Grades 5 to 10. The course has a minimum of 50 contact hours.
- Post Basic (11-12) Course: This is a short in-service course and it aims to equip teachers working in Post Basic Education schools with the knowledge, skills, and strategies to teach the new English curriculum effectively to students in Grades 11 and 12. It has a minimum of 25 contact hours.
- English Language Course for Teachers (ELCT): This course aims to develop teachers' ability to use English effectively in their practice. Teachers need to be familiar and confident with the English language they are expected to teach through the curriculum. They should also be able to use English correctly in the classroom (such as giving instructions and managing the class) and to be model for their learners. They also need to be able to discuss their teaching with others. This course has a minimum of 100 contact hours.

- Research for Professional Development (RPD) Course: This is a research course which aims at developing teachers' ability to conduct effective and meaningful research in their classrooms. Teachers are asked to conduct a research, write up their findings in a 3000-word report and hold a workshop or a presentation to share the findings and implications with other teachers and professionals. This course has a minimum of 80 contact hours.
- Senior English Teacher (SET) Course: This course aims to develop the Senior English Teachers' ability to fulfill their demanding roles in their schools. The course focuses on developing teachers' competencies in: supporting the professional development of English teachers in their schools (through individual support, workshops, peer observation, and classroom research), observing and discussing teaching, report writing, ensuring effective and appropriate assessment and evaluation, and establishing and maintaining effective administrative procedures. The course supports SETs throughout an academic year in two parts: part one is in the first semester and consists of 12 sessions of input. Part two is in the second semester and consists of 4 sessions of support for an action research project. This course has a minimum of 80 contact hours.

(Ministry of Education: 2005-2006)

In-service training is fundamental for EFL teachers who join public Basic Education schools. Once EFL teachers join teaching in public schools, they are provided with an on-going training and practical support. During the training courses, teachers are visited in their schools and provided with guidance and practical support by their EFL teacher trainers and supervisors. The whole process of training and supervision is carried out locally by the regional teacher trainers in cooperation with EFL supervisors and senior teachers.

It appears that improving EFL teachers' teaching practices is a matter of importance for the Ministry of Education in Oman. Consequently, these teachers will have the ability to help their students meet the content standards. Despite these efforts from the ministry, some EFL teachers appear to lack the confidence of teaching English effectively (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012). I know from my experience, as a teacher trainer, that some teachers are well trained on the current methods and pedagogies used in EFL teaching. Yet, these teachers are not confident about their teaching abilities. I agree with Bandura (1986), who argues that self-efficacy beliefs are the major mediator of behavior change. He argues that individuals' beliefs in their abilities strongly affect their motivation, behavior, and eventually their success or failure in carrying out a task. Hence, I argue that exploring Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy would help improving teaching and learning of English in the Omani context.

Summary

The main goal of this chapter was to review the studies on teacher self-efficacy in EFL settings. It appeared that few studies have explored the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and different sources and factors that compose and affect teacher self-efficacy such as English proficiency, teaching strategies, years of teaching, professional development, students' achievement, demographic factors (gender), and contextual factors (school environment). None of the studies has captured, in a direct way, the relationship between EFL teacher self-efficacy and its sources and factors. The studies have assumed the connection between EFL teacher self-efficacy and its sources based on the researchers' interpretation of the possible sources of efficacy teachers utilized. Also, the studies have reported what EFL teachers might have perceived to be a desirable self-efficacy through self-reported data.

To identify the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the sources of efficacy, observing EFL teachers in real teaching contexts is necessary. This also

provides evidence with respect to findings of the studies. Doing so would provide information about EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, the sources and factors of efficacy teachers depend on building their self-efficacy beliefs, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' teaching abilities and practices. Therefore, the present study was important to fill the gaps in literature mentioned previously. This study identified the sources of information that EFL teachers used to build their self-efficacy, the factors that influenced teachers' efficacy beliefs, and it investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' ability to teach English as a foreign language.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

Teaching is a demanding and complex profession that is considered “an amalgamation of principles, processes, skills, strategies, behaviors, beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes all of which could have great impacts on teaching and learning” (Berjandi & Hesari, 2010, p. 50). To perform effectively, teachers must attain to the pillars previously mentioned and be prepared accordingly. In regard to the complexity of teaching, teachers face difficulties and challenges that might prevent them from satisfying their teaching responsibilities and duties. For instance, some students are passive learners and lack interest in learning, which causes a great challenge for teachers (Berjandi & Hesari, 2010). Bandura (1997) argues that teachers’ beliefs about their instructional strategies affect the learning environment they create for their students’ learning. Those teachers with high self-efficacy in teaching believe that students with challenges can be taught, especially if teachers devote time and extra effort. However, teachers with low self-efficacy beliefs in teaching believe that there is little they can do to teach students with challenges. These teachers believe that students’ success is controlled by external factors (Bandura, 1997). Thus, teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs determine teachers’ pedagogical actions and perceptions of the consequences of these actions.

As the research has pointed that teacher self-efficacy beliefs are important to teaching and learning (Bandura, 1997), examining EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English is particularly useful in the Omani teaching context, where English is increasingly used in schools. The review of relevant theories and studies has identified some gaps in EFL teacher self-efficacy research literature, and the gaps include: the relationship between EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and their years of teaching and number of in-service training

courses, the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language, the sources of information that EFL teachers attain to build their self-efficacy, and the factors that influence these self-efficacy beliefs. These gaps in EFL teacher self-efficacy guided the researcher in articulating the research questions and aims of this study.

This chapter details how the study was planned and conducted. It starts by stating the purpose of the study and the main research questions. The chapter also provides a full description of how the research design was selected for this study, how participants were selected and approached, and how research instruments were selected and developed. The instruments (the demographic survey, teacher sense of efficacy scale TSES, classroom observation protocol, and open-ended interview) were presented and described. In addition, data collection and analysis were presented and discussed. Finally, the chapter discusses the validity and the reliability of the study, the role of the researcher, and the ethical issues related to this study.

Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to investigate Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, focusing on their personal teaching beliefs in relation to their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. In doing so, the study explored the level of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy for students' engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. The study also explored whether years of teaching and training courses can predict teachers' self-efficacy. Furthermore, it investigated the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and the factors that influenced these beliefs. Finally, the study investigated the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language in the classroom. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. What are the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for: a) engaging students, b) classroom management, and c) instructional strategies among Omani EFL teachers in selected Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District in Oman?
2. Do teaching experiences and training courses predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?

Hypothesis 1: teaching and training courses positively predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy.

3. What sources constitute Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?
4. What are the factors that influence Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?
5. What is the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language?

Research Design

According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teacher self-efficacy needs to be investigated through qualitative research, so it “can provide a thick, rich description of ... teacher self-efficacy” (p. 242). This study utilized an “explanatory mixed methods design” (Creswell, 2005, p. 515) to provide more detailed information about Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The rationale of using mixed methods design was its appropriateness in the light of the complex objectives of this study. The researcher needed to combine data from Omani EFL teachers' perceptions and the researcher's observation of the real teaching contexts. Mixed methods research is a broad term for a range of approaches that might be organized in different ways (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). One model of mixed methods research is the parallel model where quantitative and qualitative methods are run separately and simultaneously (Yin, 2006). This model was employed in this study (see Table 4.1).

Mixed methods design was a useful approach for this study because quantitative data were first collected and for more detailed and specific information, qualitative data were

obtained from specific participants (Creswell, 2005). The quantitative data (through self-efficacy instrument and demographic survey) provided a general picture about the perceived level of self-efficacy for Omani EFL teachers. However, the qualitative data (through interviews and observations) provided detailed and more complex picture about the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, the factors that influenced these efficacy beliefs, and the teachers' real capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. According to Creswell (2005), results from quantitative data provide "a general picture of the research problem; more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection, is needed to refine, extend, or explain the general picture" (p.515). This mixed method design started with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, which had the priority for addressing the first two questions of the study. This stage was followed by the subsequent collection and analysis of qualitative data, which addressed the last three questions of the study.

Table 4.1 Template of Research Design

Research Design	Qualitative/ quantitative relationship	Usage of quantitative data	Usage of qualitative data
Mixed-method study	Quantitative → Qualitative	Focus information Guide purposeful sampling	Explanation Validation Generating themes

Participants and Research Site

The population of this study comprised EFL Omani Cycle Two school teachers within one large urban school district in the north part of Oman called Dhahirah District.

Participants for this study were recruited through the English Department in The General Directorate of Education in Dhahirah District. The participants were chosen from the schools that were located in the same geographic location. The schools had almost similar facilities and students and teachers in these schools were coming from almost similar socioeconomic status backgrounds. For phase one of the study, 120 Omani EFL teachers from different

Cycle Two schools (middle schools that contain grades 5-10) were invited to participate in the study.

In general, Omani EFL teachers have different levels of self-efficacy: high, average, and low. These teachers' self-efficacy might be influenced by different sources and factors. Therefore, the researcher wanted to ensure that certain cases from the different levels of self-efficacy were included. For this reason, a stratified purposeful sampling (Sandelowski, 2000) was used in this study. According to Sandelowski (2000), stratified purposeful sampling is a combination of sampling technique "where the researcher wants to ensure that certain cases varying on preselected parameters are included" (p.250). This kind of sampling is "informationally representative" (p.250) from a purposeful sampling point of view. However, it is not "statistically representative" from probability standpoint (Sandelowski, 2000).

In order to obtain a stratified purposeful sample, the population of the study was divided into groups: males and females and subgroups: teachers with high teaching achievement reports, teachers with average teaching achievement reports, and teachers with low teaching achievement reports (see Table 4.2), according to their annual reports that were accessed through the English Department. The sample was then taken from each subgroup based on the ratio of the subgroup's size to the total data population (Hawkes & Marsh, 2004). Consequently, varied cases from both male and female teachers with high, average, and low self-efficacy beliefs were included in the study. According to Bandura (1997), teachers with high self-efficacy positively impact their teaching and students' learning. In this regard, the researcher assumed that teachers with high teaching achievement reports should have had high self-efficacy, teachers with average teaching achievement reports had average self-efficacy, and those with low teaching achievement reports had low self-efficacy. Additionally, factors such as gender, years of teaching, and number of training courses were

taken into consideration in selecting the sample, so the most variation of cases was achieved to some extent.

Table 4.2 Sample of Study

Level of teachers' report	Males	Females	Total
High teaching achievement reports	20	20	40
Average teaching achievement reports	20	20	40
Low teaching achievement reports	20	20	40
Total	60	60	120

In phase two of the study, another stratified purposeful sampling of 12 participants were selected from the 120 teacher participants who were selected for the initial survey in phase one of the study. These 12 participants were chosen for classroom observations and interviews. These participants came from the same groups and subgroups mentioned previously. When collecting qualitative data, the study sample was relatively small because the researcher focused on understanding the uniqueness and particularity of the participants and the context (Stake, 2010). The researcher selected the participants for this stage based on the “maximum variation sampling” (Seidman, 1998, p. 45). Selected participants represented males and females, had different ranges of teaching experiences, and had different levels of self-efficacy beliefs.

At the beginning, a group of the 12 teachers were chosen based on their results on the efficacy scales. However, when some of these teachers (about 5 teachers) were informed that they were chosen for the observations and interviews, they were reluctant to participate. It seemed that they were scared and shy, especially female teachers. Therefore, the researcher had to choose different participants who were classified under the same groups or subgroups. Detailed information about the 12 participants' background is given in Table 4.3. The researcher went to the research site and spent some time with participants to collect data. This helped in enriching the collecting qualitative data from this group in which helped deepening the understanding of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy.

Table 4.3 Profile of 12 Omani EFL Teachers

Subject	Gender	Qualification	Years of teaching	Number of training courses	Grade taught
Teacher 1	M	B.A	4	1	5
Teacher 2	M	B.A	2	1	7
Teacher 3	F	B.A	6	1	8
Teacher 4	F	B.A	7	1	10
Teacher 5	M	B.A	3	1	6
Teacher 6	M	B.A	2	1	5
Teacher 7	F	B.A	12	4	8
Teacher 8	F	B.A	5	1	8
Teacher 9	M	B.A	3	1	8
Teacher 10	M	B.A	3	1	6
Teacher 11	F	B.A	4	2	5
Teacher 12	F	B.A	6	2	10

To approach the potential participants, an official letter was sent to the Technical Office for Studies and Development at Ministry of Education in Oman, explaining the purpose of the study and its detail. Following this, the researcher contacted the English Department in Dhahirah Directorate and decided on the teacher participants according to the groups and subgroups mentioned before (Table 4.2). Then, the researcher met with the participants in the training center and delivered an introductory letter with information sheet (see Appendix A) and a copy of the consent form (see Appendix B) to the participants. The observations and the interviews were conducted in the school sites where the twelve teachers worked.

Instruments

The study was conducted utilizing two survey instruments (the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and a demographic survey), classroom observations, and open-ended interviews. This multiple-data collection, known as triangulation, was intended to increase the validity and reliability of the study. Triangulation combines different types of data and "relate them so as to counteract the threats to validity identified in each" (Berg, 1995, p. 5). Depending on self-report data from the efficacy survey to investigate teachers' self-efficacy implied certain built-in limitations. Teachers might report what they perceived to be desirable

instead of the reality. Therefore, classroom observations and interviews were used to obtain deep insight and understanding of EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs from the perspectives of those teachers being studied. The language, which was used in communication between the researcher and the participants was English, and was supported by Arabic in case of misunderstanding.

Demographic survey. In this study, the researcher developed a survey of teacher demographic characteristics (see Appendix C). The purpose of gathering teacher demographic information and including it in the statistical analysis was to collect data about the different variables in the study, especially years of teaching and training courses. These two variables were used to answer Question Two of the study by evaluating the ability of these two variables to predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy. The survey was field tested among some Omani EFL teachers to ensure that the questions were clear and to estimate the amount of time necessary to complete the survey. In this survey, participants were asked to report their age, gender, number of teaching years, number of training courses, number of training workshops, highest degree received, and grade level taught. The demographic survey contains eleven questions and entitled "Teacher Demographic Characteristics" (see Appendix C).

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES. Another instrument used in this study was the long version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). This instrument is copyrighted by the authors, but there were no restrictions for using it in scholarly research or non-profit educational purposes. In addition, the researcher got permission of using and adapting it for the study context (see Appendix I).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) initially developed the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale to provide a tool with strong validity and reliability in measuring teacher efficacy beliefs. This scale was examined by three studies and consequently both forms of

scales, a long form of 24 items (which was used in this study) and a short form of 12 items were developed (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The three studies consistently produced three factors: students' engagement, instructional strategies to teach EFL, and classroom management. Factor 1, efficacy for student engagement included 8 items: 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, and 22. Factor 2, efficacy for instructional strategies included 8 items: 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, and 24. Factor 3, efficacy for classroom management included 8 items: 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, and 21.

The long version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was adapted to fit the context of EFL by substituting "learning English" for "school work" in items 4, 6, 9, and 22. The scale consisted of 24 items including eight items for each of the three subscales: efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for instructional strategies, as mentioned previously. The items measured "how much an individual can do" in regards to efficacy for the three subscales: students' engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Participants responded using a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (indicating "nothing") to 9 (indicating "a great deal"). Examples of items are: "How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?" (efficacy for student engagement), "How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?" (efficacy for instructional strategies), and "How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?" (efficacy for classroom management) (see Appendix D).

The scale is "reasonably valid and reliable" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 801) and it is "useful tool for researchers interested in exploring the construct of teacher efficacy" (p. 801). In a previous study on the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) conducted by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) at the Ohio State University, the scale was administered to

teachers and the reliability of the subscales was .87 for Students' Engagement, .91 for Instructional Strategies, and .90 for Classroom Management.

In this study, the internal consistency reliability for the subscales of TSES was calculated through Cronbach's Alpha: .78 for Students' Engagement, .79 for Classroom Management, and .83 for Instructional Strategies. Table 3.4 shows the reliability statistics for the subscales.

Table 4.4 Reliability Statistics

The subscale of self-efficacy	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Students' engagement	.78	.78	8
Classroom management	.79	.80	8
Instructional strategies	.83	.83	8

Classroom observation protocol and pre- and post-classroom observation

interviews. In the second phase of the study, the 12 participants were recruited based on the results of the survey data collected in phase one of the study as mentioned previously. The distributed consent form along with the introductory letter that had information about the study provided details about the interviews such as estimated interview time and topics to be discussed in the interviews (see Appendix A and B).

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), observation is a good research tool to learn about participants' interactions and behaviors in natural settings. It helps the researcher to examine processes and situations typically hidden from the public and study the cultural aspects of a certain setting or phenomenon. To answer Research Question 5, the 12 participants' teaching practices were evaluated in real teaching contexts. However, effective English teaching is almost difficult to define. Therefore, specific criteria were needed for the purpose of systematic evaluation of effective English teaching. Hence, the researcher had adapted classroom observation protocol as a tool that provided systematic criteria for assessing effective teaching for the use of this study. The classroom observation protocol was

originally developed by the National Science Foundation and the Horizon Research Group (1998) to assess effective science teaching. For the purpose of this study, the tool was adapted to measure effective English teaching building on the same basis of the original one. The classroom observation protocol included effective English teaching domain ratings (using a Likert Scale: 1-5 with 5 indicating effective teaching) on design, implementation, English content, classroom culture, and a synthesized rating of the lesson. The overall rating scale consisted of 5 levels: level 1 (ineffective teaching), level 2 (elements of effective teaching), level 3 (beginning stages of effective teaching), level 4 (accomplished, effective teaching), and level 5 (exemplary teaching) (see Appendix G).

With the classroom observation protocol, pre and post classroom observation interviews that had questions to elicit teacher perceptions about the lesson goals, activities, assessments, future goals, challenges, and reflections of teaching were used. The answers for these questions were used to complete the overall rating of the lesson in part (V) of the classroom observation protocol (see Appendix G). The Horizon Classroom Observation Protocol can be found at Horizon's web site: <http://www.horizon-research.com/LSC/>.

Semi-structured, open-ended interview. Since the primary focus of this study is Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, it was important to understand the sources that composed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, the factors that influenced these beliefs, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language. For this purpose and in addition to the previous instruments, the researcher used an open-ended interview (Spradley, 1979) in order to provide further information and evidences related to Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, so the last three questions of the study were answered. The open-ended interviews helped the researcher to explore participants' experiences and perceptions in rich detail (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The open-ended interview consisted of twelve questions such as "What

are the factors that might affect your efficacy beliefs positively or negatively?” and “What composes your efficacy beliefs?” (see Appendix H).

Table 4.5 Data Sources and Research Questions

N	Research Questions	Research Tools
1.	What are the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for: a) engaging students, b) classroom management, and c) instructional strategies among Omani EFL teachers in selected Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District in Oman?	The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES
2.	Do years of teaching and training courses predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?	The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES & The demographic survey
3.	What sources constitute Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?	open-ended question & interviews
4.	What are the factors that influence Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?	open-ended question & interviews
5.	What is the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language?	The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES & Classroom observation protocol & interviews

Data collection

This study was conducted in two phases utilizing four instruments: two survey instruments (the demographic survey and the adapted Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale – Long Form by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), classroom observation protocol, and open-ended interviews. These instruments were distributed, conducted, and collected by the researcher at regularly scheduled school days during the months from February to May of the school year 2015/2016.

In phase one, when the participants were secured, they were asked to complete the two surveys. The participants were first given the introductory letter with information sheet that provided guidelines and information about the study (see Appendix A). Then, the consent forms (see Appendix B) were distributed among the participants to sign them. After that, the participants were asked to complete the demographic survey (see Appendix C) which required basic demographic information about the participants such as gender, age, years of experience teaching English, number of training courses, number of workshops, and educational backgrounds. This survey was important to answer Question Two of the study,

which concerned the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the two variables, years of teaching and training courses. Next, the efficacy survey (see Appendix D) was distributed among participants to complete. This survey included two parts. Part 1 consisted of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). This self-efficacy instrument was used since its validity has been proved in different teaching contexts and studies (Klassen et al., 2009). The efficacy scale part included three subscales: efficacy for students' engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies, and efficacy for classroom management. These subscales were used to answer Questions One, Two, and Five of the study. In the same survey, part 2 included two open-ended questions about sources of information that Omani EFL teachers mostly utilized to inform their self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs.

Data collection through the surveys in this study was conducted in different Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District where the selected participants worked. The researcher visited the participants in their schools after contacted them through the phone and scheduled meetings at their convenient time. On the day of first visits, the researcher explained the research study to the principal and vice principal, and obtained their permission to distribute the surveys in their schools. The schools' visits took place throughout February to May, 2015 on normal school days.

To reduce the stressful feeling that might have been produced on the participants, especially that some of them participated for the first time in a research study, the researcher explained the purpose of the study and reassured the participants of the confidentiality and privacy (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The participants were also asked to complete the surveys in group sessions which helped reducing such stress through peers' presence (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The researcher, furthermore, clarified that participation was voluntary and that participants could withdraw from the study at any time.

In phase two of the study, and based on the results of the teachers' self-efficacy survey, a purposeful sampling of 12 participants from the 120 teachers who participated in phase one were selected for semi-structured, open-ended interviews and classroom observations. The adapted evaluation criteria from the Horizon Research, Inc. (see Appendix G) for effective teaching were used to observe the 12 teachers in their classrooms. For this study, a total of 36 observations (including pre and post observation interviews) were completed using the mentioned criteria. Three observations were conducted for each participant. Each classroom observation covered a lesson and lasted for 45 minutes. Lessons covered a variety of topics and skills in English. The observations were all conducted by the researcher who was trained to do observations as part of his original job as a teacher trainer, which increased the validity of this study. Additionally, open-ended interviews (see Appendix H) were administered to provide further evidence regarding teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their abilities to teach English as a foreign language. Each interview in English or Arabic (according to each participant's preference) lasted from 20 to 30 minutes and was transcribed for the analysis.

Additionally, the semi-structured, open-ended interviews (see Appendix H) were administered to the 12 teacher participants in order to provide further evidences and information about the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in regard to their teaching abilities, the sources of their self-efficacy beliefs, and the factors that influenced these beliefs. Overall, the researcher engaged in triangulating data from several sources, so the reliability and validity of the study was enhanced (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

The observations and interviews data were collected at different Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District where the 12 selected participants worked. The researcher visited the participants in their schools after contacting them through the phone and scheduled observations and meetings at their convenient time. In the days of visits, the researcher

explained the purpose of study and its details to the principal and vice principal and obtained their permission to conduct the observations and interviews in their schools. These observations and interviews took place during the period of February to May, 2016 on normal school days.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the data collection, the Classroom Observation Protocol developed by the Horizon Research, Inc. (see Appendix G) was piloted before using it. Also, the researcher was trained to collect data using similar observation protocol for research purposes as part of his profession as a teacher trainer.

Table 4.6 Timeline of Research Activities

Research Activities	Estimated Time
IRB procedures	December, 2015
The demographic survey	February, 2016
The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale – TSES	February, 2016
Classroom observations	February – May, 2016
Open-ended interviews	March, 2016
Analysis of data	February – July, 2016
Interpreting findings and writing report	June – October, 2016

Data analysis

Quantitative data. Participants' identities were protected and pseudonyms and numeric identifiers were used to each record in data collection, analysis, and reporting. Once the efficacy survey was completed, the Omani EFL teachers' responses to the items of the survey were fed into SPSS.

The reliability of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale were calculated by computing Cronbach alpha coefficients for each of the three major subscales: EFL teachers' self-efficacy in engaging students, their self-efficacy in classroom management, and their self-efficacy in implementing instructional strategies (Table 4.4). To answer Research Question 1 (What are the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for: a) engaging students, b) classroom management, and c) instructional strategies among Omani EFL teachers in selected Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District in Oman?), descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations were calculated for each item in efficacy scale. Independent-samples tests

were used to investigate the difference between means of male and female teachers. The dependent variable was the teachers' self-efficacy, and the independent variable was the teachers' gender. An alpha level of .05 was used as indicator of significance.

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to answer Question Two (Do years of teaching and training courses predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?). Multiple regression is used to predict the value of a criterion variable based on the value of two or more independent variables (Keppel & Wickens, 2004). It is a statistical method by which we "measure the naturally occurring scores on a number of predictor variables and try to establish which set of the observed variables gives rise to the best prediction of the criterion variable" (Brace et al., 2006, p.207). Multiple regression analysis requires that the number of participants considerably exceed the number of predictor variables; the total minimum is five times as many as the predictor variables (Brace et al., 2006). The sample of this study met this criterion, there were 120 participants in the study.

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to understand whether Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy (the dependent variable) could be predicted based on the two independent variables, years of teaching and numbers of training courses the teachers had taken. It was used to determine whether years of teaching and number of training courses explain any variability in the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy (Gay, 2000), and relative contribution of each independent variable in explaining the variance. Multiple regression analysis was more appropriate for this study because of its flexibility of using data with any scale of measurement and its precision in predicting the contribution of different independent variables on the variance of the outcome variable. Furthermore, the researcher treated teachers' self-efficacy scores as a scale out of 9 points, which allowed to use multiple linear regression. An alpha level of .05 was set for all the analyses and the inferential statistical tests.

Qualitative data. Regarding the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs, I have mentioned in the previous chapters that four main sources of information by which individuals constitute their self-efficacy were identified by Bandura (1997). These four sources include: enactive mastery experiences (performance accomplishments), vicarious learning experiences (modeling), verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. The definitions of these four sources were discussed thoroughly in Chapter One. However, this study was designed, in one way, to explore the sources of information that constructed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs. As discussed previously, Bandura (1997) and Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) emphasized the role of contextual factors in influencing teacher self-efficacy. Several studies on EFL teacher self-efficacy have also demonstrated the importance role of different contextual and demographic factors in shaping teachers' self-efficacy. I argued then that there are factors emerged from the surrounding environment, have an indirect impact on constructing teachers' self-efficacy. I also argued that sources and factors of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are different in the power of effect and vary according to the context in which self-efficacy beliefs are constructed and developed. This echoes with suggestions by other researchers (Alijanian, 2012; Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, I believe that investigating teachers' perception about the sources of information they utilize for their self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influence their beliefs is required for each group of teachers based on their context and environment.

Open-ended questions. For this reason, two open-ended questions were included in the survey to capture the participants' views on the sources of their self-efficacy and the factors that influenced these beliefs. The two open-ended questions were: what composes your efficacy beliefs? and what are the factors that might affect your efficacy beliefs

positively or negatively? Analyzing the participants' responses to these two questions helped answering questions Three and Four of the study.

Of the 120 participants in the survey, 101 (52 males and 49 females) responded. This represented a response rate of 84.2%. Data analysis was conducted utilizing content analysis method. This method is a research method by which a researcher makes some inferences from data to their context, with the aim of providing new knowledge and insights (Krippendorff, 1980). The purpose of such analysis is to obtain a summarized and broad explanation of the studied phenomenon. The outcomes of this analysis are reported in 'concepts' or 'categories' (Kyngas & Vanhanen, 1999) which were used to build a conceptual model to help understanding the phenomenon. In this study, when describing the analysis, the researcher used the term 'category' because it was more appropriate for explaining the sources of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced them. The categories were derived from the data through utilizing both deductive (when the analysis is based on the basis of previous knowledge) and inductive (when the analysis is based on the basis of the current study) content analyses (Elo & Kyngas, 2008).

The content analysis was largely based on the responses provided by the participants in which they disclosed the main sources of information for their self-efficacy beliefs and the substantial factors that influenced their efficacy beliefs. The participants' responses were collected and classified into two main documents: 'sources of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy' and 'factors that influence EFL teachers' self-efficacy.' The first document contained 97 written responses and the second one had 95 written responses. Initially, the two documents were similar in a way that both of them had similar emerged generic categories: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, motivation, contextual factors, verbal persuasion, physiological arousal, demographic factors, and teacher dispositions. However, upon further reading and deep analyses, it was found that more than 68% of the

participants' responses addressed subcategories under enactive mastery experiences and vicarious learning experiences in document one. While in the second document, it was found that more than 62% of the responses addressed subcategories under contextual factors and motivation. This proved the theoretical differentiation between the main sources of self-efficacy and the factors that influence it despite the overlap between them.

Initially, the researcher used an open coding system in which he listed the written comments (so-called 'in vivo' coding) as 'units of concepts'. Each phrase was capable of being isolated from other parts of the text and still makes sense. The researcher used unit of concept in which helped analysis "leads toward more latent than manifest content" (Berg, 2001, p. 247). This procedure resulted in the accumulation of a considerable number of phrases that were regrouped under 'concept' headings. That is, phrases that were grouped together (referred to in the analysis as sub-categories), were linked by a common theme such as teachers' English knowledge, years of experience, etc. Finally, the researcher grouped the sub-categories under 'core' or generic categories that would allow to provide new insights of the sources that Omani EFL teachers utilized to form their self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs (Table 5.9 and Table 5.10).

The content analysis was located within qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The researcher quantified findings in terms, so they could be classified into sources and factors based on the participants' perception. Deductive content analysis was used when the structure of analysis was based on the basis of previous knowledge some subcategories were used from the previous studies such as students' achievement, years of experience, etc. The other subcategories were derived from the data in an inductive content analysis such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, work load, etc. A careful combing and allocation of the response entries to the subcategories allowed for the establishment of a basic coding framework of the main sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

and the factors that influenced these beliefs. As a result, eight significant core categories were identified in both documents.

The total number of units coded was 483 units in both documents, with 287 units in the first document and 196 in the second. Units of analysis here were generally defined as concepts as mentioned previously. In the first document, the category with the highest number of coded units was *enactive mastery experiences* (144 units). The next highest category was the *contextual factors* category (40 units). Next was *vicarious learning experiences* (34 units) followed by the *verbal persuasion* category (26 units), the *motivation* category (23 units), *teacher dispositions* (12 units), and the *demographic factors* category (6), respectively. Finally, it came the *physiological arousal* category (2 units).

In the second document, the categories were the same but the order was different. The category with the highest number of coded units was *contextual factors* (85 units). The next highest category was the *motivation* category (49 units). Next was *enactive mastery experiences* (30 units) followed by the *verbal persuasion* category (14 units), the *demographic factors* category (6 units), and the *physiological arousal* category (6 units), respectively. The last two categories that had the same number of units were the *teacher dispositions* and *vicarious learning experiences* (each 3 units). For more details, look at Tables 5.9 and 5.10.

Through examining the subcategories in both documents, the most frequently subcategories occurring in document one were *teacher's English Knowledge*, *students' achievement*, *peer observation visits*, *professional development*, and *intrinsic motivation*. While in the second document, the most frequently subcategories occurring were *extrinsic motivation*, *school environment*, *work load*, and *students' achievement*. However, the least frequently occurring subcategories in both documents were *physiological arousal*, *demographic factors*, and *teacher dispositions*.

The sources and the factors of teacher self-efficacy were classified based on the foundation of self-efficacy by Bandura (1997), the power of the impact they had on teachers' self-efficacy, and the perception of the participant teachers. Bandura (1997) highlighted the role of cognitive processing in understating the sources of information available in different contexts. He also emphasized the importance of contextual factors on altering teachers' cognitive processing of the sources of information for self-efficacy. Hence, the sources are considered the main roots for construction of self-efficacy beliefs, while factors have an indirect impact on understanding these sources. Moreover, the sources are derived from within the person's experiences and events, while factors are derived from the surrounding environment. This was also confirmed from the results in this study. The participants' classification of the sources and factors was within the explanation of the power of impact for these sources and factors. Therefore, the researcher classified the sources and the factors of self-efficacy based on these theoretical foundations. The emerged themes in first document (the sources of information for teacher self-efficacy) had the most observed frequency. On the other hand, the emerged themes in the second document (the factors influenced teachers' self-efficacy) scored the highest frequency of occurrence.

Classroom observations and interviews. Observation data from the Classroom Observation Protocol, including information about the lesson, its context, and purpose, and pre and post observation interviews were used to provide an overall rating for the observed lessons based on the criteria mentioned in the Classroom Observation Protocol (see Appendix G). The overall collected data were then fed into descriptive teaching profiles that were established for the participants. These teaching profiles were used to provide patterns, trends, and evidences of EFL teachers' capabilities of teaching English in regards to instructional practices, language content, and students' engagement. A holistic stance in analyzing the data

was employed, including examining the similarities and differences between the observed EFL teachers. This analysis was used to answer Question Five of the study.

The interviews data were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim and verified by the researcher, as needed. The transcribed data were analyzed based on “grounded categories” and “priori categories” (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Each transcript was coded line by line. Initial open coding was used as an inductive way but also selective and thematic coding at second and third levels of analysis was used. Categorization was based on ideas from the literature and previous studies. Sometimes, categorization was based on the identified emergent themes. The initial codes and categories were revisited, refined, renamed, and expanded as needed in the data analysis. The analysis focused on the themes related to the EFL teachers’ teaching practices and capabilities, the strategies for engraining students, classroom management, and instructional strategies, the sources of EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, and the factors that affected these beliefs. The identified recurring themes investigated in the survey were examined and checked in conjunction with the research questions of the study for the purpose of linking and backing the findings from the interviews with what teachers perceived about their self-efficacy beliefs in the survey. The reliability of data analysis was enhanced by asking another researcher to conduct analyses on some of the collected data and the results were compared.

For this study, a total of 36 observations were completed using the classroom observation protocol (see Appendix G) in spring of 2016. Each classroom observation covered a lesson and lasted for 45 minutes. Lessons covered a variety of topics and skills in English. The observations were all conducted by the researcher who was trained to do observations as part of his original job (as a teacher trainer), which increased the validity of this study. Additionally, open-ended interviews (see Appendix H) were administered to provide further evidence regarding teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and their abilities to teach

English as a foreign language. Each interview in English or Arabic (according to the participants' preference) lasted from 20 to 30 minutes and was transcribed for the analysis.

All the 12 participants completed the teacher demographic characteristics (see Appendix C) and the TSES scale (see Appendix D) prior to their participation in the observations and interviews stage. These teachers were found to possess different self-efficacy scores. Data from the two surveys, observations, and interviews were analyzed and entered on a spreadsheet for further analysis. A comparative method of qualitative analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was used to reach to final emerging themes and patterns.

Validity and Reliability (Trustworthiness)

Validity and reliability are two main factors that a researcher should concern about when designing a study, collecting data, and analyzing the data (Patton, 2002). Researchers should demonstrate that their studies are credible (Silverman, 2011). Since this study was based on mixed methods approach, validity and reliability were established for both quantitative and qualitative data collections and analyses. In general, the researcher considered all the ethical issues related to the study and was transparent in reporting data collection, analysis, and interpretation of findings.

Validity. Validity determines whether the research instruments measure what they are intended to measure, and how valid the study results are (Silverman, 2011). A new definition by Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), validity refers to “the *appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness, and usefulness* of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect” (p. 158). To increase the credibility of any research study, researchers should follow some strategies, such as triangulation, peer reviews, number-checking, and thick description (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

In the present study, the construct validity of the instruments was partially established by the instruments on which the current instruments established (TSES by Tschannen-Moran

& Woolfolk Hoy, 2001 and Classroom Observation Protocol by the National Science Foundation, Horizon Research group, 1998). The following strategies were followed to increase the validity of this study.

First, content validity and face validity were established by the judgment of a panel of four experts (UNLV professors) and 10 EFL teachers who were teaching different levels in Cycle Two schools. Members of the panel reviewed the instruments in terms of validity, clarity, suitability, and plausibility. Based on the comments of the panel, the instruments were modified. Final approved formats of the instruments were distributed among the participants to collect the data. In addition, prior to the surveys administration, the researcher checked the clarity and readability of the instruments with some of the participants and other EFL teachers by piloting it, so he confirmed their understanding of the items before starting the actual survey.

Second, triangulation was employed in this study. Triangulation is the concept of using multiple data sources, investigators, methodological approaches, or theoretical perspectives in conducting a research (Creswell, 2012; Denzin, 1989; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). In this study, four different instruments were used to collect data: two surveys, observations, and open-ended interviews. This multi-method triangulation facilitated to increase the credibility of the study. It also helped to overcome the limitations embedded in the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale instrument. Using observations and interviews helped the researcher to explore the participants' self-efficacy, the sources they utilized to inform their efficacy beliefs, the factors that influenced their beliefs, and to check the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in relation to their teaching capabilities.

Reliability (Trustworthiness). In quantitative research, reliability concerns whether the results of a study can be replicated. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), reliability refers to "the consistency of scores obtained" (p.165). In this study, reliability was assured by

testing the instrument (TSES). The reliability coefficient of the test was calculated by using Cronbach alpha coefficient. In a previous study on the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) conducted by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) at the Ohio State University, the scale was administered to teachers and the reliability for the scale was .94. The reliability for the subscales of the TSES was .87 for Students' Engagement, .91 for Instructional Strategies, and .90 for Classroom Management. Accordingly, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) concluded that the scale was "valid and reliable" (p. 801) and that the reliability of the scale was proved to be "useful tool for researchers interested in exploring the construct of teacher efficacy" (p. 801). In this study, the internal consistency reliability for the subscales of TSES was also calculated through Cronbach's Alpha. It was .78 for Students' Engagement, .79 for Classroom Management, and .83 for Instructional Strategies.

In the qualitative research, reliability (trustworthiness) is seen as "a fit between what [the researchers] record as data and what actually occurs in the setting under study" (Burns, 2000, p. 417). In this study, the aims, the research questions, the assumptions, and the theories of the study were explicitly explained and clarified (Burns, 2000) in the previous chapters. Also, the researcher provided detailed descriptions of data collection, procedures, data analysis and his role as a researcher which enhanced the reliability of the study (Burns, 2000). In addition, the study employed more than one data-gathering method which "can greatly strengthen the study's usefulness for other sitting" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p.194).

Role of Researcher

As far as the qualitative research is concerned, the researcher plays a central role in conducting a research study (Creswell, 2012). The researcher designs the study, recruits participants, collects data, analyzes the data, and interprets the data. When collecting qualitative data, especially from observation, it requires thoughtful consideration of the role a

researcher may take (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The researcher's background, including personal experiences and beliefs, will impact the research setting, participants, and interpretation of data. As a researcher in this study, I took the role of non-participant observer who was open and known to the participants in the study, and these participants were aware of my role as observer in the situations of research interest (Creswell, 2012).

In seeking to observe the teaching contexts, as a researcher, I tried to be unobtrusive, so that participants and teaching situations were not disturbed by my presence. For this reason, I adopted a recognized role within the institution of observation and the participants. I became a normal figure among teacher participants and students in the observed classrooms. I was sitting at the back of the classroom and observed teaching as undisturbed by my presence as possible.

As mentioned previously, the researcher's background impacts the study. I have worked as a teacher trainer in the Ministry of Education in Oman for about three years. This experience has equipped me with the requirements that are needed to conduct a research, observations, interviews, and data analysis. I have also dealt with different types of teachers in the Omani schools, especially Cycle Two schools in Oman, and therefore I was aware to the sensitive role I played as researcher in this study. My background and experiences have enhanced the reliability of this study.

Human Subjects

To ensure the ethical conduct and safety of the participants in the study, a request was submitted to the Institutional Review Boards (IRB) of University of Nevada, Las Vegas and the Ministry of Education in Oman. Once written notification of the approval of the study by UNLV IRB was received, the participants were recruited by the English Department in Dhahirah General Directorate with supervision of the researcher. The participants were contacted through letters, emails, and phones and were asked for their agreement to

participate in the study. Then, the participants received an information sheet with detail about the study (see Appendix A) and they were given enough time to ask questions regarding the study. Then, the researcher distributed the informed consent forms among the participants to sign as an agreement to participate in the study.

The consenting process took place in the school sites outside teachers' teaching hours. The voluntary participation was emphasized and assured before conducting the data collection. The participants were informed that participation or non-participation would not affect their evaluation by the English Department and that withdrawal from the study is approved immediately upon their request. Another part of the consenting process occurred before the interviews with the 12 teachers chosen to proceed for the second phase of the study, the researcher had the participants read the informed consent form (see Appendix B) and signed it when they agreed to participate in the interviews.

Ethical considerations. When conducting this study, the researcher considered all the ethical issues such as privacy and confidentiality. The researcher took certain precautions required by the design of mixed methods research. In this study, the researcher aimed at understanding Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, its sources, the factors that influenced these beliefs, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' teaching capabilities, without intervening except through data collection. Therefore, in this study, the researcher did not interfere with the subjects or their teaching while conducting classroom observations except collecting data for the purpose of the research. In addition, he did not affect subjects' responses related to the surveys or the interview questions.

In order to minimize the risks of unethical treatment of the subjects in this study, the researcher followed the following basic tenets of ethical issues related to respect and protection of the subjects.

Privacy. All participants' names in the study were pseudonyms. After consenting and before starting the study, each participant was assigned with a specific participant's name, a letter, and number (for instance, teacher 1). Participants were recorded as they say their names then stated their assigned participant names or number and they were later identified only by their pseudonyms names and numbers.

Confidentiality. Participants were asked to agree on not to disclose any sort of information about other participants or any comments or evaluation in the course of the study. Individual interviews and observations were conducted in different schools in Dhahirah District that teacher participants were working in. All collected data were locked in a secured area in the researcher's house in Oman. Only the researcher had access to the collected data. Once data were collected, they were coded with identification codes and numbers to prevent the identity of the participants being known. The researcher assured all the participants that all information gathered in this study is kept confidential. No reference was made in written or oral materials that could link the participants to this study.

Potential Risks. The amount of risk to participants involved in this study was minimal. The participants might feel uncomfortable being observed while they were teaching or recorded when answering open-ended interview questions. Nevertheless, the participants were asked prior to any observation or recording occurrence if they were willing to take part in the study. In addition, the researcher refrained from asking any sensitive questions which might cause participants to feel uncomfortable.

Informed Consent. The participants were informed about the nature of the study and the activities involved in this study. They were notified in advance if any of them decided to withdraw from the study and that they were free to do so.

Summary

This chapter has provided the design of this mixed methods study, which explored Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and other variables, the sources of information for self-efficacy, the factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' ability to teach English as a foreign language. It was illustrated that the quantitative data in this study would explore whether years of teaching and number of training courses can predict EFL teachers' self-efficacy. It was also illustrated that the qualitative data would be used to investigate the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to teach English as a foreign language. This chapter also included a thorough description of how participants were selected, the context of the study, the instruments used in the study, the data collection and procedures employed. Finally, the data analysis procedures, the researcher role, and some ethical issues were discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study. It provides the results to the five questions in the study. In doing so, the chapter provides a summary of the data collected from the 120 EFL teachers in Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District, including the demographic characteristics of the participants and the statistical analyses of the data. The statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, an independent-samples-test, and multiple regression analyses are provided. In addition, the major findings related to the sources of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these efficacy beliefs are presented. Finally, the chapter presents the findings of the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Teacher Demographic Characteristics Survey

This section presents the characteristics of the study participants in terms of their gender, age, and educational and professional background. The population of this study comprised EFL Cycle Two school teachers within Dhahirah District in the northern part of Oman. The total of 120 EFL teachers participated in the study. The survey was administered in the teachers' schools.

Gender. Of the participants (N=120), 50% were females and 50% males. The participants were teaching in segregated schools, so there was no problem in identifying the participants' gender when someone failed to report their gender.

Table 5.1 Study Participants by Gender

Gender	N	%
Male	60	50
Female	60	50
Total	120	100

Age. Thirty-five percent (n = 42) reported that they were in the age range of 20-30 years, 48.3% (n = 58) in the age range of 31-40, and 15.8% (n = 19) in the age range of 41-50. Only one male teacher (0.8%) reported that he was in the age range of 51-60 years. The small percentages of those teachers in their 40s and 50s can be explained by the fact that English teaching in Oman is relatively new. It was introduced to Omani education in 1970 (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012), which is a period of approximate 46 years. In addition, the retirement age in Oman is 60 years for men and 55 years old for women, but Omani teachers have the right to retire after they serve 20 years in work (The Ministry of Education & The World Bank, 2012).

Table 5.2 Study Participants by Age

Age Range	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
20-30 years	22	18.3	20	16.7	42	35
31-40 years	19	15.8	39	32.5	58	48.3
41-50 years	18	15	1	.8	19	15.8
51-60 years	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.8
Total	60		60		120	100

Participants' teaching experience. Thirty-seven and half percent (n = 45) reported teaching between 10 to 20 years, 33.3% (n = 40) reported teaching between 5 to 9 years, and other 15.8% (n = 19) reported having less than 5 years of experience. A small percentage (13.3%) reported more than 20 years of teaching experience

Table 5.3 Study Participants by Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience	Number of Teachers	Percentage
Less than 5 years	19	15.8
Between 5-9 years	40	33.3
Between 10-20 years	45	37.5
More than 20 years	16	13.3

Educational background. All the participants in the study held a Bachelor's degree in Education with a major in English language. One participant held a Master's degree in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) from a UK university. All the participants graduated from local universities and colleges such as Sultan Qaboos University, Nizwa University, Sohar University, Ajman University, Al Zahra College, and the public six colleges of education in Oman.

In-service teacher training. Of the participants, 98.3% (n = 118) attended at least more than one training course and a workshop while only two participants reported that they have not attended any training course or workshop yet. Those two participants were in their first and second teaching year, respectively. The other teachers reported that they have at least attended Cycle Two Course beside other courses. The data showed that teachers with more teaching years had more in-service training opportunities, including both training courses and workshops.

Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy

This section reports findings related to answer Research Question One: What are the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for: a) engaging students, b) classroom management, and c) instructional strategies among Omani EFL teachers in selected Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District in Oman?

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the long form TSES of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy' scale was adopted and modified for this study. After computing Cronbach's Alpha, the reliability of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale was .92. The reliability for the subscales of the TSES was .78 for Students' Engagement, .83 for Instructional Strategies, and .79 for Classroom Management.

Descriptive statistics. Participants in this study responded to the 24 items of the TSES using a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (representing "none at all") to 9 (indicating

“a great deal”). The actual responses ranged from 1 to 9 as shown in Table 5.4, along with the means and standard deviations for each item and the total subscales. The total average mean was computed for each item to formulate the teachers’ self-efficacy scores used in the correlational analysis. According to the 9-point Likert scale by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), a response of 7 indicates that teachers can do “quite a bit” in certain situations.

Table 5.4 Descriptive Statistics for the Omani EFL Teachers’ Self-Efficacy

<i>Efficacy Subscales</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Efficacy for Students’ Engagement</i>				
How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	1	9	6.45	1.64
How much can you do to help your students think critically?	3	9	6.39	1.51
How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?	2	9	6.58	1.52
How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in learning English?	3	9	6.82	1.51
How much can you do to help your students value learning English?	2	9	6.94	1.49
How much can you do to foster student creativity?	3	9	6.59	1.35
How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	2	9	6.54	1.52
How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English?	2	9	6.35	1.60
Total	2.25	9	6.59	.95
<i>Efficacy for Classroom Management</i>				
How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	1	9	6.48	2.34
To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	2	9	6.50	1.68
How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	2	9	6.83	1.45
How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	2	9	6.53	1.96
How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	2	9	6.66	2.02
How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	2	9	6.74	1.69
How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	1	9	7.18	1.69
How well can you respond to defiant students?	1	9	7.37	1.50
Total	1.63	9	6.79	1.13
<i>Efficacy for Instructional Strategies</i>				
How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	3	9	7.25	1.48
How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	3	9	6.53	1.44
To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	1	9	7.19	1.43
How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	3	9	6.73	1.44
How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	3	9	6.86	1.38
To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	2	9	7.33	1.54
How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	3	9	6.73	1.38
How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	3	9	6.79	1.45
Total	2.63	9	6.93	.98
Valid N (listwise) 90				

The descriptive statistics for the self-reported self-efficacy beliefs for students' engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies are shown in Table 5.4. In addition, paired-samples *t* tests were conducted among the subscales of teachers' self-efficacy to check if the means of these subscales were statistically significantly different. The paired sample *t* tests revealed that the participants' self-efficacy was significantly higher for instructional strategies ($M = 6.93$, $SD = .98$) than classroom management ($M = 6.79$, $SD = 1.13$), $t_{(119)} = 2.056$, $p = .04 < .05$, and students' engagement ($M = 6.59$, $SD = .95$), $t_{(119)} = 4.433$, $p = .00 < .05$. The paired sample *t* tests also revealed that the participants rated themselves as more efficacious for classroom management ($M = 6.79$, $SD = 1.13$) compared to students' engagement ($M = 6.59$, $SD = .95$), $t_{(119)} = 2.459$, $p = .015 < .05$. These results suggested that the Omani EFL teachers perceived themselves more capable in using different instructional strategies that aimed at providing better learning opportunities for their students. The highest means (7.19, 7.25, and 7.33), scored on items 11 (to what extent can you craft good questions for your students?), 7 (how well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?), and 20 (to what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?) respectively, indicated that the Omani EFL teachers believed they were capable of crafting good questions for their students, responding to their students' difficult questions, providing alternative explanations when students get confused, using a variety of assessment strategies, and adjusting lessons to suit their students' levels. However, Omani EFL teachers perceived themselves having low capabilities in engaging and motivating students to learn English. The results showed that the EFL teachers had low rating in areas of engaging students, especially assisting families to help their children learning English ($M = 6.35$, $SD = 1.60$), helping students to think critically ($M = 6.39$, $SD = 1.51$), and teaching difficult students ($M = 6.45$, $SD = 1.64$). Although Omani EFL teachers scored lower on the items of students' engagement, the mean for each item was still above the

midpoint of 5 on the Likert scale, indicating that the teachers believed that they were capable to “some degree” in areas of engaging their students in learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The results of this study were similar to the results of the previous studies (Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011), which indicate that EFL teachers in Venezuela, Iran, and Turkey perceived themselves more efficacious for instructional strategies than for classroom management and engaging students.

Teacher Self-Efficacy, Teaching Experience, and Training Courses

This section presents research results to answer Research Question Two: Do teaching experiences and training courses predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?

Hypothesis 1: Teaching and training courses positively predict Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy.

In order to answer this question, a standard multiple linear regression was calculated to predict participants' self-efficacy (as the dependent variable) based upon their years of teaching and the number of training courses (as the independent variables) they had taken.

The dependent and independent variables were expressed as continuous, interval scores.

Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, outliers, and homoscedasticity. As well, multicollinearity between the independent variables was checked. Normal p-p plot of regression standardized residual and scatterplots were used to assess in the validation of the previous mentioned assumptions.

Independent samples t-tests. As well, independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare the differences in the mean teachers' self-efficacy of males and females in the three subscales. Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show the results of the tests. Based on the tables, there were no significant differences in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs between male and female teachers.

Regarding teachers' self-efficacy for students' engagement, an independent t-test was calculated to determine if a difference existed between the mean teachers' self-efficacy

scores of males and females who were enrolled in this study. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean teachers' self-efficacy scores of males ($N = 60$, $M = 6.68$, $SD = .87$) and females ($N = 60$, $M = 6.50$, $SD = 1.03$), $t_{(118)} = 1.03$, $p = .07$. The effect size, $\eta^2 = .009$, was small. The observed power was .8%. The 95% confidence interval was -.17 to .52.

In the case of teachers' self-efficacy for classroom management, an independent t-test was calculated to determine if a difference existed between the mean teachers' self-efficacy scores of males and females who were enrolled in this study. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean teachers' self-efficacy scores of males ($N = 60$, $M = 6.90$, $SD = 1.05$) and females ($N = 60$, $M = 6.69$, $SD = 1.2$), $t_{(118)} = 1.01$, $p = .66$. The effect size, $\eta^2 = .009$, was small. The observed power was .9%. The 95% confidence interval was -.19 to .62.

In regard to teachers' self-efficacy for instructional strategies, an independent t-test was calculated to determine if a difference existed between the mean teachers' self-efficacy scores of males and females who were enrolled in this study. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean teachers' self-efficacy scores of males ($N = 60$, $M = 6.99$, $SD = .95$) and females ($N = 60$, $M = 6.86$, $SD = 1.02$), $t_{(118)} = .75$, $p = .56$. The effect size, $\eta^2 = .005$, was small. The observed power was .5%. The 95% confidence interval was -.22 to .49.

Table 5.5 Group Statistics

	Participant's gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Engagement	Male	60	6.68	.87	.11
	Female	60	6.50	1.03	.13
Management	Male	60	6.90	1.05	.14
	Female	60	6.69	1.20	.15
Instructional Strategies	Male	60	6.99	.95	.12
	Female	60	6.86	1.02	.13

Table 5.6 Independent Samples Tests

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Engagement	Equal variances assumed	3.30	.07	1.03	118	.31	.18	.17	-.17	.52
	Equal variances not assumed			1.03	114.89	.31	.18	.17	-.17	.52
Management	Equal variances assumed	.20	.66	1.01	118	.31	.21	.21	-.20	.62
	Equal variances not assumed			1.01	116.14	.31	.21	.21	-.20	.62
Instructional Strategies	Equal variances assumed	.35	.56	.75	118	.45	.14	.18	-.22	.49
	Equal variances not assumed			.75	117.30	.45	.14	.18	-.22	.49

Model (1) students' engagement. For the multiple regression analysis with the students' engagement dimension of the TSES as the criterion variable, years of teaching and number of training courses as the predictor variables were entered using the enter method. Primary analyses included testing the criterion variable for normality and univariate outliers. The test for normality by computing Shapiro-Wilk ($p = .50$) was not statistically significant, which indicated that the dependent variable was normally distributed. The skewness value was $-.007$ ($SE = .221$) and the kurtosis value was $-.346$ ($SE = .438$). Skewness and kurtosis values within the range of ± 2 (SE) are generally considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Given the values of this dependent variable, skewness was within the range of $-.442$ to $+.442$ and kurtosis was within the range of $-.876$ to $+.876$, and these would be considered normal. Using the outlier labelling rule (Hoaglin & Iglewicz, 1987) to check for univariate outliers (boundaries: upper = 9.86 and lower = 3.19), the results showed no outliers.

Regarding the accuracy of the model, the residual analyses confirmed that the model met the assumptions about errors. Also, the histogram of the standardized residuals and the normal probability plot met the assumption of normality. The scatter plot of residuals also confirmed the assumption of homoscedasticity. VIF value (1.037) was less than 10 (Field, 2005) and this confirmed that there was no multicollinearity between the independent

variables in the model. Cook's distance (0 to .11) indicated that the model fit the data. However, Mahalanobis distance (.06 to 10.59) indicated that there were six cases of multivariate outliers (cases: 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, and 53). Since the analyses showed some extreme outliers which might have affected the prediction power of the model, the researcher had to remove these outlier cases. Therefore, cases included 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, and 53 were removed from further analyses. The sample size ($N = 114$) was still appropriate compared to the two predictor variables in the model.

After removing the outliers and rechecking the accuracy of the model, all the assumptions of linear regression were met. To evaluate the relative importance of the individual predictor variables in explaining variance in the outcome variable, standardized partial coefficients were examined (Table 5.7). As shown in the table, both years of teaching and number of training courses variables made no statistically significant contribution ($p < .05$) to the prediction of the outcome variable (teachers' efficacy for students' engagement). No significant regression was found in the model of students' engagement ($F_{(2,113)} = .937$, $p = .395 > .05$), with an R^2 of .017. Both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of the teachers' efficacy for students' engagement. The model only accounted for 1.7% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for students' engagement. In addition, conducting multiple linear regression with the outliers made no substantive difference; the conclusion was the same.

Model (2) classroom management. In case of the multiple regression analysis with the classroom management dimension of the TSES as the criterion variable, years of teaching and number of training courses as the predictor variables were entered using the enter method. Primary analyses included testing the criterion variable for normality and univariate outliers. The test for normality by computing Shapiro-Wilk ($p = .002$) was statistically significant, which indicated that the dependent variable, efficacy for classroom management

was not normally distributed. The skewness value was $-.785$ ($SE = .221$) and the kurtosis value was 1.531 ($SE = .438$). Skewness and kurtosis values within the range of ± 2 (SE) are generally considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Given the values of this dependent variable, skewness was outside the range of $-.442$ to $+.442$ and kurtosis was also outside the range of $-.876$ to $+.876$, and these were not normal. These results indicated that teachers' self-efficacy scores for classroom management were not reasonably normally distributed. There was a negative skew which indicated that there were more scores clustered to the right, with the tail extending to the left. There was also a positive kurtosis indicating by a peak with more scores clustered at the high end of the distribution. Using the outlier labelling rule (Hoaglin & Iglewicz, 1987) to check for univariate outliers (boundaries: upper = 10.65 and lower = 3.23), the results showed two outlier cases, 84 and 88.

Regarding the accuracy of the model, the residual analyses confirmed that the model met the assumptions about errors. Also, the histogram of the standardized residuals and the normal probability plot showed some violation for the assumption of normality. The scatter plot of residuals confirmed the assumption of homoscedasticity. VIF value (1.037) was less than 10 (Field, 2005) and this confirmed that there was no multicollinearity between the independent variables in the model. Cook's distance (0 to $.14$) indicated that the model fit the data. However, Mahalanobis distance ($.06$ to 10.59) indicated that there were six cases of multivariate outliers (cases: 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, and 53). Since the analyses showed some extreme outliers which might have affected the prediction power of the model, the researcher had to remove these outlier cases. Therefore, cases included 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, 53, 84, and 88 were removed from further analyses. The sample size ($N = 112$) was still appropriate compared to the two predictor variables in the model.

After removing the outliers and rechecking the accuracy of the model, all the assumptions of linear regression were met. The test for normality by computing Shapiro-Wilk

($p = .31$) was not statistically significant, which indicated that the dependent variable was normally distributed. The skewness value was $-.210$ ($SE = .228$) and the kurtosis value was $-.419$ ($SE = .453$). Skewness and kurtosis values within the range of ± 2 (SE) are generally considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Given the values of this dependent variable, skewness was within the range of $-.456$ to $+.456$ and kurtosis was within the range of $-.906$ to $+.906$, and these would be considered normal. To evaluate the relative importance of the individual predictor variables in explaining variance in the outcome variable, standardized partial coefficients were examined. As shown in Table 5.7, both years of teaching and number of training courses variables made no statistically significant contribution at $p < .05$ to the prediction of the outcome variable (teachers' efficacy for classroom management). Like the model for students' engagement, a nonsignificant model emerged for classroom management ($F_{(2,111)} = .410$, $p = .664 > .05$), with an R^2 of $.007$. Both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of the teachers' efficacy for students' engagement. The model only accounted for $.7\%$ of the variation in teachers' efficacy for classroom management. In addition, conducting multiple linear regression with the outliers made no substantive difference; the conclusion was the same.

Model (3) instructional strategies. For the multiple regression analysis with the instructional strategies dimension of the TSES as the criterion variable, years of teaching and number of training courses as the predictor variables were entered using the enter method. Primary analyses included testing the criterion variable for normality and univariate outliers. The test for normality by computing Shapiro-Wilk ($p = .002$) was statistically significant, which indicated that the dependent variable, efficacy for instructional strategies was not normally distributed. The skewness value was $-.615$ ($SE = .221$) and the kurtosis value was 1.175 ($SE = .438$). Skewness and kurtosis values within the range of ± 2 (SE) are generally

considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Given the values of this dependent variable, skewness was outside the range of $-.442$ to $+.442$ and kurtosis was also outside the range of $-.876$ to $+.876$, and these were not normal. These results indicated that teachers' self-efficacy scores for instructional strategies were not reasonably normally distributed. There was a negative skew which indicated that there were more scores clustered to the right, with the tail extending to the left. There was also a positive kurtosis indicating by a peak with more scores clustered at the high end of the distribution. Using the outlier labelling rule (Hoaglin & Iglewicz, 1987) to check for univariate outliers (boundaries: upper = 10.28 and lower = 3.69), the results showed three outlier cases, 3, 84 and 119.

As for the accuracy of the model, Cook's distance (0 to .11) indicated that the model fit the data. VIF value (1.037) was less than 10 and this confirmed that there was no multicollinearity in the model. Also, the residual analyses confirmed that the model met the assumptions about errors. The histogram of the standardized residuals and the normal probability plot showed some violation for the assumption of normality. The scatter plot of residuals also confirmed the assumption of homoscedasticity. However, Mahalanobis distance (.06 to 10.59) indicated that there were six cases of multivariate outliers (cases: 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, and 53). Since the analyses showed some extreme outliers which might have affected the prediction power of the model, the researcher had to remove these outlier cases. Therefore, cases included 3, 28, 33, 35, 39, 40, 53, 84, and 119 were removed from further analyses. The sample size ($N = 111$) was still appropriate compared to the two predictor variables in the model.

After removing the outliers and rechecking the accuracy of the model, all the assumptions of linear regression were met. The test for normality by computing Shapiro-Wilk ($p = .56$) was not statistically significant, which indicated that the dependent variable was normally distributed. The skewness value was $-.124$ ($SE = .229$) and the kurtosis value was -

.246 (SE = .455). Skewness and kurtosis values within the range of +/-2 (SE) are generally considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Given the values of this dependent variable, skewness was within the range of -.458 to +.458 and kurtosis was within the range of -.91 to +.91, and these would be considered normal. To evaluate the relative importance of the individual predictor variables in explaining variance in the outcome variable, standardized partial coefficients were examined (Table 5.7). As shown in the table, both years of teaching and number of training courses variables made no statistically significant contribution at $p < .05$ to the prediction of the outcome variable (teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies). No significant regression was found in the model of instructional strategies ($F_{(2,110)} = .051$, $p = .95 > .05$), with an R^2 of .001. Both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of the teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies. The model only accounted for .1% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies. In addition, conducting multiple linear regression with the outliers made no substantive difference; the conclusion was the same.

Table 5.7 Standardized Coefficients and R Square of Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Model	Predictor Variables	Standardized Coefficients		R Square
		Beta	Sig.	
Students' Engagement	Years of teaching	.131	.174	.017
	Number of training courses	-.022	.820	
Classroom Management	Years of teaching	.069	.475	.007
	Number of training courses	.042	.666	
Instructional Strategies	Years of teaching	.028	.772	.001
	Number of training courses	.008	.934	
a. Dependent Variable: Teachers' Efficacy for (Students' Engagement, Classroom Management, Instructional Strategies)				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Years of Teaching, Number of Training Courses				

Overall, all of the models that emerged through the multiple regression analyses with each of the teachers' self-efficacy subscales (Students' Engagement, Classroom Management, and Instructional Strategies) as the criterion variable were not significant at $p < .05$. The models accounted for 1.7% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for students' engagement, .7% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for classroom management, and .1% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies. The results from these multiple regression analyses were reviewed within the context of sample size. With a sample size as 114 or 112, or 111, the R^2 values displayed in Table 5.7 show no statistical significant. As a result, both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of the teachers' self-efficacy. The negligible low relationships (Table 5.8) may indicate that teacher self-efficacy was likely to be less affected by both predictor variables, teaching years and number of the training courses. If that is the case, it should be a great concern for the training department in the Ministry of Education in Oman, because one of the main goals of the training department is to improve teachers' capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language in schools.

Table 5.8 Correlations between DV and IVs

SE	Years of teaching		Training courses	
	Pearson correlation	Sig. (1-tailed)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (1-tailed)
Students' engagement	.127	.089	.001	.497
Classroom management	.076	.213	.053	.290
Instructional strategies	.030	.378	.013	.446

This result confirms previous research (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Pajares, 1992; Yilmaz, 2011) that concluded that teachers' efficacy beliefs tend to be stable as teachers accumulate more years of teaching experience. Concerning teachers' training courses, the result indicated that the teachers' participation in the training courses was more likely independent of their self-efficacy beliefs.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy: Sources and Factors

This section presents research findings to Research Questions Three and Four of the study:

Question Three: What sources constitute Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?

Question Four: What are the factors that influence Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy?

Four main sources of information by which individuals constitute their self-efficacy were identified by Bandura (1997). These four sources include: enactive mastery experiences (performance accomplishments), vicarious learning experiences (modeling), verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. The definitions of these four sources were discussed in Chapter One. However, to explore the sources of information that constructed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs, analyzing the participants' perception about the sources and factors of their self-efficacy beliefs should enrich and broaden the theoretical foundation of the sources for teacher self-efficacy. Therefore, analyzing the participants' responses to the two open-ended questions which were included in the survey to capture their views on the sources of their self-efficacy and the factors that affected these beliefs positively or negatively helped answering research Questions Three and Four of this study. The two open-ended questions in the efficacy survey were: What composes your efficacy beliefs? and What are the factors that might affect your efficacy beliefs positively or negatively? Also, the findings in this section are supported by the open-ended interviews with the twelve teachers chosen for the second phase of the study.

Of the 120 participants in the survey, 101 (52 males and 49 females) responded. This represented a response rate of 84.2%. Data analysis was conducted utilizing content analysis method. The content analysis was largely based on the responses provided by the participants in which they disclosed the main sources of information for their self-efficacy beliefs and the substantial factors which influenced their efficacy beliefs. The participants' responses were

collected and classified into two main documents: sources of EFL Omani teachers' self-efficacy and factors that influence EFL teachers' self-efficacy. The first document contained 97 written responses and the second one had 95 written responses. Initially, the two documents were similar in a way that both of them had similar emerged generic categories, including: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, motivation, contextual factors, verbal persuasion, physiological arousal, demographic factors, and teacher dispositions. However, upon further reading and deep analysis, it was found that more than 68% of the participants' responses addressed subcategories under enactive mastery experiences and vicarious learning experiences. While in the second document, more than 62% of the responses addressed subcategories under contextual factors and motivation. This confirmed the theoretical basis for classifying the main sources of self-efficacy and the factors that influence it, which mentioned in the previous chapters.

I initially used an open coding system in which I listed the written comments (so-called 'in vivo' coding) as 'units of concepts'. That is, each phrase was capable of being isolated from other parts of the text and still makes sense. I used unit of concept in which helped analysis "leads toward more latent than manifest content" (Berg, 2001, p. 247). This procedure resulted in the accumulation of a considerable number of phrases that I regrouped under 'concept' headings. That is, phrases were grouped together (referred to in the analysis as sub-categories) if they were linked by a common theme such as teachers' English knowledge, years of experience, etc. Finally, the subcategories were grouped under 'core' or generic categories that would allowed to present new insights of the sources for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs (Tables 5.9 and 5.10).

The content analysis was located within qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The researcher quantified findings in terms to classify them into sources and factors based on the

participants' perception. Deductive content analysis was used when the structure of analysis was based on the previous knowledge. Some subcategories were used from the previous studies such as students' achievement, years of experience, professional development, etc. The other subcategories were derived from the data in an inductive content analysis such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and work load. A careful combing and allocation of the responses entries to the subcategories allowed for the establishment of a basic coding framework for the main sources of information for EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs. As a result, eight significant core categories were identified in both documents.

The total number of units coded was 483 in both documents, with 287 units in the first document (sources of teacher self-efficacy) and 196 in the second one (factors influence teacher self-efficacy). Units of analysis here were generally defined as concepts as mentioned previously. In the first document, the category with the highest number of coded units was *enactive mastery experiences* (144 units). The next highest category was the *contextual factors* category (40 units). Next was *vicarious learning experiences* (34 units) followed by the *verbal persuasion* category (26 units), the *motivation* category (23 units), *teacher dispositions* (12 units), and the *demographic factors* category (6 units), respectively. Finally, it came the *physiological arousal* category (2 units).

In the second document, the categories were the same but the order was different. The category with the highest number of coded units was *contextual factors* (85 units). The next highest category was the *motivation* category (49 units). Next was *enactive mastery experiences* (30 units) followed by the *verbal persuasion* category (14 units), the *demographic factors* category (6 units), and the *physiological arousal* category (6 units), respectively. The last two categories that had the same number of units were the *teacher*

dispositions and *vicarious learning experiences* (3 units in each). For more details, look at Tables 5.9 and 5.10.

Through examining the subcategories in both documents, the most frequently subcategories occurring in document one were *teacher's English Knowledge*, *students' achievement*, *peer observation visits*, *professional development*, and *intrinsic motivation*. While in the second document, the most frequently subcategories occurring were *extrinsic motivation*, *school environment*, *work load*, and *students' achievement*. However, the least frequently occurring subcategories in both documents were *physiological arousal*, *demographic factors*, and *teacher dispositions*.

Sources of teacher self-efficacy. The participants' responses revealed a great deal about their thinking and beliefs of the main sources of information they utilized to inform their self-efficacy. Collectively, the participants provided a rich description of the sources that constituted their self-efficacy. More than half of the participants (50.17% of the units) believed that enactive mastery experiences or performance accomplishments helped them to establish their self-efficacy. The most prevalent subcategories raised included: teacher's English knowledge (81 units), students' achievement (35 units), professional development (18 units), and years of experience (10 units). The following responses from the participants are some examples that illustrate this point:

"My abilities which are considered as main source for me, guide me to achieve a balanced behavior and solid basis to improve myself and cope with different, changeable circumstances in teaching."

"I have, thanks to God, new and creative methods and styles of teaching, and therefore I have complete confidence that I am able and I will achieve my goals of teaching."

"To add more, my skills, passion to the language, and ways of teaching are my strengths in making teaching more successful."

“I think the Students’ performance and their grades are the most effective motivation to me as a teacher, which drives me to keep it up in teaching the language.”

“Participation in training courses, workshops, and online courses, such as LEARN which are offered by the Ministry of Education with cooperation of some American universities shape the way to teach English.”

“I have a long experience in teaching English language.”

Contextual factors related to teaching environment in schools were another common theme or category raised by the participants to demonstrate the strength of their impact on teachers’ self-efficacy. About 13.94% of the participants’ responses addressed different contextual factors that participants believed they composed their self-efficacy. These contextual factors included: school environment (14 units), educational facilities and materials (10 units), school curriculum (8 units), teacher’s relationships (5 units), society and culture (2 units), and work load (1 unit). The following responses from the participants are some examples that illustrate this point:

“Appropriate environment in the workplace give chance to build my self-efficacy.”
And other teachers listed “school administration” as a source of their self-efficacy.

“One source [of self-efficacy] is through teaching by using new technologies and electronic educational materials, especially those that suit the students’ interest.”

“The school curriculum and the level of its appropriateness to the environment where students and the teacher live.”

“Another one [source] is my relationships with teaching faculty and the school administration.”

“Outside society and the way people think can form part of my self-efficacy beliefs.”

“Teaching different and more than one class, and different stages helps to form my self-efficacy.”

Another common theme was reported to be a source of information for teachers’ self-efficacy was vicarious learning experiences. About 11.85% of the participants’ responses addressed that observing colleagues teaching helped teachers establishing their teaching self-efficacy beliefs. The Omani EFL teachers were using peer observation visits to improve and enhance their teaching abilities. The following responses from the participants are some examples that illustrate this point:

“Benefiting from other colleagues through peer observation and sharing new teaching methods.”

“I gain experience through classroom visits for my colleagues at work and sharing experiences.”

Some of the participants believed that even working in groups and learning by sharing could establish their self-efficacy.

“Communication and connection with other teachers, supervisors, and experts or using group work in the school will help to build my beliefs.”

Other teachers reported other sources of information for their self-efficacy like verbal persuasion and motivation. Regarding verbal persuasion, these teachers mentioned different sources of verbal persuasion included, persuasion that came from colleagues, school administration, parents, and their students. For the motivation, teachers perceived intrinsic motivation to be one of the main sources of their self-efficacy. The following are some examples that demonstrate this point:

“The praising I get from my supervisors and my friends with successful experiences are one source of my efficacy beliefs.”

“Notes and feedback that are presented by the senior teacher and supervisor after classroom visits.”

“In less degree, the assessment from a supervisor or a headmistress encourages me to be better.”

“My belief that what I am doing is a trust that I have to do it properly.”

Few participants reported teacher dispositions and demographic factors such as students’ background as sources of information for their self-efficacy beliefs. These are some examples:

“My inner attitude always tells me to be creative, updated and to provide the best for my students.”

“I have love of being excellent or passion for excellence.”

“Knowing my students’ background, their families’ status and how they were brought up could help me to teach them and create mutual respect.”

Overall, the participants’ responses and feedback collected to answer Question Three in this study emphasized what the participants perceived as the sources of information for their self-efficacy beliefs. Despite the fact that participants stated different sources of information for their self-efficacy, the majority of them reported themes that were classified under the enactive mastery experiences source such as teacher’s English knowledge, students’ achievement, professional development, and years of experience. The participants also reported two new sources of self-efficacy that were not identified by Bandura and these sources were motivation, specifically intrinsic motivation and teacher dispositions. This new

finding noted a shift in epistemological understanding of teacher self-efficacy in regard to its sources and foundation.

Table 5.9 Sources of Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy - Document 1

Main Category	Generic Category	Frequency	Percentage	Sub-Category
Sources of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy	Enactive mastery experiences	144	50.17	Teacher's English knowledge (81)
				Students' achievement (35)
				Professional development (18)
				Years of experience (10)
	Contextual factors	40	13.94	School environment (14)
				Educational facilities and materials (10)
				School curriculum (8)
				Teacher's relationships (5)
				Society and culture (2)
				Work load (1)
	Vicarious learning experiences	34	11.85	Peer observation (34)
	Verbal persuasion	26	9.06	from colleagues (8)
				from supervisors (7)
				Self-evaluation (4)
				from senior teacher (3)
				from students (2)
				from students' parents (2)
	Motivation	23	8.01	Intrinsic motivation (14)
				Extrinsic motivation (9)
	Teacher dispositions	12	4.18	Teacher dispositions (12)
	Demographic factors	6	2.09	Students' background (6)
	Physiological arousal	2	0.7	Stress (2)
Total		287		

Factors that influence teacher self-efficacy. The majority of participants' responses collected to answer Question Four of this study showed a general agreement in regard to the factors that influenced their self-efficacy beliefs. About 43.37% of the participants' responses suggested that contextual factors influenced teachers' teaching efficacy beliefs. These contextual factors included: school environment, educational facilities and materials, school curriculum, the teacher's relationships, society and culture, and work load. The following responses from the participants are examples that illustrate this point:

“Well, school environment, materials, and EFM [the curriculum: English for Me] courses are great challenge in teaching. Those factors actually might be on our way of teaching effectively.”

“Some of the factors are: integration into the teaching environment, coping with the teaching situations, and creating positive relationships with others.”

Table 5.10 Factors that Influence Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy - Document 2

Main Category	Generic Category	Frequency	Percentage	Sub-Category
Factors influence Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy	Contextual factors	85	43.37	School environment (33)
				Work load (14)
				Educational facilities and materials (10)
				Society and culture (9)
				School curriculum (7)
				Teacher's relationships (6)
				Number of students (4)
				School system (2)
	Motivation	49	25	Extrinsic motivation (46)
				Intrinsic motivation (3)
	Enactive mastery experiences	30	15.31	Students' achievement (14)
				Teacher's English knowledge (8)
	Verbal persuasion	14	7.14	Professional development (8)
				from supervisors (7)
				from colleagues (5)
				from school administration (1)
				from students' parents (1)
	Demographic factors	6	3.06	Students' background (6)
	Physiological arousal	6	3.06	Stress (6)
	Teacher dispositions	3	1.53	Teacher dispositions (3)
	Vicarious learning experiences	3	1.53	Peer observation (3)
Total		196		

“Number of students inside the class affect my self-efficacy. The class which has a reasonable number of students permits the teacher to prepare a dynamic learning environment, but the crowded one hinders teaching.”

“The school administration, teaching team, availability of resources for learning, and extra loaded work beside teaching affect my self-efficacy beliefs strongly.”

“What might affect my self-efficacy negatively are: over loaded work at school, loaded curriculum, and heavy continuous assessment.”

Motivation was another common factor that participants believed it influenced their self-efficacy. About 25% of the participants’ responses suggested that different types of motivation, especially extrinsic motivation which came from the teaching environment affected teachers’ teaching beliefs. The following responses from the participants are examples that illustrate this point:

“What is left for keeping learning process running effectively is the teacher’s motivation.”

“Considering and rewarding lazy teachers and ignoring the excellent and talented ones affect teachers’ efficacy beliefs negatively.”

“The teacher’s motivation affects self-efficacy, active teacher search, reads, and uses new methods to improve their teaching.”

“Little appreciation and respect from the participating people in education to teachers affect our beliefs positively. But, lack of motivation and absence of reinforcement with the increase of criticism affect our beliefs negatively.”

“Salary, reinforcement, and support from the administration are incentives and motives for me and help to increase my self-efficacy.”

The other factors influenced teachers’ self-efficacy listed by the participants were classified in the following groups: enactive mastery experiences (15.31% of units), verbal persuasion (7.14%), demographic factors (3.06%), physiological arousal (3.06%), teacher dispositions (1.53%), and vicarious learning experiences (1.53%). The following responses from the participants are examples that show these factors:

“Research and books that provide methods for improving teaching and training teachers through the centers or the internet influence my teaching beliefs positively.”

“Some factors like economical level, status of students’ families, and parents’ follow-up visits with their children in the school affect my self-efficacy.”

“Positive comments from supervisors, administration, and colleagues encourage me the most.”

Overall, regarding the factors that influenced Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy, the most prevalent factors reported included: contextual factors (such as school environment, educational facilities and materials, school curriculum, and teacher’s relationships) and extrinsic motivation. These new findings (particularly extrinsic motivation) can help establish new understanding of teacher self-efficacy in terms of its construction.

Self-Efficacy and Ability to Teach EFL

This section presents research findings to answer Research Question Five: What is the relationship between Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language?

The findings were reached through observation and individual interviews with a purposeful sampling (Sandelowski, 2000) of 12 participants selected out of the 120 teachers who participated in the first phase of the study. The average scores of participants’ self-efficacy in the three subscales: efficacy for engagement, management, and instructional strategies were used to select the 12 participants for observations and interviews. Using the purposeful sampling, the 12 participants were selected according to the following criteria: 4 participants scored among the highest, 4 other participants scored average, and 4 other participants scored among the lowest in the efficacy subscales. Each group of the 4

participants included 2 male teachers and 2 female teachers. Detailed information about the participants' background is provided in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Selected 12 Teachers' Characteristics

Subject	Gender	Qualification	Grade taught	Years of teaching	Number of training courses	Level of self-efficacy
Teacher 1	M	B.A	5	4	1	7.67
Teacher 2	M	B.A	7	2	1	6.71
Teacher 3	F	B.A	8	6	1	8.42
Teacher 4	F	B.A	10	7	1	8.38
Teacher 5	M	B.A	6	3	1	6.67
Teacher 6	M	B.A	5	2	1	6.58
Teacher 7	F	B.A	8	12	4	7.99
Teacher 8	F	B.A	8	5	1	7.33
Teacher 9	M	B.A	8	3	1	6.02
Teacher 10	M	B.A	6	3	1	4.92
Teacher 11	F	B.A	5	4	2	7.17
Teacher 12	F	B.A	10	6	2	7.04

All the 12 participants completed the teacher demographic characteristics (see Appendix C) and the TSES scale (see Appendix D) prior to their participation in the observations and interviews stage. These teachers were found to possess different self-efficacy scores. Data from the two surveys, observations, and interviews were analyzed and entered on a spreadsheet for further analysis. A comparative method of qualitative analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was used to reach to the final emerging themes and patterns.

Through comparison among the 12 teachers' results (Table 5.12), it appeared, in general, that teachers (3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, and 12) who rated themselves high in Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) scored high on quality of teaching English as a foreign language as measured in the classroom observation protocol. These teachers were more likely to design and teach English lessons that are reflective of the best practice in English language teaching as a foreign language. These teachers were able to design well-planned lessons that incorporated varied tasks and activities which aligned with investigative language learning, included a variety of learning strategies that met their students' learning needs and styles, utilized different appropriate learning resources, encouraged collaborative learning among

students, and included assessment that was consistent with lessons learning objectives. These teachers were also able to deliver English lessons appropriately by presenting English content that was consistent with the best practice of teaching English as a foreign language. They were able to adapt the content of the lessons to suit their students' level and needs. Moreover, the teachers were confident in their language and teaching abilities, and were able to provide their students with equal opportunities to participate in the classroom interaction. Generally, these teachers were able to meet the criteria of effective English teaching as proposed by the classroom observation protocol (see Appendix G).

Table 5.12 Teachers' Level of Teaching Quality

Subject	Level of self-efficacy	Level of Teaching Quality (out of 5)	Description
Teacher 1	7.67	3	Beginning Stages of Effective Teaching (Low)
Teacher 2	6.71	1	Ineffective Teaching- Passive Learning
Teacher 3	8.42	5	Exemplary Teaching
Teacher 4	8.38	5	Exemplary Teaching
Teacher 5	6.67	4	Accomplished, Effective Teaching
Teacher 6	6.58	4	Accomplished, Effective Teaching
Teacher 7	7.99	4	Accomplished, Effective Teaching
Teacher 8	7.33	4	Accomplished, Effective Teaching
Teacher 9	6.02	3	Beginning Stages of Effective Teaching (High)
Teacher 10	4.92	2	Elements of Effective Teaching
Teacher 11	7.17	5	Exemplary Teaching
Teacher 12	7.04	4	Accomplished, Effective Teaching

On the other hand, teachers 9 and 10 (SE = 6.02; TQ = 3; Beginning stages of effective teaching/ High) and (SE = 4.92; TQ = 2; Elements of effective teaching), respectively, who evaluated themselves low in Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) scored low on quality of teaching English as a foreign language as measured by the classroom observation protocol. These teachers had some serious problems in their lessons design and teaching. Teacher 9 scored level 3 in quality teaching by having a high confidence in his strong content knowledge. However, his interview data revealed some problems with “how to make students interact in the class and how to choose the suitable method of teaching.” However, teacher's 10 classes were not well-designed, lacked meaningful tasks

and activities which supposed to encourage students for learning. Teacher 10 had also low confidence in his language and teaching abilities. In addition, he failed to achieve the lessons' learning objectives with his students in all the three observed lessons. When teacher 10 was asked about his weaknesses as an English teacher, he answered that he was facing difficulties with "using language that appropriate to [his] pupils' level, moving from one step in teaching to another at a slow pace, making some language mistakes, and not utilizing many different teaching aids."

Remarkably, teachers 1 and 2 (SE = 7.67; TQ = 3; Beginning stage of effective teaching/ low) and (SE = 6.71; TQ = 1; Ineffective teaching/ Passive learning), respectively, rated themselves high in Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). However, both teachers scored lower on quality of teaching English as a foreign language. According to Bandura (1997), teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs are more capable of facing challenges and difficulties in teaching. When both teachers were asked if they were capable of being good English teachers, they responded positively and that they had teaching abilities which helped them to be good teachers. Yet, these teachers scored low (3 and 1) on the classroom observation scale with some serious problems in designing and delivering English lessons were noted. The teachers had also serious problems in encouraging and engaging their students in learning. If the reported self-efficacy beliefs were predictive of teachers' behavior, these two teachers would be expected to present exemplary teaching behavior comparing to the selected others. Teacher 1 complained about his weakness in using language, whereas teacher 2 complained about the difficulty of responding to each student with the appropriate alternative explanation to get them understand the content being delivered. Both teachers' complaints reflected vulnerable teaching capabilities beliefs.

Teachers 3 (SE = 8.42; TQ= 5; Exemplary teaching), 4 (SE = 8.42; TQ =5; Exemplary teaching), and 11 (SE = 8.42; TQ =5; Exemplary teaching) presented an excellent

class model for teaching English as a foreign language. These teachers' classes, in terms of their design, implementation, content knowledge, and classroom culture were all highly likely to enhance students' learning. Their strongest rating in the different elements of teaching was evident that these teachers had high teaching capabilities, well-prepared for their classes, utilized different learning resources and strategies to meet their students' needs, provided equal opportunities for their students to participate in learning, and showed high confidence in their language and teaching abilities. For example, teacher 3 believed that she had "characteristics of an effective teacher and ... [She worked] hard to do [her] best." Teacher 4 also believed that she was "capable of being a good effective teacher because [she had] ... the desire to teach." She stated that she had "the ability to tackle the different activities and skills and modify them into more challenged and interesting ones."

In sum, data from classroom observations and interviews showed that, in general, teachers' self-reported self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. Out of the 12 participants, only two teachers failed to report self-efficacy that was consistent with their teaching abilities.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the current study. It provided a summary of the data collected from 120 EFL teachers in Cycle Two schools in Dhahirah District, including the demographic characteristics of the participants and the statistical analyses of the data. The statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, an independent-samples-test, and multiple regression analyses. The results were described and presented in table format. These results suggested that Omani EFL teachers perceived themselves as more efficacious for instructional strategies than for classroom management and engaging students. In regard to the multiple regression analyses, the results revealed that both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy.

The chapter also presented the major findings related to the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs. The findings showed that Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy was shaped and constructed by several sources including: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, intrinsic motivation, teacher dispositions, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. The findings also showed that Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy was affected by several factors including: contextual factors, extrinsic motivation, and demographic factors.

Finally, the chapter presented the findings of the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language. These findings revealed that reported teachers' self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language, in general.

In the coming chapter, the results of this study will be discussed in terms of the raised questions in this study. The study's results will also be discussed and compared with the results from the previous studies. Additionally, implications and limitations of the study will be discussed, and suggestions for further research will be provided.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents summaries and discussions of the findings of the current study. Summary of the major findings is first provided. Then, the findings are explained and compared in relation to the theories and literature mentioned in the previous chapters. This chapter also addresses the limitations and implications of the study. Finally, suggestions for future research are noted and a final conclusion of the study is drawn.

Summary of Results

Using teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) as the theoretical framework, this study has explored Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. This happened through examining the sources of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that may influence these beliefs. The study has also examined whether years of teaching and training courses teachers predict teachers' self-efficacy. Furthermore, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language has been explored. The major findings of the study were reported on five themes based on the study's research questions.

On the basis of the data analyses, the results of this study revealed the following major results. First, means computed for the three subscales of efficacy revealed that the participants perceived their capabilities for instructional strategies ($M = 6.93$, $SD = .98$, $N = 120$) as higher than their capabilities for classroom management ($M = 6.79$, $SD = 1.13$, $N = 120$) and for students' engagement ($M = 6.59$, $SD = .95$, $N = 120$). Second, the standard multiple linear regression analyses showed that both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Third, the content analysis of the participants' responses (287 units) to the first open-ended question in the efficacy scale showed that the majority of participants reported enactive mastery experiences (144 units, 50.17%,) included: teacher's English knowledge (81 units), students' achievement (35 units), professional development (18 units), and years of experience (10 units) as their source of self-efficacy. Other participants reported other sources of information for their self-efficacy such as vicarious experiences (34 units, 11.85%), verbal persuasion (26 units, 9.06%), intrinsic motivation (23 units, 8.01%), and teacher dispositions (12 units, 4.18%). On the other hand, the content analysis of the participants' responses (196 units) to the second open-ended question in the efficacy scale showed that the majority of participants reported that their self-efficacy beliefs influenced by contextual factors (85 units, 43.37% of responses) included: school environment (33 units), work load (14 units), educational facilities and materials (10 units), society and culture (9 units), school curriculum (7 units), teacher's relationships (6 units), number of students (4 units) and school system (2 units). Additionally, some participants reported that extrinsic motivation (49 units, 25%) and demographic factors (6 units, 3.06%) had influenced their self-efficacy.

Fourth, the data from the classroom observations and interviews revealed that reported teachers' self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language, in general. Out of the 12 participants, only two teachers failed to report self-efficacy that was consistent with their teaching abilities.

In the coming sections, the previously mentioned results are discussed in relation to the study's research questions and literature. The structure of the discussion is based on four themes that include: Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and both teaching experience and training courses, the sources and factors of

Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, and the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their abilities to effectively teach English as a foreign language.

Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy

The current study adopted the 24-item Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) to measure the level of Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy. The results of this study revealed that the Omani EFL teachers perceived themselves more efficacious for instructional strategies than for classroom management and students' engagement. These results support those of the previous studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011) in that EFL teachers perceived themselves more efficacious for instructional strategies than for classroom management and engaging students. However, unlike the participants of Eslami and Fatahi (2008), and Yilmaz (2011), the teachers in this study rated their self-efficacy higher in all the three subscales of efficacy. Instead, similarly to the participants of Chacón (2005), the Omani EFL teachers' responses in the efficacy scale indicated that they can do "quite a bit" in certain teaching situations. Although one should be cautious comparing results reported from different cultures due to the cultural variables, such a comparison could provide useful insights of where the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy level is located in relation to other teachers international wide, especially that there are no previous studies of this kind conducted in Oman. The Omani EFL teachers also perceived themselves having lower capabilities in engaging and motivating students to learn English. The results showed that the Omani EFL teachers have low rating in areas of engaging students, especially assisting families to help their children learning English, helping students to think critically, and teaching difficult students. Yet, the Omani EFL teachers believed that they were capable to "some degree" in areas of engaging their students in learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

The difference in the level of the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy in the three aspects of teaching: instructional strategies, classroom management, and students' engagement is actually attributed to the fact that self-efficacy is task and domain-specific (Chacón, 2002; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This confirms Bandura's (1997) notion that self-efficacy beliefs are specific to the domain, the level of the difficulty within the domain, and the context. However, data from the interviews could provide possible explanation of why the participants perceived themselves to be more efficacious for instructional strategies than for classroom management and students' engagement. The majority of the interviewees reported that effective teachers should possess a variety of teaching methods and strategies. This appears to be a strong belief about good effective teaching with the Omani EFL teachers, which means that the focus of teaching in this case is on what teachers use of strategies and methods to achieve their intended outcomes of the lesson. It also appears that teachers were less focused on the ways students learn. Most of the interviewees reported having difficulties involving students in learning. Furthermore, through the classroom observations, it appeared that the 12 observed teachers tended to instruct their students as a whole group and this was their major way in teaching different activities. Most of the classroom activities were presented and explained by the teachers, and the students had to follow specific instructions given by their teachers. This suggests that the teachers have tendency towards using teacher-centered approach and can explain why they rated themselves lower for engaging students.

Considering the powerful impact of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on different aspects of teaching and learning (Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), this study suggests that in future research it is necessary to explore why teachers have stronger self-efficacy for instructional strategies than for classroom management and students' engagement. This

should be a great concern for designing appropriate professional development training to enhance teachers' capabilities of teaching English in different aspects of teaching.

Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy, Teaching Experience, and Training Courses

In this study, it was hypothesized that teaching experience and training courses positively predict the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy. It was assumed that there is a statistically significant relationship at the .05 level between the criterion variable (teacher self-efficacy) and the predictor variables (teaching experience and training courses). However, the results of the study showed that the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. The models that emerged through the multiple regression analyses with each of the teachers' self-efficacy subscales (Students' Engagement, Classroom Management, and Instructional Strategies) as the criterion variable were not significant. The models accounted for 1.7% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for students' engagement, .7% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for classroom management, and .1% of the variation in teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies. The results from these multiple regressions were reviewed within the context of sample size. With a sample size as 114, or 112, or 111, the R^2 values of .017, .007, and .001, respectively, showed no statistical significant. Therefore, both years of teaching and number of training courses were not significant predictors of the teachers' self-efficacy.

The result of this study showed that there were no relationships between teacher self-efficacy and each of teaching experience and training courses. This result contradicts with some of the previous studies (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012) in that more experienced teachers had higher self-efficacy. This result also contradicts with the study of Karimi (2011) which concluded that professional development training enhanced teachers' self-efficacy significantly. The result of this study showed that teacher self-efficacy was likely to be less affected by both variables, years of teaching and number of the training

courses. This can be attributed to two potential interpretations. First, it seems that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are remarkably difficult to be changed once they are shaped. Bandura (1997) emphasized that self-efficacy beliefs are mostly formed early in learning and tend to become stable and resistant to change. There is considerable research that indicates that teacher self-efficacy tends to be stable once set. For example, Chacón (2005) found that there was no relationship between teacher self-efficacy and years of teaching. She also found that there was no correlation between teacher efficacy for classroom management and professional development. This result, however, confirms those of other studies (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Pajares, 1992; Yilmaz, 2011) in that all of them found that there was no relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' years of experience or their professional development.

This finding is surprising, given that it appears to contradict with the theoretical assumption that mastery experiences are considered to be a powerful source of building self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). I argue that the Omani EFL teachers joined the profession of teaching with pre-existing solid beliefs about learning, teaching, and schooling. These teachers might have developed their beliefs throughout long formal schooling experiences as students. Qualitative data in this study supports this explanation. When some teachers were asked about their experiences with English courses in college, they provided negative feedback. For example, teacher 1 stated that "what they [teaching faculty] gave us in the college are not related to what we do in school." Teacher 7 also believed that "courses focused more on theoretical part than practical one." This indicates that those teachers might have gained their self-efficacy beliefs before college, and this was pointed out by some teachers in this study who considered their school teachers as one source for their self-efficacy. Generally, the pre-existing beliefs with teachers were proved by research (Raths & McAninch, 2003), and the results of this study provided links to support this fact.

Second, less experienced teachers might overestimate their self-efficacy to show that they were good and effective teachers. This overestimation was acknowledged in literature. Tajeddin and Khodaverdi (2011) pointed out that EFL teachers have tendency to promote their efficacy-related image. The more experienced teacher, on the other hand, tended to show more realistic judgment about their self-efficacy beliefs. Consequently, these two dispositions of teachers made no difference in reporting teacher self-efficacy and thus, teaching experience and training courses were not significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy.

Considering the important role of teacher self-efficacy as part of teachers' beliefs, this study suggests that in future research it is necessary to explore how and when teachers build their self-efficacy beliefs. This should be a great concern for designing appropriate teacher education programs that improve teachers' teaching abilities and boost their efficacy beliefs. It also suggests designing special training courses that target changing teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to suit the best practice of teaching (as suggested by Horizon Research Group) English as a foreign language.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy: Sources and Factors

Bandura (1986, 1997) postulated that self-efficacy beliefs are created as teachers interpret information from four sources: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. After teachers perform a teaching experience, they interpret and evaluate the results gained, and judgments are made and revised based on these interpretations. When teachers believe that they have succeed in their task, their confidence to achieve similar tasks is boosted; when they believe that they have failed to achieve their intended outcomes, their confidence to accomplish similar tasks is weakened. Mastery experiences are considered the most influential source of self-efficacy information (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). In addition, teachers judge

their capabilities in relation to the performance of their colleagues. Using colleagues who perform the same tasks as social models plays an important role in building self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Labone, 2004; Usher & Pajares, 2008). When teachers are uncertain about their teaching abilities, they compare themselves to their teacher colleagues as they make judgments about their own teaching abilities. Also, encouragement from supervisors, principals, and colleague teachers can enhance teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Teachers depend on others in the teaching field to provide them with feedback about their performance. Supportive feedback can boost teachers' self-efficacy, while negative feedback can diminish their self-efficacy. Moreover, teachers evaluate their performance under their physiological states (mood, stress, anxiety, etc.). Teachers' emotional reactions to certain teaching task can provide indication to expected result in that task (Bandura, 1997). For example, high anxiety can weaken teacher self-efficacy, but good mood can enhance it.

In the field of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), many studies have empirically confirmed enactive experiences as a source of information for teacher self-efficacy through investigating the correlation between teacher self-efficacy and enactive experiences (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012; Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Huangfu, 2012; Karimi, 2011; Navidinia et al., 2009; Sabokrouh, 2013; Saeidi & Kalantarypour, 2011; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011; Wyatt, 2010; Yilmaz, 2011). Other studies (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Alijanian, 2012; Karimvand, 2011; Nejati et al., 2014; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011) have also explored different demographic and contextual factors based on the premise that teacher self-efficacy is contextually situated (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The results from these studies suggested that there are other factors that influence building EFL teachers' efficacy. These factors include: gender, age, academic degree, and school environment (including teaching resources and collegial support).

It has been argued based on Bandura's (1986) conception of reciprocal determinism that sources of information for teacher self-efficacy are identified through cognitive interpretation of the events. This means that sources of information could include any personal event or behavior interpreted cognitively to construct beliefs about one's ability and reality. Factors that influence teacher self-efficacy, on the other hand, are elements contributing to understanding cognitively the sources of information for self-efficacy. Hence, such factors have an indirect impact on teacher self-efficacy. These factors come from the context surrounding teachers such as contextual and cultural factors.

In the current study, I explored the sources of information for teacher self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influenced these beliefs based on the Omani EFL teachers' perception. The results of this study confirmed the four sources of self-efficacy postulated by Bandura (1997). The results also confirmed the influence of some of the contextual and demographic factors explored in literature such as school environment. The majority of the participants' responses collected from the survey were grouped under two main categories which included: the sources of information for the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influence these beliefs. The participants provided responses (to question one from part two in efficacy survey) to what they perceived as main sources of information for their self-efficacy. They also suggested different factors (responses to question two from part two in efficacy survey) that they believed affected their self-efficacy beliefs.

The content analyses of the participants' responses yielded almost the same categories in both documents (Table 4.11 and Table 4.12): enactive mastery experiences, contextual factors, vicarious learning experiences, verbal persuasion, motivation, teacher dispositions, demographic factors, and physiological arousal. I classified these categories based on the observations noted for each of them in each document. For instance, enactive mastery experiences were observed in the first document (144 times) more than in the second

document (30 times), therefore they were considered as a source of information for teacher self-efficacy. They were also classified under teachers' personal events and behavior which were used cognitively to interpret teachers' abilities.

Sources of teachers' self-efficacy. Figure 1 shows the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Examining the results of the content analysis for the first document reveals that the Omani EFL teachers relied heavily on enactive mastery experiences as a source of information for their self-efficacy beliefs. More than 50% of the participants reported at least one form of enactive experiences as a source of their efficacy beliefs. This result supports those of the previous studies (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) in that all of them agree that mastery experiences are the most powerful source of self-efficacy information. The study participants' enactive experiences included: teachers' English Knowledge, students' achievement, professional development, and years of experience.

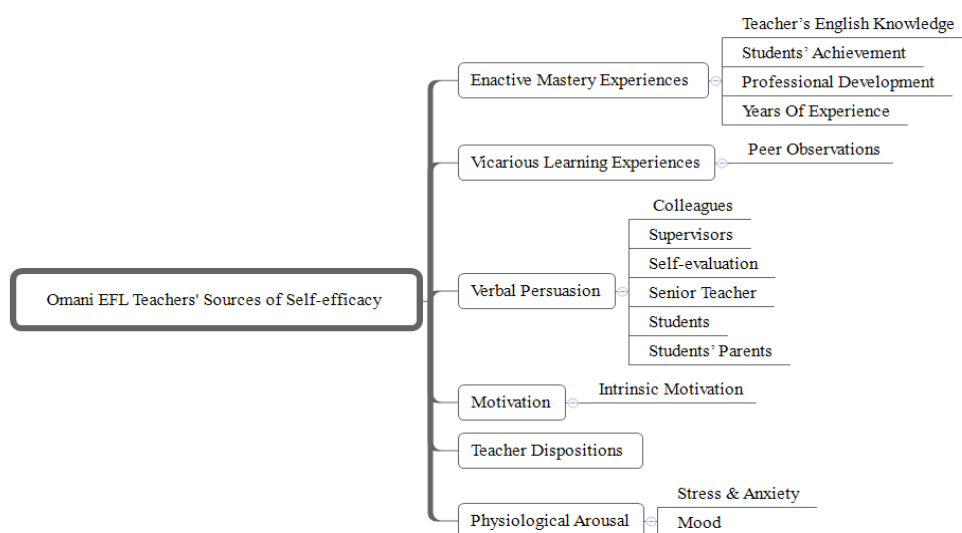


Figure 6.1 Sources of Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Enactive mastery experiences. The Omani EFL teachers believe that having high language skills and teaching abilities would lead them to accomplish their teaching goals. Thus, teachers' confidence about their teaching abilities to teach English and bring change on students' learning will increase. In this sense, the higher teachers' perceived language skills

and teaching abilities, the higher their sense of confidence to teach English and face difficulties. Teachers' sense of high efficacy in English will lead them to 'cope with different, changeable circumstances in teaching,' 'achieve goals of teaching,' and 'making teaching more successful.' This confirms the results from the previous studies (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Yilmaz, 2011). Also, the Omani EFL teachers presume that students' high achievement is indication for their successful teaching performance. Such sense enhances teachers' teaching self-efficacy. This finding supports the theoretical assumption of Bandura (1997) which indicates that mastery of experience (successful teaching experience) is a power source of information for building self-efficacy. For instance, one Omani EFL teacher emphasized that "Students' performance and their grades are the most effective motivation to [him] as a teacher, which drives [him] to keep it up in teaching the language."

In addition, the teachers reported that professional development helps them shaping their teaching efficacy beliefs through providing them with experiences in language and pedagogical knowledge. The teachers feel the need for more participation in training courses to create their teaching beliefs. Moreover, the Omani EFL teachers sense more confidence in their teaching abilities as they have more years of teaching English. This result confirms the previous studies (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011) in that more experienced teachers tend to have high self-efficacy. The only discrepancy in this study is that the quantitative data showed that teachers' self-efficacy is not affected by their years of teaching and professional development. This seems to contradict with the teachers' perception collected from the qualitative data and mentioned previously studies. However, as it is explained, this could be attributed to the stability nature of teachers' beliefs (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Pajares, 1992; Yilmaz, 2011).

Vicarious learning experiences. In this study, vicarious learning experiences were reported as a major source of information for the Omani EFL teachers. Findings indicate that

the Omani EFL teachers use peer observation visits in which teachers learn and compare themselves with other EFL teacher colleagues. The teachers reported that observing their colleagues teaching will help them learning new instructional strategies and building their own teaching self-efficacy. Moreover, part of the teachers even believed that sharing ideas and experiences through group work and discussions would enhance their teaching beliefs by learning new instructional strategies that make them more confident about their teaching abilities. The teachers' perception of the importance of peer observation experiences confirms the theoretical assumption of Bandura (1997) regarding vicarious learning experiences as a source of information for teacher self-efficacy.

Verbal persuasion. Findings from the study provided suggestion that the Omani EFL teachers use verbal persuasion as a source of information for their self-efficacy. A group of the teachers reported that “positive comments from supervisors, administration, and colleagues” encourage them strongly to do their best in teaching. It appears that verbal feedback from colleagues, supervisors, senior teachers, students, and students' parents work as a useful reference for teachers to make judgments about their teaching capabilities. Many teachers reported that positive feedback encourages them and boosts their teaching abilities, whereas negative feedback demotivates them and reduces their self-efficacy. This finding confirms the theoretical assumption of Bandura (1997) that indicates verbal persuasion as a source of information for one's self-efficacy. This study suggests that future research is necessary to further explore how verbal persuasion can be used to enhance teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Physiological arousal. In this study, few teachers reported using physiological states like stress, anxiety, and pressure as a source of information for their self-efficacy. These teachers think that stress and anxiety made by personal and family issues can make them frustrated, which affects their teaching performance. This finding is compatible with

Bandura's (1997) theoretical assumption that teachers' physiological states can provide indication to expected result in certain teaching task. A further research exploring how teachers can use physiological arousal as a source of information for their self-efficacy is suggested.

Intrinsic Motivation. Findings in this study suggest that intrinsic motivation is another source of information for teachers' self-efficacy. A portion of the teachers reported that what composes their self-efficacy beliefs is their 'internal satisfaction' of the importance of teaching English for students nowadays. These teachers seem to love the language and they enjoy teaching it to their students. This means that these teachers have 'value' of their work and 'expect success' in achieving their goals (expectancy-value). For instance, when a teacher was asked what composes her self-efficacy beliefs, she answered "love of the language and the desire to transfer this love to all the students." Another teacher explained her intrinsic motivation as "the main motive within [her] ... belief of the importance of the language in this time era in different fields. As [she is] keen that [her] students should acquire this language properly, ... [and she wants her] students to be creative and excellent." These teachers appear to have the desire to achieve their teaching goals because of their value of learning and the pleasure of seeing it happens (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Pintrich, 2003). Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory focuses cognitively on the expectation side that provides judgments of confidence in future success in accomplishing a task, but it seems that motivation in engaging people in certain tasks is missing. It appears that there are different sources and factors that work together to establish one's self-efficacy beliefs. This finding suggests a further research on how intrinsic motivation plays a role in establishing teachers' self-efficacy.

Teacher dispositions. Findings in this study suggest another source of information for teachers' self-efficacy. I called this source 'teacher dispositions.' It appears that some Omani

EFL teachers believed that their teacher dispositions had the potential to enhance their confidence in their teaching abilities. These teachers felt enthusiasm and a sense of dedication for teaching. For example, one teacher had an inner belief that he always needs to “be creative, updated, and to provide the best for [his] students.” Another teacher stated that she loves “being excellent or passion for excellence.” These teachers’ sense of competence appears to depend on their perceived teacher dispositions. They feel that the dispositions they have, drive them to establish high self-efficacy beliefs. This means that teachers’ perception of their teacher dispositions influences constructing their teaching self-efficacy beliefs and the type of teachers they want to be. The findings of this study suggest a further research to explore how teachers’ dispositions help to build their efficacy beliefs.

Overall, the findings suggest that there are more sources of information for teacher self-efficacy than these identified by Bandura (1997). Two new sources emerged from the analysis in this study, including intrinsic motivation and teacher dispositions. These two sources were even observed more than physiological states. Similar to other previous EFL studies (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012; Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011; Yilmaz, 2011), enactive mastery experiences appear to be the most influential source of information for EFL teachers’ self-efficacy. In addition, this study suggests the existence of other contextual factors (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) that play an indirect role in shaping the Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. The next section will discuss these contextual factors that influence teachers’ self-efficacy.

Factors that influence EFL teachers’ self-efficacy. Figure 2 shows the factors that influence the Omani EFL teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. Previous studies (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014; Alijanian, 2012; Karimvand, 2011; Nejati et al., 2014; Tajeddin & Khodaverdi, 2011) have recognized the influence of the contextual and demographic factors on shaping teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, Alijanian’s (2012) study suggested

that working environment can affect teachers' self-efficacy significantly. It appears that roles of collegial support and school environment are keys in building teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Also, Akbari and Tavassoli's (2014) study indicated that teacher self-efficacy is sensitive to the context and subject matter which is taught. In this study, findings suggest that there are three types of factors influencing teacher self-efficacy. These factors include: contextual, motivational, and demographic factors. These factors were classified to have an indirect role in influencing teachers' self-efficacy based on teachers' perception.

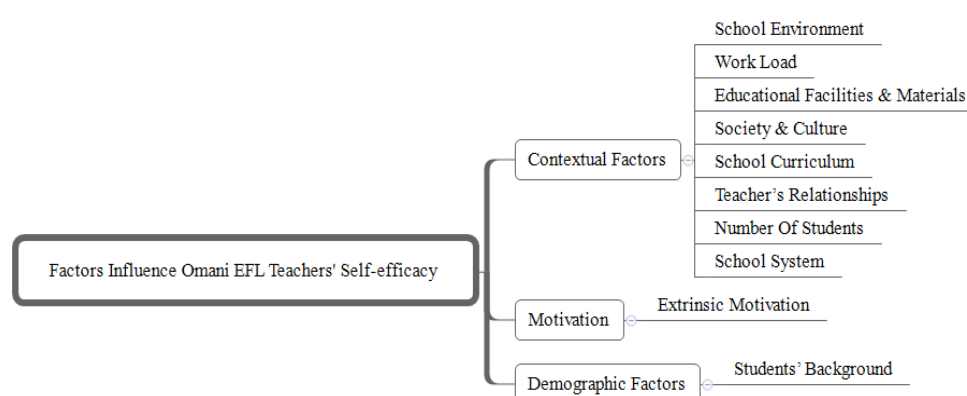


Figure 6.2 Factors that Influence Omani EFL Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Contextual Factors. In this study, contextual factors appeared to influence the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to a great extent. Findings confirm the results of Alijanian's (2012) study in that working environment affect teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The teachers perceived certain contextual factors as factors influenced their self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching, in general. These contextual factors included: school environment, work load, educational facilities and materials, society and culture, school curriculum, teacher's relationships, number of students, and school system. It appears that working in a good school environment that affords plenty of educational materials and resources encourages teachers to provide effective teaching, in which enhances their teaching efficacy beliefs. In addition, positive relationships among teachers themselves and among teachers and school administration in another side, help teachers to easily integrate into the school

environment and cope with the different situations. However, overloaded curriculum and teaching, and big numbers of students in the classroom restrict teachers' abilities to teach the language. This makes teachers feel frustrated and demotivated in which affects their self-efficacy beliefs negatively. Hence, such contextual factors influence shaping and constructing teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Chacón, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Extrinsic Motivation. Findings in this study suggest that extrinsic motivation is another factor influences teachers' self-efficacy. I have classified extrinsic motivation under factors because of its indirect role in affecting teachers' self-efficacy. This type of motivation also comes from teachers' surrounding environment. Some Omani EFL teachers reported extrinsic motivation such as rewards, salary, and any kind of reinforcement from the school administration or the ministry of education would affect their teaching efficacy beliefs and their readiness for teaching. It appears that these teachers were motivated extrinsically and they believed that good teaching should be rewarded and reinforced. For instance, one of the teachers described what motivated him stating that "salary, reinforcement, and support from the administration are incentives and motives for [him] and help to increase [his] self-efficacy." Another teacher complained that "considering and rewarding lazy teachers and ignoring the excellent and talent ones affect teachers' efficacy beliefs negatively." As mentioned previously, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy failed to pin down the importance of motivation in shaping one's self-efficacy. Generally, a person has to have a motivation in the initial sense before engaging in any task (Biggs & Tang, 2007). This finding suggests a further research on the role of extrinsic motivation in shaping teachers' self-efficacy.

Demographic Factors. Teacher self-efficacy has been shown to be related to some demographic factors, including gender, age, academic degree, and teachers' professional lives (Karimvand, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Findings in this study show that the

Omani EFL teachers' sense of efficacy is also related to students' backgrounds. For example, some teachers reported that factors like "status of students' families, and parents' follow-up visits with their children in the school affect [their] self-efficacy." Such teachers believed that "knowing ... students' background, their families' status and how they were brought up could help ... to teach them and create mutual respect." When teachers get to know their students for the purpose of meeting their students' learning needs, it is likely to enhance teachers' sense of self-efficacy. As Bandura (1997) argues that the strength of individuals lies partly in their sense of their abilities to solve the problems they face to improve their lives. Therefore, the same idea is true for these teachers trying to know their students' background to help them. Knowing students' backgrounds appears to play a role in influencing teachers' self-efficacy. This study suggests a further research is needed to explore the role of knowing students' backgrounds in shaping teachers' self-efficacy.

Many factors influenced the ways in which the Omani EFL teachers perceived and interpreted information as they make judgments about their teaching capabilities. Bandura (1997) postulated that there are four sources of information for one's self-efficacy. However, this study suggested several factors influence teachers' self-efficacy beside the sources mentioned in the previous section. It appeared that EFL teachers' self-efficacy is affected by contextual, motivational, and demographic factors. The Omani EFL teachers' perception of their teaching efficacy sources and the factors that influence them was shaped and affected by their cultural and contextual settings. They perceived information for their self-efficacy beliefs from different sources and factors additively or relatively when one source is stronger than others depending on their perceptual integration. Further research is required to explore how these sources and factors interacting together to help EFL teachers shaping their self-efficacy.

The following section discusses the relationship between the Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to effectively implement teaching English as a foreign language.

Teachers' Self-Efficacy and Ability to Teach EFL

When the 12 Omani EFL teacher participants' self-efficacy explored in relation to their teaching abilities, it appeared that for at least 10 of the 12 teachers, self-efficacy beliefs were valid predictors of the subsequent classroom teaching. Nevertheless, results from teachers 1 and 2 indicate that one should be extremely cautious about the predictive ability of TSES scale. Out of these particular results, one wonders how could these particular two teachers with such strong self-efficacy beliefs perform relatively low in the classroom teaching? This could be attributed to some reasons. First, it is possible that self-report TSES belief scale is not predictive of the real classroom teaching and practices, although some researchers have indicated the opposite (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Yet, this possibility cannot be ignored, hence this study suggests further research on exploring such self-report belief instruments.

Second possible explanation is that these two teachers with sense of strong self-efficacy beliefs failed to feed in their self-efficacy beliefs properly. As Bandura (1986) argues that people are seen as self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating, these two teachers had not possibly reflected on their teaching or they were provided with incorrect feedback about their teaching in which they built on their self-efficacy. One's self-efficacy beliefs are described as the major mediators of behavior change (Bandura, 2006). This means that one's beliefs lead to actions that mirror these beliefs, and these beliefs are reconstructed and reshaped based on the reflecting on the action (see Figure 3).

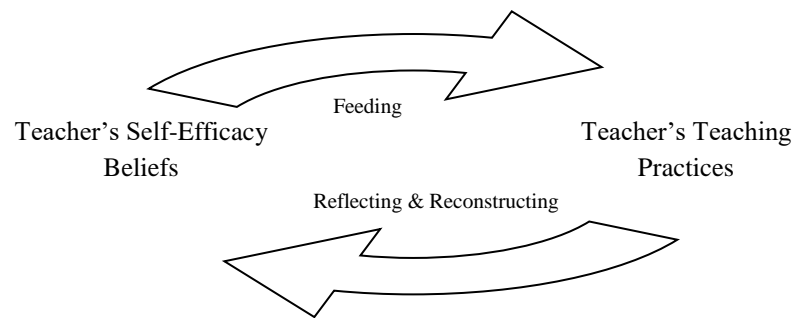


Figure 6.3 Teacher's Self-Efficacy Beliefs & Teacher's Practice

When these two teachers were asked what it takes to be effective English teacher in their interviews, teacher 1 answered: “providing [students] with the suitable materials, expose them to the real English by sending them to English speaking countries.” While teacher 2 answered: “patience, students’ reinforcement, and encouragement.” Teacher’s 1 perception of effective English teaching appears to focus on what teacher does (teacher-centered), instead of focusing on what students do and how they learn (student-centered approach). Teacher’s 2 perception of effective teaching also appears to focus on teacher’s work instead of students’ learning. For these teachers, based on their definition of effective teaching, they might have believed that they had achieved their intended learning goals. In their opinion, successful teaching was achieved by how many activities teachers used with the students (providing materials, exposed student to real language, be patient, provide encouragement). These perceived successful teaching practices would then enhance these teachers’ beliefs of teaching capabilities. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs are altered and strengthened by one of these four sources: successful experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. In the case of the two teachers, since they perceived successful teaching based on teachers’ activities, then they experienced success in their work. Nonetheless, based on the Horizon Research protocol, successful, effective teaching is defined in terms of engaging students and helping them achieving the intended learning outcomes. If this is the case, then teachers should be reflective and be able to decide on things they need to make their students learn. This could happen through training teachers

to reflect on their teaching and discuss their experiences with other successful teachers or experts.

Third possible explanation is that these two teachers' lessons were under-rated. It could be that these two teachers were much better than the ratings indicate and they could be rated higher if another observer attended their classes. However, I have observed them 3 times in three different classes as I observed the others. This is supposed to enhance the reliability of the study. Yet, it touches upon a limitation of this study. Only one observer (evaluator) conducted these classroom observations and as it is known, different observers might have different judgments. As a researcher, I intend to continue using the Horizon Research protocol with other supervisors and teacher trainers after training them on it. I believe that using this protocol properly will yield similar rating with different observers.

For the other 10 teachers, findings showed that teachers' self-reported self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. This confirms Bandura's (1977) theoretical assumption that self-efficacy beliefs can be powerfully predictors of behavior. Thus, this study has taken a further step in examining the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their real teaching practices inside the classroom. In doing so, this study has confirmed that there is a relationship between what teachers believe about their teaching capabilities and what they do inside their classrooms. The study should add to the literature of EFL teacher self-efficacy in that it highlights the importance of EFL teachers' beliefs on their teaching practices. It also highlights the importance of exploring, identifying, and reflecting on EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their relationship with teachers' teaching practices as a key component of every teacher education program, professional development training, and in-service supervisory visits.

Limitations

This study has a number of limitations. First, the study was limited to its context. Despite the fact that this study used a purposeful sample that might have represented the population of the study, which was the population of Omani EFL teachers in Dhahirah District, it could not be representative of the whole population of EFL teachers in Oman. Therefore, the conclusions from this study are difficult to be generalized to the bigger population of EFL teachers in Oman or even in other countries. Replication of this study with a more general population of EFL teachers is an important step for future research.

Second, teacher self-efficacy scale instrument (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) might be general as some researchers critiqued it (Akbari and Tavassoli, 2014), despite it was adapted for this study in terms of its subject matter and context. Future research using TSES scale should consider adapting it to reflect the specific important tasks in the context of EFL classroom teaching. In addition, TSES scale was based on self-reported data which may weaken the reliability of the reported results

Nevertheless, the validity of the results in this study relies to some extent on the participants' honesty. It was just assumed that this efficacy scale was completed truthfully and accurately by the participants. A more accurate method of measuring teachers' self-efficacy might have been attained through interviews and discussions. Moreover, a less obvious concern was related to completing this long form (24-items scale) of TSES scale by the participants. About seven of the participants did not complete some of the items in the survey which has affected the sample size anyway. The participants might have been more prepared to read the items carefully and checked that all items have been completed correctly.

Third, evaluating the EFL teachers' teaching practices in the classroom depended on one evaluator (the researcher), which touches upon a limitation of this study. Although classroom evaluation protocol was used, lessons might be rated differently by another

evaluator. More trained observers or evaluators could have been used to evaluate teachers in their classrooms. Finally, due to time constraints, observation for each teacher was conducted three times which indicates some limitations because as every teacher knows, not all days are equal when it comes to teaching effectiveness.

Implications for Theory and Practice in Teacher Education

The results of this study provide both theoretical and practical implications for teacher self-efficacy theory, teachers, supervisors, teacher trainers, and policy makers in the field of EFL teaching, teacher education programs at universities, and research of teacher self-efficacy. This section discusses the implications of the study.

Implications for teacher self-Efficacy theory. The concept of self-efficacy is conceived as the core foundation of human agency (Bandura, 2006). People are motivated to pursue an action if they believe they can achieve a successful outcome (Bandura, 2006). Therefore, self-efficacy beliefs are described as the major mediators of behavior change. Self-efficacy can, in this case, predict “the goals people set for themselves and their performance attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p.11). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is goal-directed, task and domain-specific, depending on the context. High self-efficacy in certain setting does not guarantee high efficacy in another. In addition, Bandura (1977, 1997) has identified four sources of information by which individuals construct their self-efficacy beliefs including: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious learning experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal.

In the current study, findings suggested that there are extra sources of information for teacher self-efficacy besides the ones identified by Bandura (1977). This study identified new sources of teacher self-efficacy including: intrinsic motivation (internal beliefs of achieving teaching goals because of the value for learning) and teacher dispositions (being enthusiastic and dedicated teacher). The study also suggested other factors influenced teacher self-

efficacy included contextual, motivational (extrinsic), and demographic factors.

Consequently, I emphasize the importance of these new sources and factors in shaping teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Such sources and factors might increase or decrease teachers' self-efficacy beliefs strongly. For instance, a group of the Omani EFL teachers were extrinsically motivated by the high salary they received compared to other professions in the country. Therefore, these teachers showed high self-efficacy beliefs in their teaching abilities, considering the fact that these teachers might lose their job if they were not competent.

The study also highlighted the importance of contextual factors such as school environment and culture. This has considerable consequences in investigating and measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In this sense, the way teachers construct their self-efficacy beliefs differs based on the culture and context. This means that future research on teacher self-efficacy needs to consider adapting tools and methods of measuring self-efficacy beliefs so that they embrace these two main factors, culture and context. TSES scale by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) might measure different specific tasks within several domains of teaching. However, the measure did not consider the contextual and cultural factors under which teaching self-efficacy beliefs are constructed. Efficacy scale used in the future may measure self-efficacy beliefs in the context and culture in which these beliefs are shaped. This will also help selecting specific teaching tasks that are meaningful in the specified context and culture. In the light of these findings, the study has contributed to the theoretical assumptions of EFL teacher self-efficacy sources of information. The study has extended the sources and the factors which may construct teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

The study also provided evidence to support those studies on teachers' beliefs that claim that EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are stable (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Yilmaz, 2011). In this regard, the study showed that there was no relationship between EFL teacher self-efficacy and each of years of teaching

and training courses. Given that teaching experiences and professional development have been shown to be associated with EFL teacher self-efficacy (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Alijanian, 2012), the study suggested that EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were stable once they were shaped. Future research may examine EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and its stability. At the same time, future research needs to be concerned with the way teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are constructed and changed.

The study has additionally taken a further step by addressing the gap in literature which concerns the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching practices in the classroom. The results showed that there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their teaching in the classroom. It was found that self-efficacy beliefs can powerfully predict teachers' behavior inside the classroom. Thus, the study added to the literature of EFL teacher self-efficacy by highlighting the importance of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on teachers' behavior inside the classroom. The study also draws attention to the importance of teachers reflecting on their self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching, so they can change and reconstruct their self-efficacy beliefs.

Moreover, most of the studies on EFL teacher self-efficacy were quantitative and used only a self-report questionnaire instrument which is not sufficient to gain an in-depth understanding of teacher self-efficacy (Henson, 2002; Klassen et al., 2011; Labone, 2004; Wheatley, 2005). However, this study used a mixed method approach which helped to obtain more detailed and specific information about the reality of what EFL teachers perceived as their self-efficacy and its sources. The study inspires researchers who are willing to explore teacher self-efficacy in EFL teaching field, to consider using mixed method or qualitative approaches instead of depending on quantitative studies.

Implications for practice in teacher education. The study has some practical implications for EFL teachers, teacher trainers, teacher education programs at universities

and educators in general. This study helps teachers and practitioners in EFL teaching field to extend their knowledge and understanding of the importance of teacher self-efficacy and its impact on teaching and students' achievement.

Introducing teacher self-efficacy in teacher education programs. The study has established the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their behaviors in the classroom. It was shown that teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs tend to use more effective teaching practices that meet with their students' learning needs. These findings provide implications for teacher education programs at university level that there is a need to introduce teacher self-efficacy and its importance in these programs. Teacher education programs may specify courses for teacher self-efficacy, so that teacher educators can help teacher students to reflect, change, and reconstruct their self-efficacy beliefs. The content of these courses, for instance, can include the construct of self-efficacy, its sources and factors, and the related literature. The content may also have some sessions for exploring, identifying, and reflecting on student teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The data collected from interviews in this study showed that some teachers reported that they have not benefited from some courses in their teacher education programs, because these courses were not addressing issues concerning EFL teachers and their teaching. Thus, and since teachers' self-efficacy has been proved to be important, I believe introducing it in teacher education programs is a necessity.

Reforming in-service training. The study concluded that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were not associated with their in-service training courses. It was suggested that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs tend to be stable (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Pajares, 1992; Yilmaz, 2011). It was also found that teachers act upon their beliefs. These results have implications for in-service training courses, particularly in Oman, and elsewhere, in general. Since teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were not affected by the training courses, this suggests the possibility that these courses might not have been effective in producing the

desired change on teachers. Therefore, there is a necessity to revisit the current in-service training courses offered to Omani EFL teachers. These courses can be redesigned in a way that helps enhancing teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. One key component in these in-service training courses can be concerned with exploring, identifying, and reflecting on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. This can be done through encouraging teachers to video-tape themselves teaching. Then, the recorded lessons can be evaluated and analyzed in different sessions, using Research Classroom Observation Protocol. Analysis and evaluation should take place in a collaborative approach between teachers in which opportunities are provided for teachers to reflect and learn.

Enhancing teachers' self-efficacy. Since the important role of teacher self-efficacy beliefs in teaching and learning has been confirmed, this study provides implications for EFL teachers. The study showed that two Omani EFL teachers reported relatively low self-efficacy for students' engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. When these two teachers were observed and evaluated in their classrooms, they scored relatively low in their teaching effectiveness. This indicates the importance of preparing EFL teachers to have strong self-efficacy beliefs, which will consequently impact their teaching capabilities positively. Enhancing teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can be achieved through different ways. First, special training programs should be designed to target teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, especially those related to students' engagement and classroom management. According to the Horizon Research Classroom Observation Protocol, effective teaching is defined in terms of engaging students in learning and achieving the intended learning outcomes. Omani EFL teachers appeared to focus more on teacher's teaching strategies than students' learning. Therefore, changing teachers' beliefs from teacher-centered teaching approach to student-centered teaching approach is required in this sense. Second, the study has showed that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by some contextual and motivational factors.

Hence, schools' administrations should provide appropriate environment that encourages teachers to be productive, enthusiastic, and dedicated for the work. In addition, these administrations can utilize extrinsic motivation (e.g. rewards) to reinforce effective teachers as a way of showing appreciation and respect. Third, supervisors can encourage teachers to be involved in peer observation visits, so they can learn from each other. Moreover, supervisors can encourage reflective teaching style, and give more opportunities for teachers to reflect on their teaching practices.

Directions for Future Research

The findings of this study provide some directions for future research. First, because of the limitation of this study that is embedded in the sample size of the participants, it seems considerable to replicate the study, using a more general population of EFL teachers. Second, since the used TSES scale is limited in reflecting the context of EFL teaching, it is recommended that future research should be conducted to develop an instrument that can measure and reflect the correct EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, the study showed that there was no relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and each of teaching experience and training courses. This indicates the possibility that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are stable once they are formed. Therefore, a third line of research is to investigate how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are constructed and when these beliefs are developed. Also, more research is needed to explore how teacher self-efficacy beliefs can be altered. In doing so, longitudinal, qualitative studies are recommended to follow teachers over a long period of time in order to explore the construction and development of their self-efficacy beliefs.

In addition, this study has extended the sources of information for teacher self-efficacy beliefs and the factors that influence these beliefs. It appears that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are shaped and affected by some contextual and cultural factors. Hence, a

fourth line of research is to explore how self-efficacy sources and factors interact together to construct EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Fifth, since teacher self-efficacy is considered a universal construct, it seems necessary to conduct some comparative studies that explore teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in different cultures and contexts, such comparative studies can provide useful insights of the main foundations for teacher self-efficacy.

Conclusion

Considering the powerful impacts of teacher self-efficacy on teaching and learning, the purpose of this particular study was to explore EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in EFL teaching context in Oman through utilizing an explanatory mixed methods design. In order to do so, the perceived levels of teachers' self-efficacy for (a) engaging students, (b) classroom management, and (c) instructional strategies were measured. In addition, the relationship of the variables included: years of teaching and training courses with teachers' self-efficacy was investigated. More specifically, the study investigated whether years of teaching and training courses can predict teachers' self-efficacy. Also, the study investigated the sources that composed Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and the factors that influenced these self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, the study examined the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their ability to effectively teach English as a foreign language. The study revealed several results. First, means computed for the three subscales of efficacy revealed that the participants perceived their capabilities for instructional strategies as higher than their capabilities for classroom management and students' engagement, respectively. Second, the standard multiple linear regression analyses showed that both years of teaching and training courses were not significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.

Third, the content analysis of the participants' responses suggested that the sources of information for Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy included: enactive mastery experiences (including teacher's English knowledge, students' achievement, professional development,

and years of experience), vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, intrinsic motivation, and teacher dispositions. In addition, the content analysis showed that Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy were influenced by contextual factors (including school environment, work load, educational facilities and materials, society and culture, school curriculum, teacher's relationships, number of students and school system), extrinsic motivation, and demographic factors. Finally, the study has confirmed that there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching practices in the classroom. In general, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs tended to be consistent with their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. This study has added to the growing literature that claims the importance of EFL teacher self-efficacy in teaching and learning.

APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER WITH INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

Respected EFL teacher,

My name is Abdullah Al-Shukri. I am currently a full-time doctoral student at Department of Teaching and Learning, College of Education, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, USA and I would like to conduct a research study as a requirement of my Doctoral Degree. I am writing this letter to kindly invite you to be one of my participants in this research study.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy, focusing on their personal teaching beliefs in regards to their capabilities of teaching English as a foreign language. For doing so, the study will investigate the sources of efficacy Omani EFL teachers use to build their self-efficacy. Also, the relationship between Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy and factors include: years of teaching and number of training courses and workshops will be explored. In addition, to investigate the connection between reported efficacy beliefs and the actual teaching capabilities of Omani EFL teachers, the relationship of EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to effectively teach English in the classroom will be investigated. It is expected that this study will have potential theoretical and practical significance for Omani EFL teachers, Omani teacher trainers, and educators. This study will help EFL teachers and their trainers to extend their knowledge and understanding of the importance of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and its impact on teaching and students' achievement. It will also help identifying and shaping the components of EFL teacher professional development and training programs. The survey will be administered to a purposeful sample of Omani EFL teachers (up to 60 participants in the first phase) from

Cycle Two schools in northern part of Oman, particularly, Dhahirah District. The data will be confidential and reported as such. The survey is divided by section, 1) teacher demographic information, and 2) teacher self-efficacy beliefs. You were selected to be a possible participant because you are an EFL teacher at Dhahirah District.

What you will be asked to do?

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire in the first phase. This study will take approximately 30 minutes of your time. For those who will be chosen to the second phase of data collection (12 participants), they will be asked to take part in individual open-ended interviews and they will be observed in a teaching context (approximately three classes in different periods). In the observation sessions, you will be evaluated based on criteria that you will have the chance to look at later. In the interviews, you will be asked some questions about your lesson. I will also exchange emails and contact number in order to conduct any follow-up interviews if they are needed for clarification of your ideas. The data collection period will be approximately 3 months. Each classroom observation will take about 45 minutes and be conducted in your normal teaching schedule. Each interview will take about 25 minutes and be conducted outside your teaching timetable at your convenience. So, the total estimated time for the 12 participants in the two phases of the research is about 3 hours and 16 minutes. All interviews will be audio-recorded. I will be flexible to take notes if you find recording uncomfortable. We will negotiate the language in which our activities will be conducted.

What are the risks involved in this study?

The risks associated in this study are minimal, and are not greater than risks ordinarily encountered in daily life.

What are the possible benefits of this study?

You will receive no direct benefit from participating in this study, but the insight you provide through your survey response may attribute to a better understanding of issues that teachers deal with. Program development and intervention can assist future teachers, thus creating a better and more successful teacher.

Do you have to participate?

No. Your participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate or to withdraw any time without your current or future relations with University of Nevada, Las Vegas or the Ministry of Education in Oman being affected.

Will there be any compensation?

There will not be any compensation for participating in this study.

Who will know about my participating in this research study?

The study is anonymous and the participant's name or identification number, and all the records of this study will be kept confidential. No identifiers linking you to this study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely and only the researchers will have access to the records. The audio files and other electronic data files will be deleted by May 2015, when the study is completed. As well, the researchers will destroy the data in the physical records by shredding them.

Whom do I contact with questions about the research?

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact the researchers: Dr. Shaoan Zhang at +1-702-895-5084 or shaoan.zhang@unlv.edu and Abdullah Al-Shukri at +968-9891-5511 or abdullah_alshukri@yahoo.com

Who do I contact about my rights as a research participant?

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Boards (IRB) of University of Nevada, Las Vegas and by the Technical Office for Studies and Development

at Ministry of Education in Oman. For research-related problems or questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you can contact the UNLV Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at 702-895-2794 or toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu, or the Technical Office at +968-2477-3157 or email tosd@moe.om

Thank you for participating in this research!

Persons obtaining permission:

Shaoan Zhang, Ph. D.

Associate Professor of Teacher Education

Department of Teaching and Learning

College of Education

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Tel: (702)895-5084

Email: shaoan.zhang@unlv.edu

Abdullah Al-Shukri

Doctoral Student at Department of

Teaching and Learning

College of Education,

University of Nevada, Las Vegas -

UNLV

Tel. +968-9891-5511

Email: abdullah_alshukri@yahoo.com

APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM



INFORMED CONSENT

Department of Teaching & Learning

**TITLE OF STUDY: From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in
Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language**

INVESTIGATOR(S): Dr. Shaoan Zhang & Abdullah Al-Shukri

For questions or concerns about the study, you may contact the researchers at +1-702-895-5084 or +968-989-15511.

For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact **the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu.**

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate Omani EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching English as a foreign language and its relationship with each of: teachers' ability to effectively teach English, the sources of efficacy EFL teachers utilize, and different factors that may affect their self-efficacy, such as years of teaching and number of in-service training courses and workshops teachers have attended.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you fit the criteria of being an Omani teacher of English as a foreign language who are working in one of the public Cycle Two schools that are located in Dhahirah District, and you are teaching English for students in grades 5-10.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study as Omani EFL teacher, you will be asked to complete two surveys (last for about 30 minutes) and may be selected to be observed in three teaching class periods and interviewed about your self-efficacy beliefs of teaching English as a foreign language. This will be in form of classroom observations for about 45 minutes each class (for total 3 classes) and a semi-structured, open-ended interview which will last for about 25 minutes throughout the whole academic year. The observation data will be collected using classroom observation protocol. However, the interview data will be collected using a digital recorder and then transcribed. Your responses will be recorded with your permission. The collected data from the observations and the interviews will be used to answer questions 3, 4, and 5 from the research questions.

Benefits of Participation

There may be no direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn some knowledge and understanding of the importance of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and its impact on teaching and students' achievement. The study might indirectly benefit you in receiving good quality professional development that aimed specifically at enhancing your self-efficacy beliefs.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks.

You may become uncomfortable being observed while you are teaching or recorded when answering open-ended interview questions.

Cost/Compensation

There will be no financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take 30 minutes of your time to complete the two surveys. However, if you are selected to continue in the study for the interview and classroom observations, this will take about 3 hours and 16 minutes, in total, from your time. You will not be compensated for your time.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept as confidential as possible. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. Any information that can identify a participant will be deleted from the data base. All participants' names in the study will be pseudonyms. After consenting and before starting the study, each participant will be assigned with a specific participant's name or letter or even number (for instance, participant X) to guarantee the protection of the privacy and the objectivity of data analysis. Participants will only be referred to by their pseudonyms during data analysis, and at no point during the study will names be recorded. Data will be stored in a locked drawer in the house of the student researcher during the stay of collecting data in Oman, accessible only to the researcher. While travelling back to the United States, all data will be carried in well-protected hand luggage to ensure safety of materials. In the United States, the survey data, classroom observation protocol, and transcripts will be kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office, room CEB 366, only accessible to the researcher and his advisor. The recordings as well as other electronic data files will be kept on password protected personal computers of the researchers (Abdullah Al-Shukri and his advisor Dr. Shaoan Zhang) at

UNLV. The audio files and other electronic data files will be deleted by May 2015, when the study is completed. As well, the researchers will destroy the data in the physical records by shredding them.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Participant Consent

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have been able to ask questions about the research study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

Signature of Participant

Date

Participant Name (Please Print)

Audio/Video Taping:

I agree to be audio or video taped for the purpose of this research study.

Signature of Participant

Date

Participant Name (Please Print)

APPENDIX C: TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Please answer every question to the best of your ability. Your answers will remain confidential.

1. Name (optional): _____
2. Gender:
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Female
3. What is your age? _____
4. How many years have you been teaching? _____
5. How many years have you been teaching at:
 - ☐ Cycle One schools (1-4), _____
 - ☐ Cycle Two schools (5-10), _____
 - ☐ Post Basic schools (11-12), _____
6. What is your highest degree you have received?
 - ☐ Bachelor
 - ☐ Master
 - ☐ Others, specify: _____
7. What grade level do you primarily teach?
8. How many training courses have you received? _____
9. What were these training courses?

10. How many workshops have you attended? _____
11. What were these workshops?

APPENDIX D: TEACHER SENSE OF EFFICACY SCALE – TSES

Teacher Beliefs – TSES <i>Directions:</i> Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking any one of the nine responses in the columns on the right side, ranging from (1) “None at all” to (9) “A Great Deal” as each represents a degree on the continuum. Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your <i>current</i> ability, resources, and opportunity to do each of the following in your present position.		Part 1: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create challenges for teachers. Your answers are confidential.								
		None at all	Very Little		Some Degree		Quite A Bit		A Great Deal	
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in learning English?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in learning English?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning English?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in learning English?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Part 2:

1. What composes your efficacy beliefs?
2. What are the factors that might affect your efficacy beliefs positively or negatively?

APPENDIX E: PRE-CLASSROOM OBSERVATION INTERVIEW

After you have expressed appreciation to the teacher for allowing you to observe the class, and answered any questions s/he might have about confidentiality, the incentive system, etc., ask the following questions:

1. What has this class been doing in English recently?

PROBES: What unit are you working on?

What instructional materials are you using?

2. What do you anticipate doing in your English class on the day I will be observing?

PROBE: What do you hope students will learn as a result of the work you have planned?

3. What is the next step for this class?

4. Is there anything in particular that I should know about the group of students that I will be observing?

APPENDIX F: POST-CLASSROOM OBSERVATION INTERVIEW

After you have expressed appreciation to the teacher for allowing you to observe the class, ask the following questions:

1. Were there any ways in which the lesson was different from what you had planned?
2. What did this lesson tell you about what your students are learning and still need to learn in English?

PROBE: How do you plan to further assess the students' learning?

3. What challenges have you faced in encouraging your students to be actively engaged in this English language class?

PROBE: How have you approached these challenges?

4. What is the next step for this class?

APPENDIX G: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Grade Level: _____

Date of Observation: _____

Lesson Observed: _____

Observer's Role:

Time of Observation:

____ Lead Evaluator

Start _____ End _____

____ Other Trained Observer

SECTION ONE: CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND AND ACTIVITIES

In this section, please fill in the circles that best describe the class. *For each item, be sure to fill in all responses that apply.*

I. Classroom Demographics and Context

A. What is the total number of students in

B. Indicate the *teacher's* gender:

the class at the time of the observation?

☐ Male ☐ Female

☐ 15 or fewer

☐ 16–20

☐ 21–25

☐ 26–30

☐ 31 or more

C. Rate the adequacy of the physical environment.

1. Classroom resources:

☐

☐

☐

☐

☐

1

2

3

4

5

Sparsely equipped

Rich in resources

2. Classroom Space:

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1 2 3 4 5

Crowded

Adequate space

3. Room arrangement:

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1 2 3 4 5

Inhibited interactions among students

Facilitated interactions among students

II. Lesson Description

In a paragraph or two, describe the lesson you observed. Include where this lesson fits in the overall unit of study. Be sure to include enough detail to provide a context for your ratings of this lesson and also to allow you to recall the details of this lesson when needed in future years for longitudinal analysis.

III. Purposes of Lesson

A. Indicate the *major content area(s)* of this lesson or activity.

☐ 1. Listening ☐ 2. Reading ☐ 3. Grammar ☐ 4. Writing ☐ 5. Vocabulary

B. Indicate the *primary intended purpose(s)* of this lesson or activity based on the pre- and/or post observation interviews with the teacher.

- ☐ 1. Identifying prior student knowledge
- ☐ 2. Introducing new vocabulary
- ☐ 3. Extracting information from a listening text
- ☐ 4. Reviewing vocabulary
- ☐ 5. Developing problem-solving skills
- ☐ 6. Learning writing processes
- ☐ 7. Reading for specific information (skimming/ scanning)

- ☐ 8. Practicing reading for mastery
- ☐ 9. Learning grammar for accuracy
- ☐ 10. Assessing student understanding

IV. Instructional Materials

A. Is this lesson based on instructional materials designated for use in this lesson?

- ☐ Yes. Please specify. _____ ☐ No, SKIP to Part V below

B. How closely did the lesson adhere to the instructions provided in the teacher's book?

- ☐ Exactly ☐ Almost totally ☐ Mostly ☐ Somewhat ☐ A little ☐ Hardly at all

D. How did the modifications affect the quality of the lesson design?

- ☐ Helped a lot ☐ Helped a little ☐ Neutral ☐ Hurt a little ☐ Hurt a lot

V. Classroom Instruction

A. Indicate the *major way(s)* in which student activities were structured.

- ☐ As a whole group ☐ As small groups ☐ As pairs ☐ As individuals

B. Indicate the *major way(s)* in which students engaged in class activities.

- ☐ Entire class was engaged in the same activities at the same time.
- ☐ Groups of students were engaged in different activities at the same time (e.g., centers).

C. Indicate the *major activities* of students in this lesson. When choosing an "umbrella" category, be sure to indicate subcategories that apply as well. (For example, if you mark "listened to a presentation," indicate by whom.

- ☐ 1. Listened to a presentation:
- ☐ a. By teacher (would include: demonstrations, lectures, media presentations, extensive procedural instructions)
- ☐ b. By student (would include informal, as well as formal, presentations of their work)
- ☐ c. By guest speaker/"expert" serving as a resource
- ☐ 2. Engaged in discussion/seminar:

- ☐ a. Whole group
- ☐ b. Small groups/pairs
- ☐ 3. Engaged in problem solving/investigation:
 - ☐ a. Worked with manipulatives
 - ☐ b. Played a game to build or review knowledge/skills
 - ☐ c. Followed specific instructions in an investigation
 - ☐ d. Had some latitude in designing an investigation
 - ☐ e. Recorded, represented and/or analyzed data
 - ☐ f. Recognized patterns, cycles or trends
 - ☐ g. Evaluated the validity of arguments or claims
 - ☐ h. Provided an informal justification or formal proof
- ☐ 4. Engaged in reading/reflection/written communication about a text:
 - ☐ a. Read a text
 - ☐ b. Answered textbook/worksheet questions
 - ☐ c. Reflected on readings, activities, or problems individually or in groups
 - ☐ d. Prepared a written report
 - ☐ e. Wrote a description of a plan, procedure, or problem-solving process
 - ☐ f. Wrote reflections in a notebook or journal
- ☐ 5. Used technology/audio-visual resource:
 - ☐ a. To develop conceptual understanding
 - ☐ b. To learn or practice a skill
 - ☐ c. To collect data (e.g., probeware)
 - ☐ d. As an analytic tool (e.g., spreadsheets or data analysis)
 - ☐ e. As a presentation tool
 - ☐ f. For word processing or as a communications tool (e.g., e-mail, Internet, Web)
- ☐ 6. Other activities

- ☐ a. Arts and crafts activity
- ☐ b. Listened to a story
- ☐ c. Wrote a poem or story
- ☐ d. Other (Please specify.) _____

D. Comments

Please provide any additional information you consider necessary to capture the activities or context of this lesson. Include comments on any feature of the class that is so salient that you need to get it “on the table” right away to help explain your ratings; for example, the class was interrupted by a fire drill, the kids were excited about an upcoming school event, or the teacher’s tone was so warm (or so hostile) that it was an overwhelmingly important feature of the lesson.

SECTION TWO: RATINGS

In Section One of this form, you documented what occurred in the lesson. In this section, you are asked to rate each of a number of key indicators in four different categories, from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a great extent). You may list any additional indicators you consider important in capturing the essence of this lesson and rate these as well. Use your “Ratings of Key Indicators” (Part A) to inform your “Synthesis Ratings” (Part B). It is important to indicate in “Supporting Evidence for Synthesis Ratings” (Part C) what factors were most influential in determining your synthesis ratings and to give specific examples or quotes to illustrate those factors.

Note that any one lesson is not likely to provide evidence for every single indicator; use 6, “Don’t know” when there is not enough evidence for you to make a judgment. Use 7, “N/A” (Not Applicable) when you consider the indicator inappropriate given the purpose and context of the lesson. Section Two concludes with ratings of the likely impact of instruction, and a capsule description of the lesson.

I. Design

A. Ratings of key indicators

		Not				To a		
		at				great	Don't	N/A
		all				extent	Know	
1.	The design of the lesson incorporated tasks, roles, and interactions consistent with investigative language learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	The design of the lesson reflected careful planning and organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	The instructional strategies and activities used in this lesson reflected attention to students' experience, preparedness, and/or learning styles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	The resources available in this lesson contributed to accomplishing the purposes of the instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	The instructional strategies and activities reflected attention to issues of access, equity, and diversity for students (e.g., cooperative learning, language-appropriate strategies/materials).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	The design of the lesson encouraged a collaborative approach to learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Adequate time and structure were provided for "sense-making."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Adequate time and structure were provided for wrap-up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Formal assessments of students were consistent with investigative language learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Design for future instruction takes into account what transpired in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	_____	1	2	3	4	5		

B. Synthesis rating

1	2	3	4	5
Design of the lesson not at all reflective of best practice in language teaching.				Design of the lesson extremely reflective of best practice in language teaching.

C. Supporting evidence for synthesis rating

II. Implementation

A. Ratings of key indicators

	Not at all				To a great extent			Don't Know	N/A
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
1. The instruction was consistent with the underlying approach of the instructional materials designated for use by the language teaching.									
2. The instructional strategies were consistent with investigative language learning.									
3. The teacher appeared confident in his/her ability to teach English.									
4. The teacher's classroom management style/strategies enhanced the quality of the lesson.									
5. The pace of the lesson was appropriate for the developmental levels/needs of the students and the purposes of the lesson.									
6. The teacher was able to "read" the students' level of understanding and adjusted instruction accordingly.									
7. The teacher's questioning strategies were likely to enhance the development of student conceptual understanding/problem solving (e.g., emphasized higher order questions, appropriately used "wait time," identified prior conceptions and misconceptions).									

8. The lesson was modified as needed based on teacher questioning or other student assessments. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. _____ 1 2 3 4 5

B. Synthesis rating

1	2	3	4	5
Implementation of the lesson not at all reflective of best practice in language teaching.				Implementation of the lesson extremely reflective of best practice in language teaching.

C. Supporting evidence for synthesis rating

III. English Content

A. Ratings of key indicators

- | | Not at all | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | To a great extent | Don't Know | N/A |
|---|------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|------------|-----|
| 1. The English content was significant and worthwhile. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 2. The English content was appropriate for the developmental levels of the students in this class. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 3. Students were intellectually engaged with important ideas relevant to the focus of the lesson. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 4. Teacher-provided content information was accurate. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 5. The teacher displayed an understanding of English concepts (e.g., in his/her dialogue with students). | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 6. English was portrayed as a dynamic body of knowledge continually enriched by conjecture, investigation analysis, and/or proof/justification. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 7. Elements of English abstraction were included when it was important to do so. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 8. Appropriate connections were made to other areas of English, to other disciplines, and/or to real-world contexts. | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

9. The degree of "sense-making" of English content within this lesson was appropriate for the developmental levels/needs of the students and the purposes of the lesson. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. _____ 1 2 3 4 5

B. Synthesis rating

1	2	3	4	5
English content of lesson not at all reflective of current standards for language teaching.				English content of lesson extremely reflective of current standards for language teaching.

C. Supporting evidence for synthesis rating

IV. Classroom Culture

A1. Ratings of key indicators

	Not at all				To a great extent	Don't Know	N/A
1. Active participation of all was encouraged and valued.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. There was a climate of respect for students' ideas, questions, and contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Interactions reflected collegial working relationships among students (e.g., students worked together, talked with each other about the lesson).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Interactions reflected collaborative working relationships between teacher and students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The climate of the lesson encouraged students to generate ideas, questions, conjectures, and/or propositions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Intellectual rigor, constructive criticism, and the challenging of ideas were evident.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. _____	1	2	3	4	5		

A2. Respect for diversity

Based on the culture of a classroom, observers are generally able to make inferences about the extent to which there is an appreciation of diversity among students (e.g., their gender, race/ethnicity, and/or cultural background). While direct evidence that reflects particular sensitivity or insensitivity toward diversity is not often observed, we would like you to document any examples you do see. If any examples were observed, please check here ☐ and describe below:

B. Synthesis rating

1	2	3	4	5
Classroom culture interfered with student learning				Classroom culture facilitated the learning of all students

C. Supporting evidence for synthesis rating

V. Overall Ratings of the Lesson

A. Likely impact of teaching on students' understanding of English

While the impact of a single lesson may well be limited in scope, it is important to judge whether the lesson is likely to help move students in the desired direction. For this series of ratings, consider all available information (i.e., your previous ratings of design, implementation, content, and classroom culture, and the pre- and post-observation interviews with the teacher) as you assess the likely impact of this lesson. Feel free to elaborate on ratings with comments in the space provided.

Select the response that best describes your overall assessment of the *likely effect* of this lesson in each of the following areas.

				Mixed or neutral effect		Positive effect	Don't Know	N/A
		Negative effect						
1.	Students' understanding of English as a dynamic body of knowledge generated and enriched by investigation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Students' understanding of important English concepts.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Students' capacity to carry out their own inquiries.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Students' ability to apply or generalize skills and concepts to other areas of English, other disciplines, and/or real-life situations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Students' self-confidence in practicing English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Students' interest in and/or appreciation for the discipline.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Comments (optional):

B. Capsule description of the quality of the lesson

In this final rating of the lesson, consider all available information about the lesson, its context and purpose, and your own judgment of the relative importance of the ratings you have made. Select the capsule description that best characterizes the lesson you observed.

Keep in mind that this rating is *not* intended to be an average of all the previous ratings, but should encapsulate your overall assessment of the quality and likely impact of the lesson.

Please provide a brief rationale for your final capsule description of the lesson in the space provided.

☐ **Level 1: Ineffective teaching**

There is little or no evidence of student thinking or engagement with important ideas of English. Instruction is *highly unlikely* to enhance students' understanding of the discipline or to develop their capacity to successfully learn English. Lesson was characterized by either (select one below):

☐ **Passive “learning”**

Instruction is pedantic and uninspiring. Students are passive recipients of information from the teacher or textbook; material is presented in a way that is inaccessible to many of the students.

☐ **Activity for activity's sake**

Students are involved in hands-on activities or other individual or group work, but it appears to be activity for activity's sake. Lesson lacks a clear sense of purpose and/or a clear link to conceptual development.

☐ **Level 2: Elements of effective teaching**

Instruction contains some elements of effective practice, but there are *serious problems* in the design, implementation, content, and/or appropriateness for many students in the class. For example, the content may lack importance and/or appropriateness; instruction may not successfully address the difficulties that many students are experiencing, etc. Overall, the lesson is *very limited* in its likelihood to enhance students' understanding of the discipline or to develop their capacity to successfully learn English.

☐ **Level 3: Beginning stages of effective teaching** (Select one below.)

☐ Low 3 ☐ Solid 3 ☐ High 3

Instruction is purposeful and characterized by quite a few elements of effective practice. Students are, at times, engaged in meaningful work, but there are *weaknesses*, ranging from substantial to fairly minor, in the design, implementation, or content of instruction. For

example, the teacher may short-circuit a planned exploration by telling students what they “should have found”; instruction may not adequately address the needs of a number of students; or the classroom culture may limit the accessibility or effectiveness of the lesson. Overall, the lesson is *somewhat limited* in its likelihood to enhance students’ understanding of the discipline or to develop their capacity to successfully learn English.

☐ **Level 4: Accomplished, effective teaching**

Instruction is purposeful and engaging for most students. Students actively participate in meaningful work (e.g., investigations, teacher presentations, discussions with each other or the teacher, reading). The lesson is well-designed and the teacher implements it well, but adaptation of content or pedagogy in response to student needs and interests is limited. Instruction is *quite likely* to enhance most students’ understanding of the discipline and to develop their capacity to successfully learn English.

☐ **Level 5: Exemplary teaching**

Instruction is purposeful and all students are highly engaged most or all of the time in meaningful work (e.g., investigation, teacher presentations, discussions with each other or the teacher, reading). The lesson is well-designed and artfully implemented, with flexibility and responsiveness to students’ needs and interests. Instruction is *highly likely* to enhance most students’ understanding of the discipline and to develop their capacity to successfully learn English.

Please provide your rationale for the capsule rating:

(Adapted from Horizon Research, Inc. 2005–06 Core Evaluation Manual: Classroom Observation Protocol)

APPENDIX H: OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW

1. What do you think it takes to be a good effective English teacher?
2. Do you think that you are capable of being a good effective English teacher? Why or why not?
3. What are your strengths and weaknesses as an English teacher?
4. Describe how people (staff, faculty, administration, parents, students, etc.) have either helped or hindered your English teaching.
5. Describe how the physical environment (e.g. classrooms, materials, equipments, etc.) has either helped or hindered your English teaching.
6. How do you deal with challenges and obstacles to good English teaching?
7. Tell me about your English language-related learning experiences from childhood.
Were they generally positive or negative?
8. Tell me about your experiences with English courses in college. Were they generally positive or negative? Describe how well they prepared you to teach English as foreign language.
9. What helps you to judge your efficacy beliefs as high or low?
10. What are the factors that might affect your efficacy beliefs positively or negatively?
11. What composes your efficacy beliefs?
12. What do you think about the impact of your efficacy beliefs in your EFL teaching ability?

APPENDIX I: PERMISSION FOR USING TSES



William & Mary School of Education

MEGAN TSCHANNEN-MORAN, PHD

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

July 9, 2015

Abdullah,

You have my permission to use the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (formerly called the Ohio State Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale), which I developed with Anita Woolfolk Hoy, in your research. You can find a copy of the measure and scoring directions on my web site at <http://wmpeople.wm.edu/site/page/mxtsch>. Please use the following as the proper citation:

Tschannen-Moran, M & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.

I will also attach directions you can follow to access my password protected web site, where you can find the supporting references for this measure as well as other articles I have written on this and related topics.

I would love to receive a brief summary of your results.

All the best,

Megan Tschannen-Moran____

The College of William and Mary____

School of Education

P.O. Box 8795 • Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795 • (757) 221-2187 • mxtsch@wm.edu

APPENDIX J: LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION

Sultanate of Oman
Ministry of Education
Directorate General of Dahirah District



Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects
University of Nevada Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Parkway Box 451047
Las Vegas, NV 89154-1047

Subject: Letter of Authorization to Conduct Research at Dahirah District schools.

Dear Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects:

This letter will serve as authorization for the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV) doctoral student researcher, Abdullah Al-Shukri to conduct the research project entitled "Form Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language" at public Cycle Two schools in Dahirah District.

The Facility acknowledges that it has reviewed the protocol presented by the researcher, as well as the associated risks to the Facility. The Facility accepts the protocol and the associated risks to the Facility, and authorizes the research project to proceed. The research project may be implemented at the Facility upon approval from the UNLV Institutional Review Board.

If we have any concerns or require additional information, we will contact the researcher and/or the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects.

Sincerely,

09/20/2015

Hakam Salim Al Farsi
Head of Human Resources Department at Dahirah District



Facility Authorization 2-2015

APPENDIX K: IRB APPROVAL



UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB - Expedited Review Approval Notice

DATE: December 7, 2015

TO: Shaoan Zhang, PHD
FROM: UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB

PROTOCOL TITLE: [811736-4] From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

SUBMISSION TYPE: Revision

ACTION: APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE: December 6, 2015
EXPIRATION DATE: December 5, 2016
REVIEW TYPE: Expedited Review

Thank you for submission of Revision materials for this protocol. The UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a protocol design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

PLEASE NOTE:

Upon approval, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the protocol most recently reviewed and approved by the IRB, which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent forms and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains approval and expiration dates.

Should there be *any* change to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit a **Modification Form** through ORI - Human Subjects. No changes may be made to the existing protocol until modifications have been approved.

ALL UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risk to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please use the appropriate reporting forms for this procedure. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

All NONCOMPLIANCE issues or COMPLAINTS regarding this protocol must be reported promptly to this office.

This protocol has been determined to be a Minimal Risk protocol. Based on the risks, this protocol requires continuing review by this committee on an annual basis. Submission of the **Continuing Review Request Form** must be received with sufficient time for review and continued approval before the expiration date of December 5, 2016.

If you have questions, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 702-895-2794. Please include your protocol title and IRBNet ID in all correspondence.

Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects
4505 Maryland Parkway . Box 451047 . Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1047
(702) 895-2794 . FAX: (702) 895-0805 . IRB@unlv.edu

REFERENCES

- Alijanian, E. (2012). Experienced versus inexperienced EFL teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy: the case of public and private sectors. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 257–262.
- Al-Issa, A. (2006). The cultural and economic politics of ELT in the Sultanate of Oman. *Asia EFL Journal On-line*, 8(1). Retrieved August 22, 2015, from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/September_06_asmai.php
- Al-Issa, A. (2007). English language teaching at the College of Law-Muscat, Sultanate of Oman: Analyzing needs & understanding problems. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching (AJELT)*, 17, 65–86.
- Al-Issa, A. (2010). Factors influencing critical thinking in the ELT context. In R. Al-Mahrooqi & V. Tuzlukova (Eds.), *The Omani ELT symphony: Maintaining linguistic and socio-cultural equilibrium* (pp. 169–202). Oman: Sultan Qaboos University.
- Al-Issa, A. (2011). Advancing English language teaching research in Gulf Cooperation Council States universities. *MJAL*, 3(2), 60-77.
- Al-Issa, A., & Al-Bulushi, A. (2010). Training English language student teachers to become reflective teachers. *The Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(4), 41–64.
- Al-Issa, A. S., & Al-Bulushi, A. H. (2012). English language teaching reform in Sultanate of Oman: The case of theory and practice disparity. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 11(2), 141–176.
- Al-Jardani, K. S. S. (2012). English language curriculum evaluation in Oman. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(5), 40-44.
- Allinder, R. M. (1994). The relationship between efficacy and the instructional practices of special education teachers and consultants. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 17, 86–95.
- Al-Mahrooqi, R. (2012). A Student Perspective on Low English Proficiency in Oman. *International Education Studies*, 5(6), 263-271.
- Akbari, R., & Moradkhani, S. (2010). Iranian english teachers' self-efficacy: Do academic degree and experience make a difference? *Pazhuhesh-E Zabanha-Ye Khareji*, 56, 25–47.
- Akbari, R., & Tavassoli, K. (2014). Developing an ELT context-specific teacher efficacy instrument. *RELC Journal*, 45(1), 27-50.
- Armor, D., Conroy-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., King, N., McDonnell, L., Pascal, A., Pauly, E., & Zellman, G. (1976). *Analysis of the school preferred reading programs in selected Los Angeles minority schools*. Report No. R-2007-LAUDS, Rand Corporation, Santa Monica.

- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Annals of child development*. Vol. 6. *Six theories of child development* (pp. 1-60). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Bandura, A. (1998). "Personal and collective efficacy in human adaptation and change". In J. G. Adair, D. B. Belanger, & K. L. Dion (Eds.), *Advances in psychological science*, 1, 51-71.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. (2006). Toward a psychology of human agency. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 1(2), 164-180.
- Bar-Tal, D. & Bar-Zohar. (1977). The relationship between perception of locus of control and academic achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 2, 181-199.
- Bartlett, A. (2005). "She seems nice": Teaching evaluations and gender trouble. *Feminist Teacher*, 15, (3), 195-202.
- Berg, B.L. (1995). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (2nd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Biggs, J., & Tang, C. (2007). *Teaching for quality learning at university: What the student does* (3rd Ed.). Buckingham, GBR: Open University Press.
- Birjandi, P. & Hesari, A. (2010). Teachers' perceptions of the preset and optimum status of the in-service EFL teacher preparation programs. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4), 47-57.
- Bleicher, R. E. (2004). Revisiting the STEBI-B: Measuring self-efficacy in preservice elementary teachers. *School Science and Mathematics*, 104, 383-391.
- Borg, S. 2003. Teacher cognition in language teaching. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language Education: Research and practice*. Continuum, London.
- Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006) *SPSS for psychologists: A guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows* (2nd ed.). NY: Palgrave Macmillan. Brutt-Griffler, J. (2002). *World Englishes: A study of development*. Buffalo: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

- Bruning, R. H., Schraw, G. J., Norby, M. M., & Ronning, R. R. (2011). *Cognitive psychology and instruction*. Boston: Pearson.
- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods* (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest, N.S.W.: Pearson Education Australia.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Borgogni, L., & Steca, P. (2003). Efficacy beliefs as determinants of teachers' job satisfaction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 821-832.
- Caprara, G., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, p., Malone, P. (2006). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44, 473–490.
- Chacón, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 257-272.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational Research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, 39(3), 124-130.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dellinger, A. B., Bobbett, J. J., Olivier, D. F., & Ellett, C. D. (2008). Measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Development and use of the TEBS-self. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(3), 751–66.
- Denzin, N. K. (1989). *Interpretive interactionism*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Education. (2005-2006). *Ministry of higher education general statistical book for higher education institutions in the Sultanate of Oman*. Oman, Muscat.
- Elbaz, F. (1981). The teacher's 'practical knowledge': a report of a case study. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 11, 43-71.
- Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *Tesl-Ej*, 11(March), 1–19.
- Fives, H., & Alexander, P.A. (2004). *Modeling teachers' efficacy, knowledge, and pedagogical beliefs*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American

Psychological Association, Honolulu. Retrieved April 12, 2015 from:
www6.tlhc.ttu.edu/hfives/Fives&Alexander.APA

- Frankel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2003). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Gay, L. R. (2000). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2000). Collective teacher efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37, 479-507.
- Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2004). Collective efficacy beliefs: Theoretical developments, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Educational Researcher*, 33, 3-13.
- Hawkes, J., & Marsh, W. (2004). *Discovering statistics* (2nd ed.). Charleston, SC: Hawkes Publishing Inc.
- Henson, R. K. (2002). From adolescent angst to adulthood: Substantive implications and measurement dilemmas in the development of teacher efficacy research. *Educational Psychologist*, 37, 137-150.
- Hoaglin, D. C., & Iglewicz, B. (1987). Fine tuning some resistant rules for outlier labeling. *Journal of American Statistical Association*, 82, 1147-1149.
- Horizon Research, Inc. (1998). *Core evaluation manual: Classroom observation protocol*. Chapel Hill, NC: Horizon Research, Inc.
- Huangfu, W. (2012). Effects of EFL teachers' self-efficacy on motivational teaching behaviors. *Asian Social Science*, 8(15), 68-74.
- Jerald, C. D. (2007). *Believing and achieving (Issue Brief)*. Washington, DC: Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement.
- Karimi, M. (2011). The effects of professional development initiatives on EFL teachers' degree of self-efficacy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36, 50-62.
- Karimvand, P. (2011). The nexus between Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy, teaching experience and gender. *English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 171-184.
- Keppel, G. & Wickens, T.D. (2004). *Design and analysis: A researcher's handbook* (4th Edition), Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Klassen, R. M. (2004). Optimism and realism: A review of self-efficacy from a cross-cultural perspective. *International Journal of Psychology*, 39(3), 205-230.

- Klassen, R. B., Bong, M., Usher, E. L., Chong, W. H., Huan, V. S., Wong, I. Y. F., & Georgiou, T. (2009). "Exploring the validity of teachers' self-efficacy scale in five countries." *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34, 67-76.
- Klassen, R. M., Tze, V. M. C., Betts, S. M., & Gordon, K. A. (2011). Teacher efficacy research 1998–2009: Signs of progress or unfulfilled promise? *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(1), 21–43.
- Labone, E. (2004). Teacher efficacy: Maturing the construct through research in alternative paradigms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 341-359.
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J. E. (2010). *Practical research: Planning and design*, Ninth Edition. NYC: Merrill.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage Publications: London.
- Lomax, R. G., & Hahs-Vaughn, D. L. (2012). *An introduction to statistical concepts* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Milner, H. R. (2002). A case study of an experienced teachers' self-efficacy and persistence through crisis situations: Theoretical and practical considerations. *The High School Journal* 86, 28-35.
- Milner, H. R., & Hoy, A. W. (2003). A case study of an African American Teacher's self-efficacy, stereotype threat, and persistence. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, 263-276.
- Navidinia, H., Mousavi, I., & Shirazizade, M. (2009). On the relationship between Iranian English language teachers' efficacy beliefs and their students achievement. *The Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(3), 122-139.
- Nejati, R., Hassani, M. T., & Sahrapour, H. A. (2014). The relationship between gender and student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management of Iranian EFL teachers. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(6), 1219-1226.
- Nunan, D., Tyacke, M., & Walton, D. (1987). *Philosophy and guidelines for the Omani English language school curriculum*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman: Ministry of Education & Youth.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(4), 543–578.
- Pajares, M. F. (2002). *Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy*. Retrieved March 28, 2015, from <http://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Pajares/eff.html>

- Pajares, F. (2007). Culturalizing educational psychology. In F. Salili & R. Hoosain (Eds.), *Culture, motivation and learning: A multicultural perspective*. U.S.: Information Age Publishing.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 667-686.
- Roberts, J. K., & Henson, R. K. (2000). *Self-efficacy teaching and knowledge instrument for Science Teachers (SETAKIST): A proposal for a new efficacy instrument*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association.
- Ross, J. A. (1998). The antecedents and consequences of teacher efficacy. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Advances in research on teaching*, 7 (pp. 49–73). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ross, J. A. & Bruce, C. D. (2007). Professional development effects on teacher efficacy: results of randomized field trial. *Journal of Educational Research*, 101(1), 50-60.
- Rotter, J. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monograph*, 80(1), 1-27.
- Rotter, J. B. (1975). Some problems and misconceptions related to the construct of internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 43, 56-67.
- Sabokrouh, F. (2013). The effect of EFL teachers' attitude toward English language and English language proficiency on their sense of efficacy. *English Language Teaching*, 7(1), 66–74.
- Sandelowski, M. (2000). Combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-method studies. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 23(3), 246–255.
- Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Silverman, D. (2011). *Interpreting qualitative data: a guide to the principles of qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2010). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 1059-1069.
- Spradley, J. P. (1979). *Participant observation*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanich.
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences* (3rd Ed). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Tajeddin, Z., & Khodaverdi, N. (2011). EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs: impacts of gender, experience, and educational background. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics (IJAL)*, 14(1), 159–182.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2006). A general typology of research designs featuring mixed methods. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 12-28.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive concept. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 37, 233-338.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 202-248.
- The Ministry of Education & The World Bank. (2012). *Education in Oman: The drive for quality*. Muscat, Oman. Ministry of Education.
- Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). Sources of self-efficacy in school: Critical review of the literature and future directions. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(4), 751–796.
- Weiner, B. (1986). *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York: Springer Verlag.
- Weiner B. (1992). *Human motivation: Metaphors, theories, and research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Wheatley, K.F. (2005). The case for reconceptualizing teacher efficacy research. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(7), 747–66.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 81-91.
- Woolfolk, A. E., Rosoff, B., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6, 137–148.
- Wyatt, M. (2010). An English teacher's developing self-efficacy beliefs in using groupwork. *System*, 38(4), 603–13.
- Wyatt, M. (2014). Towards a re-conceptualization of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Tackling enduring problems with the quantitative research and moving on. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 37, 166–189.
- Yilmaz, C. (2011). Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 39(1), 91–100.

Yin, R. K. (2006). Mixed methods research: Are the methods genuinely integrated or merely parallel? *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 41-47.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Abdullah Khamis Al-Shukri

Department of Teaching & Learning
College of Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

E-mail address: alshukri@unlv.nevada.edu
abdullah_alshukri@yahoo.com

Dissertation Title:

From Belief to Action: Omani EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy in Relation to their Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

Dissertation Examination Committee:

Committee Chair, Shaoan Zhang, Ph.D.
Committee member, Jane McCarthy, Ed.D.
Committee member, Steve G. McCafferty, Ph.D.
Graduate College representative, Michael Nussbaum, Ph.D.

Education:

Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics
University of Liverpool, 2008

Bachelor of Education, English Language
Sultan Qaboos University, 2001

Professional Experience

Training Specialist
Ministry of Education, Oman, 2008 – 2012

Local Supervisor
Ministry of Education, Oman, 2003 – 2007

Instructor, College of Arts and Sciences
Governors State University, Illinois, USA, 2005 - 2006

Senior teacher
Dhank School for B.E., Oman, 2001 - 2003

Conference Presentations:

Zhang, S., Alshrukri, A., Zenteno, A. P., Alnajjar, K., & Hsu, C. (2015, April). *Self-disclosure in mentoring preservice teachers in field experiences*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (AERA). Chicago, Illinois.

Zhang, S., Alshukri, A., Alnajjar, K., Zenteno, P., & Hsu, C. (2015, February). *A study of self-disclosure between mentors and pre-service teachers*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Association of Teacher Educators. Phoenix, AZ.

Al-Shukri, A. (2008). A Study of Comprehension Strategies used by Second Language Readers. School of English. University of Liverpool.

Al-Shukri, A. (2008). An analysis of three activities from “English for Me” course book and suggestion for adaptation. School of English. University of Liverpool.

Awards and Honors

Fulbright Student Scholarship, USA, 2012

Chevening Scholarship, UK, 2007

The U.S. Fulbright Scholarship (FLTA), 2005

SQU BA Student Scholarship, 1996