GAMZE EREN

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ANXIETY AND SELF-EFFICACY PERCEPTIONS OF NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS AT TERTIARY LEVEL INSTITUTIONS

A MASTER'S THESIS

BY

GAMZE EREN

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

İHSAN DOĞRAMACI BILKENT UNIVERSITY

ANKARA

JUNE 2020

2020

Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety and Self-Efficacy Perceptions of Native and Non-Native EFL Instructors at Tertiary Level Institutions

The Graduate School of Education

of

İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University

by

Gamze Eren

In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

in

Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Ankara

June 2020

İHSAN DOĞRAMACI BILKENT UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety and Self-Efficacy Perceptions of Native and Non-Native EFL Instructors at Tertiary Level Institutions

Gamze Eren

May 2020

I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker (Supervisor)

I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Jennie Farber Lane (Examining Committee Member)

I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal, Hacettepe University (Examining Committee Member)

Approval of the Graduate School of Education

Prof. Dr. Alipaşa Ayas (Director)

ABSTRACT

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ANXIETY AND SELF-EFFICACY PERCEPTIONS OF NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS AT TERTIARY LEVEL INSTITUTIONS

Gamze Eren

M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker

June 2020

This quantitative study investigated the foreign language teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of 53 native and 180 non-native teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Turkish universities. The findings revealed low levels of anxiety and high levels of teacher self-efficacy among the participants. A weak to moderate negative correlation was found between the two constructs. Non-native teachers had significantly higher FL teaching anxiety than the natives; however, no significant difference was found in their perceived teacher self-efficacy. Female participants in both groups had significantly higher levels of anxiety and teacher self-efficacy than the males. No other significant result was observed among the natives. However, significant differences in anxiety among the non-native participants were found in terms of age, major, and years of experience. Similarly, significant differences in teacher self-efficacy were observed in terms of major, years of experience, and students' proficiency levels of the non-natives. Qualifications and last completed degree made no significant difference in anxiety or self-efficacy perceptions of native and non-native teachers.

Key words: Teacher self-efficacy, foreign language teaching anxiety, native EFL teachers, non-native EFL teachers.

ÖZET

Yükseköğretim Kurumlarında Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğreten, Anadili İngilizce Olan ve Olmayan Öğretim Elemanlarının Yabancı Dil Öğretme Kaygısı ve Öz-Yeterlik Algıları

Gamze Eren

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi
Tez Yöneticisi: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hilal Peker
Haziran 2020

Bu nicel çalışma, Türk üniversitelerinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten, anadili İngilizce olan 53, ve olmayan 180 öğretim elemanının yabancı dil öğretme kaygısı ve öğretmen öz-yeterlik algılarını araştırmıştır. Bulgular katılımcıların kaygı düzeyinin düşük, öz-yeterlik algısının yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. İki olgu arasında zayıf-orta derecede, anlamlı düzeyde negatif korelasyon bulunmuştur. Anadili İngilizce olmayan öğretmenlerin kaygı seviyesi, anadili İngilizce olanlardan anlamlı düzeyde yüksek olup, iki grubun öz-yeterlik algıları arasında anlamlı fark çıkmamıştır. Her iki gruptaki kadın katılımcıların kaygı ve öz-yeterlik algıları erkeklerden anlamlı düzeyde fazladır. Anadili İngilizce olan katılımcılar arasında anlamlı fark yaratan başka sonuç çıkmamıştır. Anadili İngilizce olmayanların kaygı düzeyinde yaş, mezun olunan bölüm ve tecrübe açısından anlamlı farklar bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, bu grubun öz-yeterlik algılarında da mezun olunan bölüm, tecrübe ve öğrencilerin dil seviyesi anlamlı fark yaratmıştır. Mesleki eğitimler ve mezuniyet derecesi ise iki grupta da kaygı ve öz-yeterlik algısında anlamlı fark yaratmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen öz-yeterliği, yabancı dil öğretme kaygısı, anadili İngilizce olan İngilizce öğretmenleri, anadili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce öğretmenleri.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thought I could never see the day this thesis was finished. I would have given up a hundred times by now without the support and guidance of certain people, so I would like to present my heartfelt gratitude to them.

First, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my advisor, Asst. Prof. Dr. Hilal Peker, whose dedication, diligence and motivation has been a source of inspiration. I am grateful for her full support and guidance throughout my MA TEFL journey, and I am lucky to have worked with her. I am also thankful to the committee members, Asst. Prof. Dr. Jennie Farber Lane and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal, for their valuable feedback and constructive criticisms.

I would like to thank my former director, Prof. Dr. Belgin Aydın, for giving me the opportunity to attend this program. I am thankful to my current director, Prof. Dr. Ümit Deniz Turan, and all the administration units of the universities that kindly agreed to help me during my data collection. I am also grateful to all the participants, without whom this study would have been impossible.

I am thankful to my MA TEFL group, especially Metin Torlak, for making this journey much more fun and less painful with their warm friendship and support. I owe many thanks to my dearest friends, Sibel Kendir, Gamze Çalışkan, Sevgi Çayır, and Dilek Çanakçı for their generous support. Finally, my eternal gratitude goes to my beloved parents, who mean the world to me and who are always there for me.

Let me also thank all the music out there that kept me company and made everything more bearable in the face of these particularly difficult times in isolation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

"Anxiety was born in the very same moment as mankind. And since we will never be able to master it, we will have to learn to live with it -just as we have to learn to live with storms."

Paulo Coelho (2013, p. 142)

Concepts such as anxiety, self-esteem, motivation, and self-efficacy are substantial parts of the affective, specifically emotional, domain that influences individuals' reactions and attitudes towards a task. In educational contexts, these affective variables have been a topic of interest as they are considered to have an impact on learners' performance. Similarly, these variables may influence teachers' performance, as well.

Teaching is a multidimensional and demanding profession that requires constant human interaction with colleagues, learners and administration, and such responsibilities as fulfilling teaching tasks to achieve certain outcomes, creating an effective learning environment, and providing guidance to learners. Handling all these responsibilities may bring about not only cognitive but also affective loads on the teacher. Teachers of a foreign language (FL) also have these responsibilities; therefore, they may experience cognitive and affective pressures in their practice, as well. As Horwitz (1996) clearly states, "it is one thing to say you speak a language; it is quite another to be a teacher of that language" (p. 367).

As for the relationship between anxiety and FL instruction, Horwitz (1996) asserts that teachers who have higher levels of anxiety are less likely to use the target

language. In addition, FL teaching anxiety, a type of anxiety specific to FL teaching practice, may negatively affect teachers' performance, their self-esteem and self-efficacy, their facilitative role in students' language learning experience, their interactions with students, and their ability to motivate students.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the extent and possible sources of FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions among teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Turkish universities. To this end, the study also investigates the possible differences in the FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs between the native and non-native participants, specifically in terms of their age, gender, educational background, last completed degree, years of experience, and qualifications.

Background of the Study

Among the various definitions of anxiety, Spielberger (1983, as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) chose to define this construct as "an unpleasant condition characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the nervous system" (p. 125). As a complex phenomenon, anxiety may present itself in various forms and manifestations. A basic classification of anxiety is in two forms, which are trait anxiety and state anxiety. Trait anxiety mainly refers to the individual's long-term proneness to anxiety, as part of their personality trait, while state anxiety is related to a temporary emotional state (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009). On the other hand, Alpert and Haber (1960) introduced another classification of this construct, which are facilitating and debilitating anxiety. In the educational context, Scovel (1978) explains these two types of anxiety from learners' perspective as follows:

> Facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to "fight" the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to "flee" the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior. (p. 139)

In other words, anxiety may have both a positive and negative role in an individual's performance. To a certain extent, the very existence of anxiety may, in fact, create a driving force leading to a positive reaction. Nonetheless, when anxiety exceeds that certain extent, its negative and weakening aspect comes into play. FL learning and teaching contexts are no exception to this.

So far, anxiety has been referred to in its broader sense; however, there are more specific types of anxiety. In particular, the notion of FL anxiety was introduced by Horwitz et al. (1986) as a separate phenomenon encompassing the affective states peculiar to the language learning experience. Different from state and trait anxiety, the anxiety experienced in language-learning situations, which is called FL anxiety, has come to be known as a situation-specific anxiety. Introduced as a distinct variable in language learning, FL anxiety has been investigated in various studies in order to understand its sources and find ways to control or reduce it (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kim, 2009). However, when the amount of research on FL learners' anxiety is considered, FL teachers' teaching anxiety has mostly remained limited to a few studies in the field (İpek, 2006, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2004; Numrich, 1996; Öztürk, 2016). As it is hypothesized that levels of anxiety gradually decrease through the course of one's teaching career (Fish & Fraser, 2001; Williams, 1991), researchers have mostly investigated the FL teaching anxiety experienced by pre-service teachers (Aydın, 2016; Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Merç, 2011; Mutlu, 2017; Tüfekçi Can, 2018).

The sources of teachers' anxiety might differ in terms of various personal and environmental factors. A low sense of self-efficacy, negative classroom and working atmosphere, students' disruptive behavior, teachers' inexperience in the profession or their fear of failure, and problems with the subject matter knowledge can be counted among some of these factors. In FL teaching, in addition to the anxiety caused by the act of teaching, the language itself may also become an anxiety factor for teachers, especially for non-native teachers. Previous studies on the sources of anxiety in FL teaching revealed some relevant sources of anxiety such as worrying about language performance, giving instructions, and teaching grammar (Horwitz, 1996; İpek, 2006; Numrich, 1996).

A closely related concept to anxiety, self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). It is possible to state that a sense of self-efficacy equips individuals with a mechanism to control their behavior and attitude towards obstacles and tasks. In a way, a high sense of self-efficacy may counteract the feeling of anxiety and vice versa. In education, self-efficacy beliefs are known to affect teachers' approach to their profession and instructional practice. To illustrate, teachers with high levels of perceived self-efficacy are more willing to take risks, try new methods, put effort to be more effective in their practice, and have more confidence in their skills; however, teachers with low levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be convinced that they are incapable of changing the current situation, and they may have doubts about their instructional skills (Bandura, 1997). In a way, low self-efficacy beliefs may be a source of debilitative anxiety while high levels of self-efficacy might help turn teachers' anxiety into a facilitative one. High levels of anxiety, along with low self-efficacy, can make teachers doubtful of their teaching

skills and academic competence, and adopt a negative view towards students and the teaching profession, all of which may eventually hinder teachers' effective classroom practice and, in turn, students' motivation and success (Kımav, 2010).

Studies concerning EFL teachers' self-efficacy mostly focused on the relationship between demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, experience, educational background, and language proficiency) and perceived self-efficacy (Chacon, 2005; Choi & Lee, 2018; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Zakeri & Alavi, 2011). Other studies investigated the sources of teachers' perceived self-efficacy and some contextual factors that may affect them (Phan & Locke, 2015; Sevimel & Subasi, 2018; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). There are also a few studies that focused on the relationship between anxiety and self-efficacy perceptions of pre-service teachers (Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Merç, 2015).

To this end, this study aims to explore and have a broader understanding of the sources of FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs of EFL teachers at Turkish tertiary level institutions, and to find out the possible similarities and differences between native and non-native participants.

Statement of the Problem

Anxiety is a phenomenon that is experienced one way or another by all individuals during the course of their careers and lives. In the educational context, anxiety has been a topic of interest for decades, and a large number of studies have focused on anxiety in language learning. Teachers strive for creating an effective and comforting classroom atmosphere to facilitate a positive learning environment. In a way, they are supposed to help their students lower their affective filter, which are the affective factors such as low motivation, low self-esteem, and high levels of anxiety that may disrupt the learning process (Krashen, 1982). Thus, these studies

mainly aim to provide teachers with clues on how to encourage a more relaxing, engaging, and effective learning environment. However, it should be noted that while teachers are supposed to help reduce their students' anxiety, teachers themselves might experience various levels of anxiety and a low sense of self-efficacy, in a similar way that their students do. Yet, research on anxiety in teaching foreign languages (İpek, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2004; Medgyes, 1994; Mutlu, 2017; Numrich, 1996; Öztürk, 2016), and research combining FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy (Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Merç, 2015) are still limited.

Studies on FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy in Turkey mostly examined the sources of anxiety among pre-service rather than in-service teachers. What is more, FL teaching anxiety is mostly associated with non-native teachers of the language; therefore, the majority of previous studies investigated this phenomenon with non-native pre-service EFL teachers. However, it is worth investigating whether native EFL teachers also experience a similar type of anxiety and teacher self-efficacy during their teaching practice. For instance, in Numrich's (1996) study, novice native teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) were worried about their knowledge, and they avoided teaching grammar to their learners during their teaching practicum. Therefore, speaking a language and teaching it can be very different in practice, even for native speakers.

Research Questions

The study attempted to address the following research questions:

1. What is the extent of the tertiary level EFL teachers'
    a. FL teaching anxiety
    b. teacher self-efficacy perceptions?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between native and non-native speaker teachers in terms of their FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
4. Does FL teaching anxiety among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience
    f. proficiency levels taught
    g. qualifications?
5. Does perceived teacher self-efficacy among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience
    f. proficiency levels taught
    g. qualifications?

Significance

Since the similar studies conducted in tertiary settings are limited, this study may address this gap by broadening the scope of İpek's (2006) and Öztürk's (2016)

studies on FL teaching anxiety among in-service EFL teachers. This study can also contribute to the field by including both native and non-native EFL teachers in the sample. Measuring teacher self-efficacy and anxiety levels of the EFL teachers employed at Turkish tertiary level institutions, and comparing native and non-native participants may provide valuable information about these constructs. In this respect, this study supports previous studies and contributes to the literature by broadening the focus.

With this study, similar and different aspects of FL teaching anxiety and self-efficacy beliefs in native and non-native EFL teachers can be identified. FL teaching anxiety may be experienced by many EFL teachers in various settings. At the local level, this study may also help the EFL teachers in Turkish universities to reflect on their affective states in their profession, and thus, consider utilizing professional development strategies. This study may provide a better understanding of the phenomena; therefore, depending on the results, some suggestions on professional development strategies for coping with FL teaching anxiety and enhancing teacher self-efficacy will be made with the guidance of the relevant literature in the field.

Definition of Key Terms

Anxiety: "An unpleasant condition characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the nervous system" (Spielberger, as cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125).

Foreign Language Anxiety: "A distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning experience" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128).

Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety: "Anxiety in English language teachers while teaching the target language" (İpek, 2016, p. 96).

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

Teaching Anxiety: “A momentary situational characteristic of teaching. It is an emotional constitution that may change in intensity and may disappear with increasing experience” (Buitink & Kemme, 1986, p. 77).

Teacher Efficacy / **Teacher Self-Efficacy**: “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, & Hoy, 1998, p. 233).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to the present study that examines FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs of native and non-native EFL teachers at tertiary level institutions in Turkey. The concept of teacher self-efficacy has its roots in two main theoretical backgrounds: One of them is Rotter's (1966) social learning theory, and the other is Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory. Therefore, this chapter starts with explanations of the two theories, an integrated model by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) that combines these theories, and the main constructs (i.e., self-efficacy, sources of self-efficacy, teacher self-efficacy, and anxiety). Later on, the researcher provides an account of the relevant empirical studies on teacher self-efficacy beliefs and FL teaching anxiety.

Rotter's Social Learning Theory

Rotter's (1966) social learning theory is a developmental framework which contends that interactions between one's personality and environment influence and predict their behavior. The potential occurrence of a certain behavior can be predicted by one's belief in whether that behavior can result in a given outcome, and whether that outcome is desirable. Accordingly, human behavior is influenced by individuals' beliefs in whether the desired outcome of an action results from their own behavior or forces out of their control. When individuals attribute the outcome of a task to luck or some external source that is out of their control, they do not associate that outcome with their own ability, and they are unlikely to put the same effort again. This type of belief is called external locus of control. On the other hand, individuals establish an internal locus of control when they perceive the outcome of a

task as a result of their skills and effort. Therefore, individuals with high internal control tend to be more persistent, confident and active; however, individuals who associate the outcomes of their action with external control tend to be more compliant and passive in the face of a challenge (Stein & Wang, 1988).

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy

In his seminal work, Bandura (1997) explains that social cognitive theory focuses on the developmental changes in human behavior, and he postulates that human behavior is affected by various personal (i.e., cognitive, affective, and biological) and external factors. Accordingly, there is a constant interplay among personality, behavior, and environmental influences, which is called a triadic reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002) (see Figure 1). The theory is essentially made up of three main components: Human agency, outcome expectancy, and sense of self-efficacy.

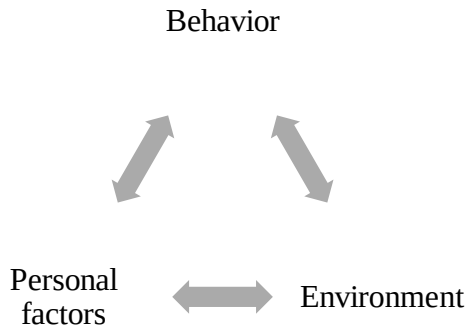


Figure 1. Triadic reciprocal determinism model (Bandura, 1997, p. 6).

As the first component, human agency refers to the individual's will and capacity to take action. It is deeply rooted in the sociocultural environment, and individuals are regarded as products and creators of their own environments simultaneously (Pajares, 1996; Schunk & Meece, 2006). In this respect, social cognitive theory puts the individual in a proactive, rather than a bystander, position in behavioral change and in controlling the events that take place in their life

(Bandura, 2006). To achieve control over certain events and behaviors, individuals evaluate the situation, the effort required, and the possible results of the action, which explains outcome expectancy. They also evaluate themselves in terms of their capabilities, and adopt certain self-efficacy beliefs, which is the final and the fundamental aspect of this theory.

An important contributor to human agency and behavior control, self-efficacy has been defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). One point to emphasize here is that self-efficacy does not refer to the actual skills and capacity an individual possesses. Instead, it refers to individuals' beliefs in whether they have the capacity to fulfill a specific task. To exemplify, individuals might have the necessary skills to overcome an obstacle or challenge. However, if their perceived self-efficacy is low, they might fail, or simply choose to avoid that obstacle even if they have the capability to overcome it. That being said, another point to underscore here is that perceived self-efficacy is resistant to change once established, which is why efficacy beliefs formed in the early years of one's career is important in shaping the rest of it (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002). However, it is not necessarily an unchangeable or permanent belief because, depending on the triadic reciprocal interaction and the sources of efficacy, changes in the level of self-efficacy is still possible. In other words, ambition, the level of motivation and goal orientation, dedication to fulfill a task, the strength and resistance against possible setbacks, the effort put forth, quality of analytic thinking, attributions of success and failure, and vulnerability to stress, anxiety and depression are all associated with perceptions of self-efficacy (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Pajares, 2002; Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs

According to social cognitive theory, individuals establish their beliefs of self-efficacy through the four main sources below:

Enactive mastery experiences. These experiences refer to the individual's actual performance on the designated task. They are considered to be the strongest source of self-efficacy due to providing direct and authentic evidence on one's capabilities in cases of both success and failure. Fulfilling a challenging task might boost one's self-efficacy while constantly failing at it might undermine it, possibly leading to avoidance in the end (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). However, despite the failure, putting sustained effort in overcoming that obstacle may enhance a firm sense of self-efficacy (Ünver, 2004). Causal attributions also affect the effectiveness of mastery experiences on the level of self-efficacy. If the achieved success is attributed to one's ability and effort, it can enhance the sense of self-efficacy while attribution to pure luck and external factors may not enhance it at all (Bandura, 1993; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Vicarious experiences. The second source of self-efficacy is obtained by observing how other individuals act under the given circumstances. In this way, individuals can evaluate their own capabilities in comparison with those who they observe. For vicarious experiences to be effective, the observer and the observed model should bear a certain level of similarity because as the similarity increases, the effect of this type of experience in shaping the sense of self-efficacy also increases (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002). To illustrate, when the observer sees a peer or colleague complete a task successfully, thinking that they both possess similar skills, the observer may enhance his or her efficacy beliefs. On the other hand, witnessing the failure of the model may also undermine his or her efficacy beliefs. If the model

and the observer do not share similar capabilities, then the influence might not be very strong (Bandura, 1997). Additionally, the effect of vicarious experiences is not the same as mastery experiences because an increase in efficacy through a vicarious experience can be reduced by failures in actual performance (Schunk, 1991). That is why vicarious experiences are more useful sources for those who are inexperienced or novice, and do not have the relevant enactive mastery experiences in the given situation.

Verbal persuasion. Getting supportive comments and expressions of trust from one's social environment is another source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Thanks to feeling encouraged and empowered through these positive comments, individuals might feel more motivated and try to do their best in completing the given task. In the event of negative or discouraging comments, though, individuals might avoid completing the given task and readily accept failure. Similarly, unrealistic encouragement may not improve self-efficacy if the result is failure in the face of a difficult task (Ünver, 2004). Therefore, verbal persuasion can be useful only if it matches the reality of the situation.

Physiological arousal. Changes in the physiological and emotional states (e.g., stress, anxiety, excitement, and mood) and the way individuals interpret them may also influence their sense of self-efficacy. Thus, enhancing one's physical and emotional status may as well improve their efficacy beliefs. To illustrate, the first day of a class tends to be a stress causing factor for teachers; therefore, they may feel uncomfortable, nervous, or anxious. However, interpreting this affective state as a sign for failure might lower their efficacy beliefs, while interpreting it as a driving force might increase efficacy (Ünver, 2004). That is why the way individuals evaluate their own emotions is also important in shaping their self-efficacy. This is

also one of the important points where anxiety serves as a positive or a negative source of self-efficacy depending on its facilitative and debilitative characteristics.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

In educational contexts, teachers are supposed to fulfill multiple tasks such as teaching students with multilevel abilities, implementing various instructional strategies, creating an effective learning environment, designing and planning the course in a way that they can meet various types of student needs, and so forth (Kımav, 2010). Thus, the level of self-efficacy might affect the quality and success of these tasks. In parallel with Bandura's self-efficacy concept, teachers' sense of self-efficacy, or teacher efficacy, is related to teachers' beliefs in their potential to influence the learning environment positively (Denzine, Cooney, & McKenzie, 2005), or their belief in their capacity to reach certain educational goals by planning and implementing tasks (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

The first studies on teacher self-efficacy were influenced by Rotter's social learning theory. From Rotter's perspective, teacher self-efficacy is composed of *personal teacher efficacy* (PTE) and *general teacher efficacy* (GTE), which are in parallel with the concepts of internal and external control. To illustrate, teachers' beliefs about the power of external factors in influencing student success and motivation show their GTE. On the other hand, the extent of teachers' beliefs that they can influence student success and motivation by their own actions indicate their internal control, or PTE. Teachers with high levels of PTE have confidence in their practice and abilities to control factors that inhibit student learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Bandura, on the other hand, does not categorize teacher efficacy as general and personal.

Integrated model. In an attempt to clarify the concept of teacher efficacy and to combine the distinctive features of Rotter's and Bandura's theories, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) proposed a new integrated model, which the present study is also based on (see Figure 2). In this way, they aimed to emphasize the cyclical and context-dependent nature of teacher efficacy judgments.

Accordingly, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) comprehensively define teacher efficacy as "the teacher's beliefs in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific task in a particular context" (p. 233). In this model, Bandura's four sources of efficacy (i.e., mastery experience, verbal persuasion, vicarious experience, and physiological arousal) are accepted as the main factors that influence teachers' efficacy beliefs. The information obtained through these sources is evaluated in the cognitive processing stage. In this stage, previous experiences, preexisting beliefs and biases, attributions, and the sources they regard important influence the way they interpret these sources of information (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This evaluation affects the next stage in which teachers interpret the teaching task, its context, and their personal teaching competence. Analysis of the teaching task and context are related to Rotter's GTE while personal teaching competence is related to PTE. In this way, the interplay between these two components leads to teacher efficacy (see Figure 2).

In other words, evaluation of one's personal teaching competence (e.g., strengths, weaknesses, knowledge, skills, and personality traits) and the specific teaching environment (e.g., students' abilities and motivation, task difficulty, and expected outcomes) contribute to the teacher efficacy perceptions of that person. When teachers perceive themselves low in self-efficacy, they tend to adopt a pessimistic approach to student motivation, strict control in the classroom, and a

negative learning environment; however, teachers with high efficacy can provide appropriate classroom activities, guidance, and positive feedback (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Furthermore, teachers with high self-efficacy are more likely to put effort to reach difficult students and set up more challenging goals while low-efficacy teachers tend to be convinced that there is not much to be done for unmotivated students because their motivation is influenced by external factors that cannot be controlled (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

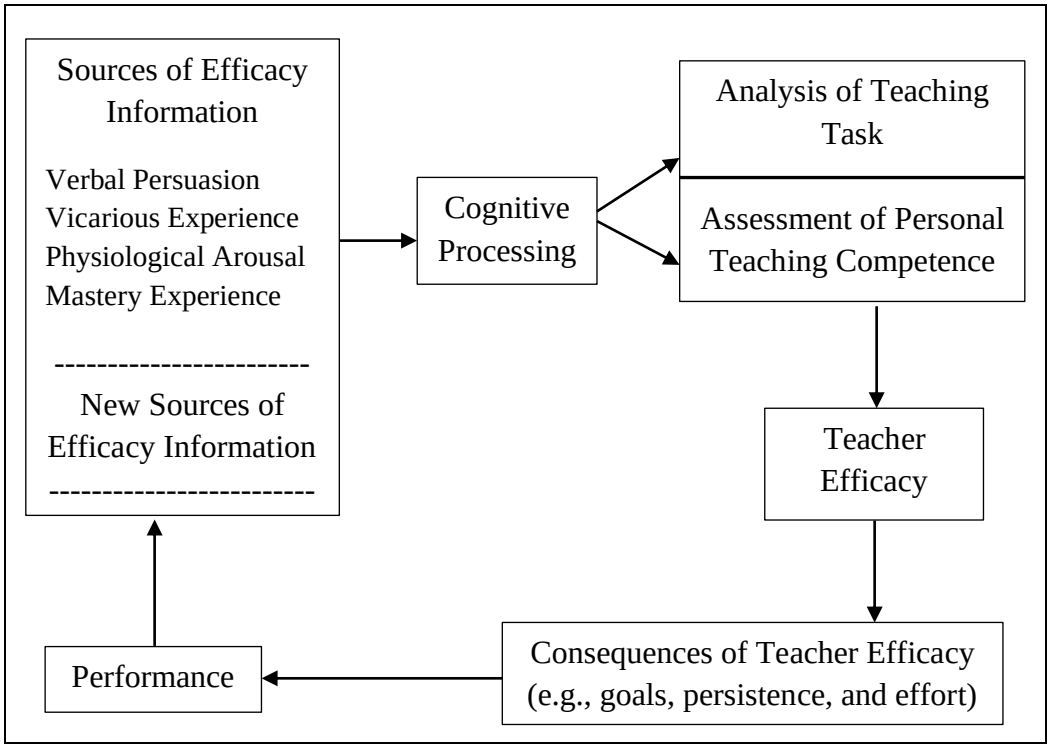


Figure 2. The cyclical nature of teacher efficacy. From "Teacher Efficacy: Its Meaning and Measure," by M. Tschannen-Moran, A. Woolfolk Hoy, and W. K. Hoy, 1998, *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), p. 228. Copyright 1998 by SAGE Publications. Reprinted with permission (see Appendix C).

Measuring Teacher Self-Efficacy

As mentioned before, the concept and measurement of teacher self-efficacy is rooted in Rotter's (1966) social learning theory and Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory. Some of the main instruments developed in line with these two theories are briefly mentioned in this section.

The very first effort to establish a proper instrument to measure teacher self-efficacy was presented by the RAND Corporation in 1976 (Armor et al., 1976). In their study on 6th graders' reading achievements, one of the factors measured was the effect of teacher efficacy. The instrument included two 5-point Likert-scale items to measure GTE and PTE, based on Rotter's theory.

"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" is the first item of the instrument. If participants agree with this item, it reveals that their GTE is overwhelmed by the adverse effects of external factors such as students' socioeconomic status, gender, personality, or parents.

"If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students" is the second item. Agreeing with this item, on the other hand, reveals the teacher's confidence in his or her own capacity to overcome the adverse effects of external factors. It indicates the teacher has a high sense of PTE, which is more specific and individual (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

After this first effort to measure teacher efficacy, other attempts took place to refine and expand the RAND items and eliminate reliability issues (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The main measures developed in this period were Guskey's (1981) Responsibility for Student Achievement Scale, Rose and Medway's (1981) Teacher Locus of Control Scale, and Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker, and McAuliffe's (1982) Webb Scale.

Based on the RAND measure, Gibson and Dembo (1984) also developed a scale called the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES). However, they also adopted Bandura's theory in interpreting the items of this 6-point Likert scale with 30 items. The scale has two factors, PTE and GTE, which are considered to be in parallel with

self-efficacy expectancy and outcome expectancy in Bandura's terms (Liaw, 2004). This scale has been commonly used to measure teacher efficacy for years; however, there are some criticisms related to its inconsistent factor loads (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Maintaining that teacher self-efficacy cannot be standard across different contexts and subjects, Bandura (1997) created another teacher self-efficacy scale of seven subscales and 30 items (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1988). The subscales measure efficacy in influencing decision making and school resources, enlisting parental and community involvement, creating a positive school climate, and instructional and disciplinary efficacy. Measuring teacher efficacy in a general perspective, this scale has not been used commonly, and not enough information has been found about its validity and reliability values.

Another instrument developed to measure this construct is Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). They created this scale in parallel with their integrated model that combined Bandura's and Rotter's theories, and with collaboration from the participants at the Ohio State University. That is why this instrument is also known as the Ohio State Teacher's Efficacy Scale (OSTES). The instrument has both 24-item and 12-item versions, and has three subscales: Instructional efficacy, student engagement, and classroom management. While previous instruments such as RAND items and TES mainly focused on unmotivated and difficult students, TSES included items related to the challenging tasks teachers may face, which could reflect the complex and context-dependent nature of teaching (Liaw, 2004). As a valid and reliable instrument identifying both general and specific domains in teaching, it has been used in

numerous studies (Daugherty, 2005; Mills & Allen, 2007; Sevimel & Subasi, 2018; Solar Şekerci, 2011; Yavuz, 2007).

Studies on Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy has been associated with various factors including students' self-efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988), students' academic success (Ashton & Webb, 1986), commitment to the profession (Coladarci, 1992; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), openness to new teaching methods (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997), and teacher stress and burnout (Friedman, 2000; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Kımav, 2010; Labone, 1995). Apart from these, some studies were conducted to investigate the relationships between teacher efficacy and various demographic variables including gender, race, experience, language proficiency, and teaching field (Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Ghasemboland & Hashim, 2013; Murshidi, Konting, Elias, & Fooi, 2006; Zakeri & Alavi, 2011), and contextual factors such as teaching resources, and peer and administrative support (Çapa, 2005; Gür, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Among the aforementioned demographic variables, experience was examined more due to its hypothesized relationship with mastery experiences, and there were some contradictory results. To illustrate, while some researchers concluded that teacher self-efficacy is enhanced in parallel with experience (Campbell, 1996; Daugherty, 2005; Solar Şekerci, 2011), others noted that teacher efficacy actually decreases as the teacher becomes more experienced (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997).

In the EFL context, to test the hypothesis that novice and pre-service teachers mostly rely on vicarious experiences while experienced teachers develop a more stable belief of efficacy through past mastery experiences, Tschannen-Moran and

Woolfolk Hoy (2007) investigated different patterns of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers (N = 255). The researchers focused on verbal persuasion and mastery experiences, which are among the main sources of perceived teacher self-efficacy proposed by Bandura (1997). Using the TSES, a 24-item survey with a 9-point Likert scale developed by the researchers themselves, they found that experienced teachers had significantly higher self-efficacy than novice teachers. Also, contextual factors including verbal persuasion and the availability of resources were more effective in novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs while the experienced teachers' had more stable perceptions of self-efficacy thanks to mastery experiences, which corroborated Bandura's (1988) suggestion.

A more recent sequential mixed-method study examined the self-efficacy beliefs of 141 Japanese high school teachers of English. In his study, utilizing semi-structured interviews with six experts, Thompson (2016) developed a scale to measure the participants' teacher self-efficacy in accordance with their specific contextual factors such as student achievement, communicative teaching beliefs, English proficiency, collective activities, and managing their workload. The findings suggested that teachers were least confident about managing their workload. Also, personal mastery experiences and context were associated with stronger self-efficacy beliefs for the given task. Years of experience, level of English proficiency, and using English as a medium of instruction also showed an impact on teacher self-efficacy beliefs.

Praver (2014) also examined self-efficacy beliefs of the EFL teachers from 157 Japanese universities in terms of their gender, native language, experience, and contract and tenured status in the workplace. In this mixed method study, the researcher developed the Japanese University Language Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs

Scale (JULTEBS) based on the TSES to collect the quantitative data. From the 440 participants in total, 225 of them were native speakers of English, and 215 of them were native speakers of Japanese. Interviews were conducted with 12 participants. The results indicated that native speakers of English had significantly higher self-efficacy beliefs than Japanese teachers. Also, experienced teachers showed higher levels of efficacy than less experienced teachers. However, gender was not a significant variable in this study. The qualitative data indicated that autonomy, colleagues, money, and students could be a boosting factor in teacher efficacy while administration, students, and limited-term contracts could weaken it.

Another rare study that investigated native and non-native language teachers' efficacy was in the French language context. For their mixed method study, Mills and Allen (2007) worked with 12 graduate teaching assistants of French. For the quantitative data, they implemented Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) TSES, and they conducted semi-structured interviews for the qualitative data. The findings indicated that native speakers of French had higher levels of teacher efficacy than the non-natives. This finding was mostly associated with the difference in content knowledge between the native and non-native speakers.

An important ex post facto study that is relevant to the present study was conducted by Liaw (2004), who examined native and non-native teaching assistants (TA) (N = 196) of various languages in terms of their perceptions of efficacy and language teaching. The researcher developed a questionnaire using the items in the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument (Enochs & Riggs, 1990), and Chacon's (2005) English Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (ESTES). The results drawn from the survey and the semi-structured interviews indicated differences in native and non-native TAs teacher

efficacy beliefs. Native speakers were more efficacious in teaching high-level speaking, reading and listening classes, and teaching colloquial language. Teaching experience and students' proficiency levels had influence on TAs' sense of efficacy, as well. TAs of commonly taught languages showed a higher level of teacher efficacy than the TAs of other languages. The participants who taught intermediate levels or above had higher levels of efficacy than those who taught lower levels. Native speakers also reported that they had difficulty in adjusting their level of language.

Chacon (2005) also examined the EFL teachers' efficacy, proficiency, cultural knowledge, and pedagogical strategies in the Venezuelan context. Developing the English Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (ESTES) adapted from the TSES, the researcher administered the instrument to 100 teachers. The results revealed that teachers had higher efficacy in instructional strategies than classroom management and student engagement. Teacher self-efficacy and self-reported English proficiency of the teachers positively correlated. What is more, teachers tended to adopt a grammar-oriented teaching style rather than a communicative approach. Interestingly, years of experience and the TSES subscales had no significant relationship. However, professional development experience correlated with efficacy in instructional strategies and student engagement. Similarly, Choi and Lee (2018) also investigated teacher self-efficacy and teaching practices of secondary school EFL teachers in South Korea. In this mixed method study, 190 teachers took the quantitative survey, and 11 teachers participated in the semi-structured interviews. The results showed that communicative teaching practices and classroom management significantly correlated with self-efficacy. Student-centered

and communicative teaching was more likely to be observed in the case of higher self-efficacy in classroom management.

Another study focused on the EFL teachers at a university in Vietnam. In this qualitative inquiry, Phan and Locke (2015) collected data from eight teachers through individual and focus group interviews along with journals and observations. The findings indicated that leadership, collegiality, and students affected perceived teaching efficacy through social persuasion and vicarious experiences. As opposed to Bandura's (1997) contention, enactive mastery experiences were not the main source of efficacy for the participants even though they were experienced.

There are also some studies on EFL teachers' self-efficacy in the Turkish setting. One of them was conducted by Solar Şekerci (2011) with 257 EFL teachers at universities in Ankara. The researcher looked into the relationship between their self-efficacy beliefs and years of experience, language proficiency, and major degrees. Data were drawn from the TSES, Chacon's (2005) Self-Reported English Proficiency Scale, and Eslami and Fatahi's (2008) Language Teaching Methods Scale. According to the results, the participants felt more efficacious in classroom management than student engagement and instructional strategies. Additionally, experience and language proficiency predicted their self-efficacy beliefs. However, major degrees had no relationship with self-efficacy.

Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2015) investigated EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in relation to their communicative teaching practices (CLT), and the effect of an in-service professional training. The participants were 50 EFL teachers employed at foundation schools in Istanbul, and 20 of them were observed. The instruments were Chacon's (2005) ESTES, and Spada and Frönlich's (1995) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) in questionnaire and observation scheme

versions. No significant relationship was found between self-reported CLT practices and teacher efficacy. However, the findings also indicated that the in-service training program improved the teachers' CLT practice and self-efficacy.

In her quantitative study, Yavuz (2007) aimed to explore socio-demographic predictors of teacher efficacy in EFL teachers at universities in Istanbul. The data were collected from 226 participants' responses to the TSES and the School-Level Environment Questionnaire (Fisher & Fraser, 1990). The findings suggested that gender, PD activities, the number of students in classes, type of institution, and working position, predicted the variations among the teachers' efficacy beliefs. The participants had high overall self-efficacy; however, efficacy in student engagement was lower than classroom management and instructional efficacy. Female teachers, teachers with administrative roles, and teachers working at foundation universities had higher teacher efficacy.

In another teaching context, using the TSES to collect data from 383 classroom, mathematics, and science teachers, Gür (2008) also investigated predictors of self-efficacy. She found that parental support and teaching resources predicted self-efficacy while gender, subject area, and years of experience did not give significant results. Similarly, Senler (2016) examined perceptions of anxiety, locus of control, and self-efficacy of 356 pre-service elementary science teachers. The results indicated a significant negative correlation between anxiety and self-confidence, self-efficacy, and attitude towards teaching practice; thus, the researcher suggested that mastery experiences and positive role modelling could reduce anxiety and enhance teacher self-efficacy.

In the EFL context, Özkara (2019) investigated Turkish EFL teachers' self-efficacy and burnout levels, along with the impact of demographical variables on

these constructs. Maslach Burnout Inventory and Praver's (2014) self-efficacy scale were completed by 118 teachers from primary, secondary, and tertiary level institutions. The results revealed that the participants had a low burnout level and high self-efficacy. Self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion negatively correlated. Age and experience also showed significant results in self-accomplishment and self-efficacy. No correlation was found between gender and self-efficacy or burnout.

Dolgun and Caner (2018) looked into the teacher self-efficacy beliefs of 75 pre-service and 105 in-service EFL teachers in terms of student engagement, classroom management and instructional efficacy. The data were collected with the Turkish version of the TSES, and the findings showed higher levels of self-efficacy for both groups. Similarly, both groups had lower efficacy in dealing with defiant and problematic students. In-service teachers were more efficacious in instructional strategies while pre-service teachers felt more efficacious in student engagement.

In their mixed method study with 113 pre-service EFL teachers, Sevimel and Subasi (2018) investigated the factors that affect teacher efficacy perceptions. The data were collected with the Turkish translation of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) TSES, and focus group interviews with 22 participants. The results indicated that the pre-service teachers had moderate levels of overall teacher efficacy. Focus group interviews revealed that ELT training, language proficiency, practicum experiences and affective states had effect on their perceived teacher efficacy. The real teaching experiences during practicum were also the most important factor among them in boosting their teacher efficacy. Contradicting with Phan and Locke's finding (2015), this result was in parallel with Bandura's (1997) contention of mastery experiences.

Anxiety

As mentioned before in the previous chapter, anxiety is a broad concept; thus, there are various definitions and classifications of it such as state, trait, and situation-specific anxiety (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009), or facilitative and debilitative anxiety (Scovel, 1978). As for the situations that provoke anxiety, researchers put forward four main characteristics: Being evaluated, facing unfamiliar situations, ambiguity of the situation, and sense of conspicuousness (İpek, 2006).

In order to measure this phenomenon properly, scholars needed to narrow its scope down to fit the specific context. Therefore, various types of anxiety could be found in certain educational contexts such as FL anxiety, math anxiety, teaching anxiety, test anxiety, and FL teaching anxiety. In an educational setting, if the anxiety experienced during teaching has a debilitative effect on the classroom climate, this effect could result in a less effective teaching and learning experience by reducing students' motivation or increasing their anxiety, which will consequently disrupt student learning and performance (Kearney & Sinclair, 1978).

In terms of the relationship between sense of self-efficacy and anxiety, in social cognitive theory, sense of self-efficacy in facing potential threats or challenges has an important role in the emergence of anxiety (Bandura, 1988). When individuals perceive themselves inefficacious in dealing with an obstacle, their level of anxiety arousal increases as they now perceive that obstacle or task as a threat or danger (Bandura, 1988). Therefore, as noted in various studies, perceived self-efficacy tends to correlate negatively with anxiety arousal (Bandura, 1988; Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Senler, 2016).

FL Anxiety

As a situation-specific type of anxiety, FL anxiety is defined as a type of anxiety specifically related to language acquisition and second language achievement (Gardner, 1985). Horwitz et al. (1986) also define it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning experience" (p. 128). The main manifestations of debilitative FL anxiety on the learner can be observed as avoidant behavior, procrastination, difficulty in concentrating, skipping classes, and careless errors (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz et al., 1986; İpek, 2006). Anxious learners also tend to have problems with spoken and written communication, and understanding the gist of a content in the target language, which are all related to the three performance anxieties called communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986).

In order to measure FL learning anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) made an important contribution by developing a reliable and valid Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) consisting of 33 items related to the aforementioned three types of performance anxieties. Both the original and adapted versions of this scale have been widely used in research regarding students' FL learning anxiety, and teaching anxiety of pre-service and in-service teachers. Apart from the FLCAS, various scales to measure specific parts of FL learning anxiety were also developed, some of which were French Class Anxiety Scale (Gardner, 1985), Input, Processing and Output Anxiety Scales (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999).

A plethora of research focused on the anxiety experienced by learners of a foreign language, and it was found that FL anxiety negatively correlated with student

achievement and performance (Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). However, there were conflicting findings, too. For instance, Chastain (1975) found some positive correlations between German and Spanish students' anxiety levels and test scores, which indicated that a facilitative form of anxiety experienced by the learners helped them achieve higher. These contradictory findings revealed the non-linear relationship between performance and anxiety. Similarly, research that included demographic variables also revealed contradictory findings, especially when it was related to gender. To illustrate, various studies revealed that female learners were more prone to experience FL anxiety than male learners (Cheng, 2002; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Ra & Rhee, 2018). On the other hand, in some studies, male learners were found to be more hesitant, or no significant difference was found at all (Awan, Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010; Shang, 2013).

Reviewing the literature, Young (1991) specified the main possible sources of FL anxiety as personal reasons, classroom procedures, learner and teacher beliefs about language learning, learner-teacher interaction, and testing. Other studies on FL anxiety aimed to distinctly identify its effects on each of the four main skills (i.e., reading, listening, writing, and speaking), and speaking was found to be the most anxiety-provoking action among learners (Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 1996; Young, 1991). Focusing on the four skills also paved the way for new scales to measure each one of the skills as a subtype of FL anxiety, such as FL reading anxiety and FL speaking anxiety. Some research also examined its various academic, cognitive, social, and affective effects in various contexts (Aida, 1994; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kim, 2009; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Woodrow, 2006).

FL Teaching Anxiety

In a more general sense, teaching is a demanding profession which may provoke anxiety due to such reasons as defiant students, administrative problems, subject matter knowledge, rigid performance expectations, and so forth (Horwitz, 1996; Wood, 2000). Emphasizing its situation-specific nature, Buitink and Kemme (1986) define teaching anxiety as "a momentary situational characteristic of teaching. It is an emotional constitution that may change in intensity and may disappear with increasing experience" (p. 77). Fear of public speaking, class preparation, inexperience, past failures, negative student behavior, grading procedures, and giving proper directions are also among the sources of teaching anxiety (Horwitz, 1996; Numrich, 1996). Studies showed that teaching anxiety also negatively correlates with experience and teaching effectiveness (Fish & Fraser, 2001; Williams, 1991).

FL teaching anxiety, on the other hand, seems to be at the junction of teaching anxiety and FL anxiety as it resembles both constructs. However, it is accepted as a distinct type of classroom anxiety pertaining to language teaching practice. It is mostly associated with non-native teachers as they are thought to be more likely to experience language-related incompetence in terms of the limited use of L2 and communicative activities when they are anxious (Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 1996). Nevertheless, just as having low self-efficacy does not mean an actual inadequacy in the skills to do a task, having FL teaching anxiety also does not necessarily indicate actual incompetence. This type of anxiety is more common among idealistic high achievers with perfectionist, and sometimes unrealistic approaches towards language learning and teaching (Horwitz, 1996; Kim & Kim, 2004).

From a different perspective on the same issue, Horwitz (1996) also asserts, "even if this anxiety had no impact on the effectiveness of the language instruction, it would seem to be a substantial detriment to the mental well-being and job satisfaction of foreign language teachers" (p. 367). In other words, a debilitative form of anxiety in FL teaching might cause damage in multiple aspects for both the learner and the teacher. Thus, it is worth investigating the sources of this type of anxiety and comparing different groups as it can enable teachers to adopt strategies to mitigate or cope with it. Therefore, an account of the empirical studies conducted with pre-service and in-service EFL teachers is provided in this last part of the literature review.

This particular study is contextually similar to but slightly different from the present study in terms of its major construct. Mousavi (2007) compared the stress provoking factors between native and non-native EFL teachers. A questionnaire was administered to 16 native and 16 non-native teachers. Then, eight members from each group were interviewed. The results showed that for both groups, teaching poorly motivated students and student complaints were major stress factors. For the native teachers, classroom observations were particularly stressing while the non-native teachers found work load, students' misunderstandings, and perceived language ability as particular stress factors.

One of the early studies on the anxiety specifically experienced during FL teaching practice was conducted by Numrich (1996). What makes this study important for this literature review is that while this phenomenon is mostly associated with non-native speakers of the language, Numrich worked with native teachers of English as a second language (ESL). The qualitative results drawn from 26 novice ESL teachers' diary entries indicated four main sources of anxiety among

the participants: Assessment procedures, time management in class, giving instructions for tasks, and a feeling of insufficiency in teaching grammar. When compared to the following studies on novice and pre-service non-native EFL teachers, similarities could be observed in terms of the results such as assessment, giving instructions, and teaching grammar effectively.

Kim and Kim (2004) looked into the FL teaching anxiety experienced by in-service Korean EFL teachers in terms of gender, experience, major, and teaching group. The participants were 147 EFL teachers at primary, secondary, and high schools. The researchers developed a scale to collect data, which also included open-ended questions. The results showed that the teachers were worried about their L2 knowledge, which was associated with a perfectionist attitude towards the language, and being compared to others. They also reported limited abilities in productive skills (e.g., speaking and writing), anxiety in conducting groups activities, and lack of English proficiency and pedagogy knowledge. However, none of the demographic variables resulted in a significant difference in the anxiety levels of the participants.

In a similar study with non-native participants from different countries, Canessa (2006) found that experience and anxiety negatively correlated, and that cultural background of the teachers affected their anxiety. However, educational background and time spent in the L2 speaking countries did not make a difference. In the Taiwanese context, on the other hand, Tseng (2005) found that the level of education and experience had no impact on the level of anxiety in the elementary and high school EFL teachers.

Focusing on the possibility of the type of FL teaching anxiety caused by the use of L2, Kongchan and Singhasiri (2008) collected data from 32 EFL teachers at a university in Thailand. The instruments were an adapted version of the FLCAS, and

semi-structured interviews with 6 participants. The results showed that the teachers were moderately worried about using L2 when students with low proficiency levels did not understand them and showed signs of boredom. On the other hand, the participants reported that they implemented practical coping strategies, and that this feeling encouraged them to be more planned in their practice. In a way, the anxiety experienced in this context was a facilitative one.

Klanrit and Sroinam (2012) collected data from 673 non-native EFL teachers in Taiwan through a questionnaire and focus groups interviews. The revealed sources of FL teaching anxiety were students' attitude towards English and their low motivation, teachers' language proficiency, managing teaching and learning, and teachers' expectations about students' limitations in language competence.

There are also a number of studies in the Turkish context. Considering that despite the similarities, FL teaching anxiety is actually different from teaching anxiety, İpek (2006) created a valid and reliable instrument to measure FL teaching anxiety. To this end, she first collected qualitative data from 32 non-native EFL teachers at a state university. The data were received through the diaries kept for nine weeks, and semi-structured interviews. The content analysis revealed six categories of sources of anxiety: Making mistakes, teaching a particular skill, using the native language (L1), teaching students at a particular proficiency level, being compared to fellow teachers, and fear of failure. With the guidance of these data, she created the Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS). The researcher also suggested that comparing the sources of anxiety in native and non-native FL teachers might provide more information on the phenomenon.

Kesen and Aydın (2014) focused on the anxiety perceptions of novice and experienced EFL teachers. Collecting data from 35 teachers, the researchers used the

FLTAS as the instrument. The sample size was low, which required non-parametric tests. No difference was found in terms of gender. The results showed that teachers had moderate levels of anxiety. Also, those who had five and more years of experience had significantly lower levels of anxiety than the novice teachers. A significant negative correlation was also found between experience and anxiety.

In his study on FL teaching anxiety among Turkish EFL teachers at universities, Öztürk (2016) collected both quantitative and qualitative data. First, using the FLTAS, he collected data from 103 teachers from six universities. Later on, he conducted semi-structured interviews with 10 participants. The quantitative results indicated that the participants had moderate level of anxiety. In terms of demographic variables, gender and educational background showed no significant difference. Nonetheless, as the years of experience increased, the anxiety scores decreased. What is more, the interviews showed that knowledge of the target language and culture, immediate questions posed by students, and students' judgmental manners were the primary factors that provoked anxiety.

Similarly, Dişli (2020) also administered the FLTAS to 151 EFL teachers at high schools. She also collected qualitative data from 20 participants through structured interviews. The results indicated a moderate level of anxiety among the participants. Interview results revealed that using L1, teaching a particular skill, making mistakes, teaching students at a particular level, students' attitudes, and misusing technology were the sources of anxiety. No significant difference was found in terms of gender, while experience, type of schools they are working at, and major degrees resulted in significant differences. Novice teachers and teachers who are graduates of English literature departments had significantly higher levels of anxiety.

Merç (2011) conducted a qualitative inquiry with 150 pre-service EFL teachers to investigate factors that create anxiety during their practicum. The participants kept diaries for 10 weeks, and then semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 of them. Mentors, students and class profiles, classroom management, teaching procedures, and being observed were among the main sources of anxiety among the participants. In another study with 60 pre-service EFL teachers, Aydın (2016) collected data from a background questionnaire, reflections, interviews, and essays. Teachers' personality, perceived language proficiency, negative evaluation, demotivation and amotivation, inexperience, and technical concerns were among the sources of FL teaching anxiety. Tüfekçi Can (2018) also investigated the same phenomenon with 25 pre-service teachers through multiple instruments similar to Aydın's study (2016). The results showed a number of sources of anxiety such as inexperience, classroom management, teaching a particular skill, communication apprehension, and fear of evaluation. In another study, Agustiana (2014) found that being observed, inexperience, the first day of practicum, assessment procedures, a big class, student questions, and teaching grammar were the main sources of anxiety among the pre-service teachers.

Güngör and Yaylı (2012) also measured self-efficacy and FL teaching anxiety beliefs of 77 pre-service EFL teachers through İpek's (2006) FLTAS, and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) TSES. The results indicated that self-efficacy and FL teaching anxiety had a weak negative correlation. Also, the participants had high self-efficacy and moderate levels of FL teaching anxiety. Gender, overseas experience, and attending professional development activities made no significant difference in the TSES scores. However, in the FLTAS, male

participants, those who had overseas experience, and those who attended professional development programs had lower anxiety.

In her study on pre-service EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety, Mutlu (2017) administered the Foreign Language Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (FLSTA) developed by Merç (2011) to 46 participants. In-class observations, focus group interviews, and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 of the participants. The results indicated a moderate level of anxiety while problems with students and fear of being criticized by peers caused the highest level of anxiety. The qualitative inquiry revealed that personality features, lack of teaching skills, language proficiency, students and mentors, practicum system, and factors related to teaching procedure were the main sources of anxiety. Han and Takkaç-Tulgar (2019) also found partially similar results from the qualitative data they collected from 32 pre-service EFL teachers. Their findings indicated that classroom management, being observed, and receiving negative feedback from mentors were the main sources of anxiety.

Another recent study in this field was conducted by Türkmen (2019). In her unpublished master's thesis, the researcher first aimed to offer a taxonomy of the cognitive, affective and socio-cultural factors, and coping strategies for both FL learning anxiety and FL teaching anxiety. Next, she conducted a case study on FL teaching anxiety through semi-structured interviews, open-ended questions, and focus group interviews with 35 pre-service and 30 in-service EFL teachers employed at the Ministry of National Education. The results showed that for both groups, applying theoretical knowledge into practice, making mistakes, and difficulty in managing the classroom provoked anxiety. For pre-service teachers, being ridiculed by students and being perceived as novice teachers also caused anxiety while, for in-

service teachers, giving explicit instructions and getting negative reflection from students about the language and teachers were other anxiety provoking factors.

Conclusion

This chapter touched upon the major constructs including social learning theory, social cognitive theory, the integrated model for teacher self-efficacy, and different types of anxiety in educational settings. As the literature suggests, non-native EFL teachers experience FL teaching anxiety at various levels, and there are various sources that provoke it. However, only one study could be found on native teachers. Also, it can be observed that the focus of the previous studies has mostly been on pre-service teachers and in-service teachers employed at primary, secondary, and high schools. Teacher self-efficacy and FL teaching anxiety perceptions of EFL teachers at tertiary level institutions have been examined even less. Therefore, the present study aims to contribute to the literature by filling this gap.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This quantitative study aimed to investigate foreign language teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers employed at the tertiary level institutions in Turkey. The research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What is the extent of the tertiary level EFL teachers'
    a. FL teaching anxiety
    b. teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between native and non-native speaker teachers in terms of their FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
4. Does FL teaching anxiety among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience
    f. proficiency levels taught
    g. qualifications?
5. Does perceived teacher self-efficacy among the participants significantly differ by:

a. gender
b. age
c. major
d. last completed degree
e. years of experience
f. proficiency levels taught
g. qualifications?

This chapter explains the methodology of the present study. First, the research design, setting and participants are explained. Then, the instruments, the pilot study, the data collection process, and the methods of normality check and data analysis are described in detail.

Research Design

Scovel (1978) notes that psychological constructs, such as anxiety and self-efficacy, are measured in three main ways: Through behavioral observations, physiological tests, and self-reporting tools. The current study is conceptualized as a non-experimental descriptive quantitative design, and the data were collected through an online self-reporting questionnaire. Quantitative designs are preferred due to their systematic and focused nature. They involve standardized instruments that provide precise measurements, along with reliable and replicable data (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). What is more, the researcher's personal biases during data analyses can be avoided in quantitative designs. Questionnaires, on the other hand, are commonly used self-reporting instruments in quantitative designs to investigate phenomena that cannot be directly observed such as values, opinions, inner experience, interests, and so forth (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). For these reasons, this study adopted a quantitative approach with a self-reporting instrument.

Setting

The setting of the present study is the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) at various public and foundation universities in Turkey. The universities in this setting offer obligatory or optional intensive English programs to students in their first year as a preparation for their future studies in their departments. The levels taught are specified in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), varying from beginner to advanced. The exit levels of these programs generally range from intermediate to upper intermediate, or sometimes advanced. These intensive English programs mostly follow skill-based or integrated approaches in language teaching, and their curricula are mostly based on English for general purposes, and English for general academic purposes. Currently, according to the Council of Higher Education (CoHE), the total number of universities in Turkey is 208, and the majority of them offer this intensive language program. Among them, the researcher collected data from 12 public and 18 foundation universities.

Participants

The majority of the non-native EFL teachers employed at the tertiary level institutions in Turkey are of Turkish nationals, as expected; however, there are also a number of non-native teachers from other nationalities, and native English speakers in the population. The purpose of the present study is to include both the native and non-native teachers within this context. Therefore, the sample of this study included 180 non-native and 53 native EFL teachers employed at various public and foundation universities. The reason for the difference between the number of native and non-native EFL teachers in the sample could be mainly due to the relatively limited population of native EFL teachers in the Turkish setting. To exemplify, according to CoHE's statistics of the year 2019, approximately 6000 instructors are

employed at SFLs around Turkey. This number includes both EFL teachers and teachers of other languages. Among these teachers, nearly 600 of them are from foreign countries (see https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/). Although no specific data were found for the actual number of native and non-native EFL teachers, these numbers might still be useful for providing a general framework of the setting and population. Taking these statistics into account, a notable difference regarding the numbers of native and non-native teachers employed in higher education might be observed. This discrepancy can also be observed in the sampling of the current study.

A total number of 237 valid responses were obtained from the participants of the present study. Among them, 151 were female, 79 were male, and three of them chose the *other* option. Four participants chose not to answer the demographic questions; therefore, their responses could not be included in the analyses related to the categorical variables. The age range of the sample varied from 25 to over 55 while the majority of the participants were at 35-44 years of age. Table 1 presents the sample's demographic information in more detail.

Table 1

Demographic Information

Category	Native (n = 53)	Non-native (n = 180)
Gender		
Female	21	130
Male	30	49
Other / prefer not to say	2	1
Age		
25-34	15	70
35-44	16	79
45-54	12	27
55+	10	4

Table 1 (cont'd)

Demographic Information

Category	Native (n = 53)	Non-native (n = 180)
Country of Birth		
Turkey	1	174
U.K.	21	-
U.S.A.	22	-
Canada	5	-
Other	4	6

For the educational background, it was observed that the non-native EFL teachers mostly graduated from English Language Teaching (ELT), followed by English Literature, Linguistics, Translation, and Comparative Literature. Three non-native participants reported that their major was not related to English language. However, for employment in the Turkish higher education setting, Turkish EFL teachers are required to have graduated from a department related to English language. Therefore, these three responses were regarded as outliers, and they were not included in the analysis of this variable. On the other hand, the native EFL teachers' educational background showed more variety, including departments of philosophy, business administration, engineering, modern languages, and so forth. In addition, while the participants held degrees ranging from B.A. to Ph.D., the majority of them held M.A. degrees (n = 125). Due to the amendments in the CoHE regulation in 2018, published in the Turkish Official Gazette vol. 30590, in order to be qualified for jobs at universities, EFL teachers are now obliged to complete M.A. degrees. Therefore, in the near future, the number of EFL teachers with M.A. degrees are expected to increase even more.

The participants' teaching experiences ranged from 0-5 to over 20 years and, for the purposes of this study, teachers with 0-5 years of experience were labeled as novice. The participants taught students at various proficiency levels ranging from beginner to advanced during the last three semesters. The most common level taught among the non-native sample was beginner and elementary while most of the native speakers taught in upper levels during this period. Additionally, almost all of the native teachers (*n* = 52) held other qualifications including CELTA and DELTA while more than half of the non-native participants (*n* = 100) did not hold any other qualifications. Table 2 shows the educational and work-related background of the participants in more detail.

Table 2

Educational and Work-Related Background Information

Category	Native (*n* = 53)	Non-native (*n* = 180)
Major		
American Culture & Lit.	-	10
English Lang. & Lit.	7	32
English Linguistics	3	7
ELT	7	119
Translation & Interpreting	-	8
Comparative Lit.	-	1
Other	36	3
Educational Status		
B.A.	20	45
M.A. in progress	5	26
M.A.	24	64
Ph.D. in progress	2	35
Ph.D.	2	10

Table 2 (cont'd)

Educational and Work-Related Background Information

Category	Native (n = 53)	Non-native (n = 180)
Type of Institution		
Public university	17	124
Foundation university	36	56
Teaching Experience		
0-5 years	9	10
6-10 years	14	55
11-15 years	11	48
16-20 years	9	31
21+ years	10	36
Administrative / Unit Duties		
Yes	25	82
No	28	98
Weekly Teaching Hours		
1-9	6	23
10-15	8	29
16-20	30	103
21-25	8	23
26+	1	2
Qualifications		
CELTA	33	58
DELTA	5	23
ICELT	4	8
Other	22	16
No	1	100
Levels Taught in the Last Three Semesters		
Beginner + Elem.	27	182
Pre-int	32	125
Intermediate	34	91

Table 2 (cont'd)

Educational and Work-Related Background Information

Category	Native (n = 53)	Non-native (n = 180)
Levels Taught in the Last Three Semesters		
Up-int + Advanced	53	83
Curriculum		
Skill-based	17	19
Integrated	31	156
Other	5	5

According to Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2011), the minimum sample size for descriptive quantitative studies is 100, and for correlation designs, a sample of 50 is necessary. Bearing this criterion in mind, the researcher first focused on determining the institutions that employ native EFL teachers to be able to reach an acceptable sample size as the population is imbalanced in terms of the native and non-native ratio. In this case, random sampling would not have provided the desired sample as the probability of getting native EFL teachers' participation would have been low. For this reason, purposive and convenience sampling was used for this study.

Instrumentation

The main instrument used for quantitative data collection was a questionnaire consisting of three main sections to measure the levels of FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy. For the questionnaire, following the informed consent form (see Appendix A) attached to the front page, the first two sections respectively included the adapted versions of İpek's (2006) Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS) and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teachers' Sense

of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The third section of the questionnaire included 13 items to obtain demographic, educational and work-related background information of the participants.

The FLTAS, a 5-point Likert scale with 26 items, was previously used in studies conducted with non-native pre-service and in-service EFL teachers (e.g., Dişli, 2020; Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Öztürk, 2016). The original version of it is in Turkish. The scale consists of five factors which are: 1) *anxiety in teaching a particular language skill*, 2) *worry about target language performance*, 3) *making mistakes*, 4) *being compared to fellow teachers*, and 5) *using the native language*. While the lowest reliability value (.67) has been reported for the fifth factor, the overall reliability of the scale is .92.

The TSES, a 9-point Likert scale with 24 items, has been frequently used in the literature (e.g., Gür, 2008; Mills & Allen, 2007; Moradkhani, Raygan, & Moein, 2017; Sevimel & Subasi, 2018), and its overall Cronbach's alpha value was .94 for the original survey. The items were grouped under three main subscales: 1) *student engagement*, 2) *instructional strategies*, and 3) *classroom management.* Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005) translated the original version into Turkish and conducted confirmatory factor analysis proving that the translated version fits the original. However, in order not to cause any discrepancy among the native and non-native participants, the original English version was used only.

Pilot Study

The original versions of the FLTAS and TSES are highly reliable and valid instruments. However, some adaptations had to be made with certain items in order to make them more suitable for the present research context. Thus, it was determined

that a pilot study would provide useful information to eliminate any potential problems which might arise during the actual data collection.

To begin with, the FLTAS was mostly implemented in its original Turkish version. However, as the sample of this study included native English speakers, as well, the English version of this survey was supposed to be applied. However, no previous study that used the English version of this scale was found. In the original study, the items in Turkish were listed with their English meanings; therefore, the English versions of the items were taken from the original study. Then, to ensure their equivalence and compatibility in meaning, two experts in these languages also checked both versions.

The original scale had five subscales and, among them, the fifth subscale (i.e., use of the native language) had the lowest internal reliability value of .67. Despite its relatively low reliability value, the items related to this factor were not omitted in the original study as they did not affect the overall reliability (.92), which is considerably high. This subscale was used in this study, as well. However, one slight change was made in the wording of its items, and the expression *or students' native language* was added considering the possible diversities in classroom profiles. With this change, any language other than English would be taken into account, whether it was the teachers' native language or not. Even though this scale and these items were created based on the data from non-native EFL teachers, native English speakers' answers might also give interesting results. These items might give comparative information about their attitude under the given circumstance. The rest of the items were kept as they were.

For the second section, there were two options because there were originally two versions of the TSES: One of them was the short version that consists of 12

items, and the other version was longer, with 24 items. The long version was chosen for this study in order to ensure that sufficient information would be gathered from the respondents. However, before piloting, one item related to family involvement in teaching was removed since it did not correspond to the tertiary level teaching context.

The items of both scales were transferred to *Qualtrics*, an online survey platform, and first checked by five fellow EFL teachers to get their feedback on the content and item clarity. With the feedback received, minor edits were done to the items that were ambiguous for the participants. For the FLTAS, the wording of item 9 was changed from *think* to *feel* to match the scale responses starting from *never* to *always*. Further changes were made for the TSES items, as well. Items 14 and 17 were edited in accordance with the feedback regarding their ambiguity in meaning. Item 18 (i.e., How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?) also received negative feedback due to the fixed assessment procedures in tertiary level institutions, which led the participants to regard this item irrelevant to their working environment. However, as these strategies might also include in-class formative assessment strategies, as well, the item was kept in the survey. The participants also reported that the scale items *nothing* and *some influence* do not correspond to the questions on the scale and suggested changing them as *none* and *some*. The suggested edits were made and the edited version was shared with a graduate school faculty member in order to check the content and face validity.

After the final edits were made, the researcher applied for the ethics approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). When the permission was granted (Decision No. 2019-03-06-01, March 6, 2019), the piloting stage began. According to Isaac and Michael (as cited in Hill, 1998), 10 to 30 participants are acceptable for

a pilot study to conduct a correlational design study with two main constructs such as FLTAS and TSES. Therefore, the edited version was piloted with 13 non-native and 10 native EFL instructors.

To measure the internal consistency of the instrument, the scales with the Cronbach's alpha above .70 are mostly accepted as reliable (Muijs, 2004, p. 73). Accordingly, the pilot data were checked for reliability. The values for the two scales in comparison with the original versions were as follows:

For the original FLTAS, the overall reliability was .92. The same overall value was obtained from the pilot data. However, while grouping the items under the relevant subscales to prepare them for the reliability analyses, an error was noticed in the original study. One item of the fifth subscale (i.e., using the native language) was missing from the original scale, and it was mistakenly replaced by another item which was supposed to be discarded. In order to solve this issue, the problematic item was discarded from the pilot data of the present study, and the reliability analyses were conducted with the 25 remaining items. The Cronbach's alpha values for the five subscales were listed in Table 3.

Table 3

Comparative Reliability Values for the FLTAS Subscales

FLTAS Subscales	Original Scale	Pilot Study
1. Teaching a particular skill	.87	.92
2. Target language performance	.85	.84
3. Making mistakes	.85	.91
4. Being compared to other teachers	.87	.80
5. Using native language	.67	.63

As Table 3 showed, the first four subscales had high and satisfactory reliability values in both the original and the pilot study. Below, the details on the items and item reliability values for both scales were given respectively.

The first subscale consists of seven items (i.e., items 10, 11, 12, 16, 22, 23, 24) with the corrected item-total correlation values of .80, .59, .85, .86, .69, .78, and .81. The second subscale's items (i.e., items 6, 7, 9, 13, 14, 15, 18, 20) showed .70, .50, .48, .33, .78, .80, .72, and .57 as corrected item-total correlation values. The third subscale included the items 2, 3, 4, 5, 21, and 25 which showed .77, .77, .80, .73, .81, and .83 as corrected item-total correlation values. The fourth subscale included two items (i.e., items 8 and 19) with the same corrected item-total correlation value, which was .67. On the other hand, the fifth subscale's (i.e., items 1 and 17 with the corrected item-total correlation of .46) reliability was low in both the original study and the pilot data. However, it was kept because it did not affect the overall reliability. Furthermore, the missing item was added to this subscale for the actual study. Therefore, this value might increase with the new item (i.e., item 26) and the sample size in the actual study.

In the original 24-item TSES, the Cronbach's alpha levels were .87 for the *efficacy in student engagement* subscale, .91 for *efficacy in instructional strategies*, and .90 for *efficacy in classroom management*. The overall reliability of the instrument was .94.

For the pilot data of the current study, the Cronbach's alpha levels for the subscales were respectively .76, .67, and .88. The first subscale consisted of seven items (i.e., items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14) whose corrected item-total correlation values were .23, .15, .61, .65, .73, .46, and .65, respectively. The second subscale's items (i.e., items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23) showed .44, .32, .62, .22, .59, .39, .29, and

.11 as corrected item-total correlation values. The third subscale included the items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, and 21 which showed .59, .70, .57, .70, .83, .77, .83, and .30 as corrected item-total correlation values. The overall reliability was also .88. Although the second subscale had a lower value than the original, it was kept as it did not affect the overall reliability of the instrument. Besides, with the actual study, as the sample size increases, the lower values might also increase.

The third section was comprised of questions on demographic, educational and work-related background of the participants. The demographic part included items related to gender, age, being native or non-native speaker, and country of birth. The remaining parts included questions such as major, last completed degree, qualifications, proficiency levels taught, and years of experience. See Appendix B for the final version of the questionnaire.

Method of Data Collection

The researcher initiated the actual study after getting the required IRB permission and finalizing the pilot study. With the informed consent form (see Appendix A) attached to the front page of the questionnaire, the final version of the instrument was e-mailed to the participants through the administrations of the SFLs of 30 public and foundation universities in total. The data collection period started in the third week of November 2019 and continued until the end of February 2020. Considering the fact that the 2019-2020 academic year in most Turkish universities started in September 2019, November 2019 was chosen for the start of the data collection since the affective status of the teachers at the very beginning and towards the end of the academic year might show differences. The initial plan of the researcher was to collect data from four institutions. However, as the response rates from these institutions were lower than expected, the researcher decided to expand

the scope to increase the number by contacting the administrative units of 30 universities in total, which are mostly located in Ankara, İstanbul and İzmir (i.e., three big cities in Turkey). She informed the administrations about the study and kindly requested that the EFL instructors employed be invited to participate. However, on some occasions, no response was received from the administration. On other occasions, a few of them directly accepted the request and shared the survey with their staff while the others either required a petition, or their own ethics approval. Once the permissions were granted, in order to increase the response rate, the instrument was re-shared with these universities one week after the first request, as a reminder.

As the procedures for getting the required permission from each institution varied, the data collection process took approximately three months. Another reason for the length of the study was that the researcher temporarily stopped data collection in January 2020 due to the term break at most of these universities, and Christmas holiday for the native teachers.

Method of Data Analysis

After the data collection period, the responses on the *Qualtrics* survey file were transferred to SPSS. The raw data showed that the total number of responses gathered from the participants was 340, which included incomplete data. First, 52 responses had to be discarded because the participants just looked at the survey and left it without answering. Afterwards, 24 more were omitted as these were half-responses. The remaining cleaned up data included 237 responses in total. Therefore, the response rate was 69.7%. Later on, the Pearson Correlation test, independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA were implemented to answer the research

questions upon checking the data for normality. To ensure inter-rater reliability, another rater also checked the transferred data and analyses.

Item Reliability Analysis of the Main Study

A reliability analysis had been conducted after the pilot study. Despite the lower reliability values of certain subscales (i.e., .63 for *using native language* in the FLTAS, and .67 for *efficacy in instructional strategies* in the TSES), they were kept for the main study. After the main data collection, the same procedure was followed for the actual data. The reliability results of the main study were given in Table 4.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Values of the Instrument

Scales & Subscales	Cronbach's Alpha (Pilot Study)	Cronbach's Alpha (Actual Study)
FLTAS	.92	.92
1. Teaching a particular skill	.92	.88
2. Target language performance	.84	.81
3. Making mistakes	.91	.82
4. Being compared to other Ts	.85	.81
5. Using native language	.63	.75
TSES	.88	.95
1. Student engagement	.76	.86
2. Instructional strategies	.67	.87
3. Classroom management	.88	.92

Note. Ts = teachers.

According to Table 4, slight changes in the reliability values can be observed. It can be said that all the subscales showed an acceptable level of reliability after the

main study. For more detailed information, the item-based reliability values were given below. All the items and corresponding reliability values were given respectively.

The first subscale of the FLTAS (i.e., items 10, 11, 12, 16, 22, 23, 24) showed corrected item-total correlation values of .52, .64, .78, .65, .72, .73, and .60 respectively. The second subscale's items (i.e., items 6, 7, 9, 13, 14, 15, 18, 20) showed .53, .40, .25, .49, .52, .72, .74, and .56 as corrected item-total correlation values. The third subscale included the items 2, 3, 4, 5, 21, and 25 which showed .63, .67, .54, .47, .59, and .69 as corrected item-total correlation values. The fourth subscale included two items (i.e., items 8 and 19) showing the same corrected item-total correlation values, .68. On the other hand, the fifth subscale's (i.e., items 1, 17, and 26) corrected item-total correlation values were .59, .61, and .56, while the subscale's overall reliability increased to .75 in the actual study. As a result, the reliability values of all the subscales for the FLTAS were at an acceptable range.

The first subscale of the TSES (i.e., items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14) showed corrected item-total correlation values of .53, .61, .64, .64, .70, .63, and .69, respectively. The second subscale's items (i.e., items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23) showed .45, .69, .70, .60, .58, .57, .68, and .66 as corrected item-total correlation values. The third subscale's items (i.e., items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21) showed .77, .57, .69, .76, .77, .80, .77, and .72 as corrected item-total correlation values. With the second subscale increasing in the reliability value from .67 to .87, the instrument was confirmed to be reliable.

Normality Check for the Data

After getting satisfactory values from the reliability test, the items were grouped in accordance with the given subscales in order to obtain the composite

scores for descriptive and inferential analyses. Later on, in order to determine whether parametric or non-parametric analyses could be done, the data were checked for normality before each test. For normality check, skewness and kurtosis values were taken into consideration. When the z-scores of these values exceeded the absolute value of 3.29 (Kim, 2013), outliers were checked through boxplots and the 5% trimmed mean. If the difference between the mean and the 5% trimmed mean was above 0.15, the data were treated as non-normal (Pallant, 2011). See Appendix F for the list of the normality values of all the variables analyzed.

Conclusion

This chapter provided explanations on the research design, setting, and participants. Then, more information was provided about the instrument, the piloting stage, and data collection method and process. Item reliability values and the procedure followed for the normality check of the data were also provided. The next chapter will give a descriptive account of the results revealed by the statistical analyses.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The present study aimed to examine the FL teaching anxiety and self-efficacy perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers at 30 tertiary level institutions in Turkey. The data came from an online questionnaire that was completed by 180 non-native and 53 native EFL teachers. This chapter gives a descriptive account of the inferential analyses conducted with the data, regarding the research questions given below:

1. What is the extent of the tertiary level EFL teachers'
    a. FL teaching anxiety
    b. teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between native and non-native speaker teachers in terms of their FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
4. Does FL teaching anxiety among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience
    f. proficiency levels taught
    g. qualifications?

5. Does perceived teacher self-efficacy among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience
    f. proficiency levels taught
    g. qualifications?

Results of the Study

The Extent of the EFL Teachers' FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions

For the first research question, descriptive statistics were used to find out the level of FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of the participants. Table 5 and Table 6 respectively show the response percentages and mean scores for the FLTAS and TSES scales and their subscales.

FL teaching anxiety. Table 5 indicates that the participants' overall mean score for the FLTAS was 1.77 (*SD* = 0.49), which refers to a low level of anxiety. Target language performance showed the lowest mean value of 1.48, with the 55.3% of the participants stating that they had no problems about it. The highest mean score within this subscale belonged to item 15 (*M* = 1.70, *SD* = 0.80), which was about teaching students with a high proficiency level. On the other hand, the use of native language (L1) had the highest mean score (*M* = 2.51, *SD* = 0.89) of all the FLTAS subscales. 35.5% of the participants reported that they sometimes felt uncomfortable using or having used a language other than English in the class.

Table 5

Percentages of FLTAS Responses

Construct	Percentages					*M*	*SD*
	N	R	S	O	A		
FLTAS Subscales							
1. Teaching a particular skill	44.7	42	11.8	1.2	-	1.72	0.65
2. L2 performance	55.3	40.5	4.2	-	-	1.48	0.46
3. Making mistakes	32.5	51	14.8	1.7	-	1.80	0.63
4. Being compared to other teachers	37.1	35.9	19.4	5.9	1.7	1.84	0.91
5. Use of L1	14.8	35.8	35.5	12.6	1.3	2.51	0.89
FLTAS Overall	33.8	59	7.2	-	-	1.77	0.49

Note. N = never, 1.00 to 1.49; R = rarely, 1.50 to 2.49; S = sometimes, 2.50 to 3.49; O = often, 3.50 to 4.49; A = always, 4.50 to 5.00.

Teacher self-efficacy. For this construct, according to Table 6, the participants' responses showed an overall mean value of 7.00 (*SD* = 1.00), which indicated high levels of self-efficacy among the participants. Student engagement had the lowest mean (*M* = 6.63, *SD* = 1.17) among them, and item 3, motivating students with low interest, had the lowest mean score (*M* = 6.16, *SD* = 1.66) both on the relevant subscale and the overall scale. However, no respondents reported low self-efficacy in instructional strategies. Overall, it can be stated that the participants had low or rare FL teaching anxiety and high levels of self-efficacy. For more detailed information about the descriptive statistics of the data, please see Appendix

D. The other research questions investigated the possible relationships, differences and similarities between the constructs and various subgroups of the participants.

Table 6

Percentages of TSES Responses

Construct	Percentages			*M*	*SD*
	Low (1-2-3)	Mid (4-5-6)	High (7-8-9)		
TSES Subscales					
1. Student engagement	0.4	44.3	55.3	6.63	1.17
2. Instructional str.	-	19	81	7.19	0.98
3. Classroom man.	0.8	25.4	73.8	7.13	1.17
TSES Overall	0.4	28.3	71.3	7.00	1.00

Note. Low = 1.00 to 3.49; Mid = 3.50 to 6.49; High = 6.50 to 9.00.

The Relationship between EFL Teachers' FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions

The z scores of the skewness and kurtosis values for the FLTAS (3.31, -0.66) showed that skewness was above the normal range. The boxplot did not show outliers, and the difference between the mean and the 5% trimmed mean (.03) was within an acceptable range. The TSES scores were also within an acceptable skewness and kurtosis range (-2.31, 2.66). Therefore, a Pearson Correlation test was conducted to answer the second research question. Correlation coefficients were computed to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between FL teaching anxiety measured with the FLTAS and teacher self-efficacy measured with the TSES. The results showed a significant negative correlation between FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy ($p < .001$, $r = -.35$, $r_2 = .12$). As Cohen (as cited in Pallant, 2011) suggests, the *r* values from .30 to .49 are accepted as medium in

strength. Therefore, this result showed a small to medium level of negative correlation with a shared variance of 12%. The relationships between the subscales were also investigated in Table 7.

Table 7

Correlations between Subscales (N= 237)

		FLTAS				
		1.Teaching a particular skill	2. Target language perf.	3. Making mistakes	4. Being compared to others	5. Use of L1
TSES	1. Student engagement	-.39*	-.26*	-.10	-.13	.05
	2.Instructional strategies	-.44*	-.29*	-.20*	-.18*	-.05
	3. Classroom management	-.44*	-.32*	-.18*	-.24*	-.03

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the results in Table 7, teaching a particular skill and target language performance had significant negative correlations with all of the TSES subscales. The strongest relationships were seen between teaching a particular skill and instructional strategies (r (235) = -.44, r_2 = .19, p < .001), and between teaching a particular skill and classroom management (r (235) = -.44, r_2 = .19, p < .001). Target language performance, making mistakes, and being compared to other teachers also showed weaker but significant negative correlations with the TSES subscales. On the other hand, using native language did not significantly correlate with any of the TSES subscales. Shared variance between the variables that significantly correlated ranged from approximately 3% to 19%, indicating small to moderate effects.

FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions of the Native and Non-Native Participants

For the third research question, the skewness and kurtosis levels for the native and non-native participants were within an acceptable normality range (see Appendix F). Therefore, an independent samples t-test was conducted to find if there is a statistically significant difference between native and non-native participants in terms of their FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions. The Levene's test (see Table 8) indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for the overall mean scores of both FL teaching anxiety ($F = 0.75$, $p = .386$) and teacher self-efficacy ($F = 1.34$, $p = .248$). As the tests for the constructs were conducted separately, no further Bonferroni correction was made. Table 9 shows the results.

Table 8

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Construct	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	0.75	.386
TSES	1.34	.248

Table 9

Independent t-test Results for FLTAS and TSES

Construct	Native Speaker	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
FLTAS	Y (*n* = 53)	1.62	0.51	-2.36	231	.019	[-0.33, -0.03]
	N (*n* = 180)	1.80	0.48				
TSES	Y (*n* = 53)	6.94	0.93	-0.54	231	.593	[0.39, 0.23]
	N (*n* = 180)	7.03	1.03				

Note. Y = yes; N = no; CI = confidence interval.

The tests in Table 9 showed a statistically significant difference (t (231) = -2.36, p = .019, d = 0.36) between the native and non-native participants' overall mean scores in the FLTAS. The results indicated that the native EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety (n = 53, M = 1.62, SD = 0.51) was significantly lower than the non-native participants (n = 180, M = 1.80, SD = 0.48). The effect size was calculated as 0.36, which indicated that being a native or non-native speaker could account for the 36% of the variance in FLTAS scores. The 95% confidence interval of group differences between the means ranged from -0.33 to -0.03.

To investigate the differences in more detail, independent t-tests were conducted for each FLTAS subscale, as well (see Appendix I). The Levene's tests (see Appendix H) indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for the mean scores of teaching a particular skill (F = 3.84, p = .051), making mistakes (F = 1.13, p = .288), being compared to other teachers (F = 0.87, p = .353), and using the native language (F = 2.51, p = .115). However, target language performance did not meet the criteria (F = 9.69, p = .002). As the t-tests were done together, a Bonferroni correction was made and the new p value was .01 (.05 / 5 = .01). The tests showed no significant mean difference in terms of anxiety in teaching a particular skill (t (231) = -0.47, p = .640) and being compared to other teachers (t (231) = -1.79, p = .074). However, significant mean differences were observed with target language performance (t (117.01) = -3.76, p < .001), making mistakes (t (231) = -2.69, p = .008), and using the native language (t (231) = -2.71, p = .007). The results indicated that non-native teachers had significantly higher mean scores than the native teachers.

On the other hand, regarding the teacher self-efficacy perceptions, the t-test in Table 9 showed no statistically significant difference between the two groups (t (231)

= -0.54, p = .593). The non-native teachers had a higher mean score (M = 7.03, SD = 1.03) than the native teachers (M = 6.94, SD = 0.93). The 95% confidence interval of group differences between the means ranged from -0.39 to 0.22. Further t-tests were conducted for the TSES subscales. The Levene's tests (see Appendix H) indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for the mean scores of student engagement (F = 0.60, p = .440), instructional strategies (F = 0.01, p = .925), and classroom management (F = 0.35, p = .556). As the t-tests were done together, a Bonferroni correction was made and the new p value was .016 (.05 / 3 = .016). The test showed no significant mean difference in terms of efficacy in student engagement (t (231) = -0.93, p = .352) instructional strategies (t (231) = 0.63, p = .527), or classroom management (t (231) = -1.03, p = .304).

FL Teaching Anxiety among the Subgroups of the Native and Non-native Participants

In order to answer the fourth research question, normality checks were done for each categorical variable (see Appendix F). After ensuring that the data were normal, depending on the variable levels, independent samples t-test or one-way ANOVA was chosen for analyses. The results of the tests were interpreted according to $p < 0.05$ unless a further Bonferroni correction was needed. The categorical variables (i.e., age, gender, major, last completed degree, years of experience, and proficiency levels taught) were analyzed in comparison with the native and non-native participants. However, out of the 53 native participants, 52 of them held a qualification (e.g., CELTA, DELTA, or TESOL certificates and so forth); therefore, no comparison could be done with this variable in terms of native and non-native samples. For gender, qualifications, and non-native participants' major degrees, independent t-tests were implemented. The rest of the variables were analyzed with

one-way ANOVA. Table 10 summarizes the results of the subgroups analyzed with one-way ANOVA.

Table 10

ANOVA Results for FLTAS in Various Subgroups

Construct	Categorical Variables (Native, n = 53)	df_1	df_2	F	p	R_2
FLTAS	Age	3	49	0.45	.721	.00
	Major	2	50	0.71	.497	.00
	Last completed degree	2	50	1.67	.199	.00
	Years of experience	4	48	1.84	.136	.00
	Proficiency levels	2	50	0.16	.857	.00
Construct	Categorical Variables (Non-native, n = 180)	df_1	df_2	F	p	R_2
FLTAS	Age	3	176	7.16	.000	.10
	Last completed degree	2	177	2.40	.094	.00
	Years of experience	4	175	3.15	.016	.06
	Proficiency levels	2	177	0.53	.592	.00

Gender (male-female). At first, this variable included three levels (i.e., male, female, other). Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was supposed to be conducted. The data were regarded as normal for the male and female participants but skewness and kurtosis could not be calculated for *other* as there were not enough responses. What is more, as there was only one *other* response among the non-natives, post hoc analyses could not be done for the significant results. Therefore, the levels were reduced to *male* and *female*, and an independent samples t-test was implemented, instead. The assumption for homogeneity of variances was not met for the non-

natives (F = 3.99, p = .047) or the natives (F = 6.55, p = .014) (see Table 11). Two independent t-tests were conducted together for the native and non-native samples. Therefore, a Bonferroni correction was made and the new p value was .025 (.05 / 2 = .025). The t-test in Table 12 showed significant mean differences between the female and male participants in both native (t (31.91) = -3.95, p < .001, d = 1.17) and non-native (t (110.94) = -3.05, p = .003, d = 0.48) samples. Female participants in both native (n = 21, M = 1.95, SD = 0.54) and non-native (n = 130, M = 1.86, SD = 0.49) groups had significantly higher mean scores of FLTAS than native (n = 30, M = 1.42, SD = 0.36) and non-native (n = 49, M = 1.65, SD = 0.38) male participants. The effect size for the native sample was calculated as 1.17 and for the non-native sample, it was 0.48. The 95% confidence interval of group differences ranged from -0.81 to 0.26 for the native sample, and from -0.21 to -0.07 for the non-native sample.

Table 11

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in Gender

Construct	Native Speaker	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	6.55	.014
	No	3.99	.047

Table 12

Independent t-test Results for the Male and Female

Construct	Native Speaker	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
FLTAS	Y (n = 53)	-3.95	31.91	.000	[-0.81, -0.26]
	N (n = 180)	-3.05	-110.40	.003	[-0.21, 0.07]

Note. Y = yes; N = no; CI = confidence interval.

Age. This variable included more than two levels, and the data were normal (see Appendix F). Thus, a one-way ANOVA was implemented. Homogeneity of variances was met only for the non-native sample (p = .705) (see Table 13). The test in Table 10 showed no significant mean differences between different age groups in native speakers (F (3, 49) = 0.45, p = .721). However, for the non-native participants, a significant mean difference (F (3, 176) = 7.16, p < .001) was observed in the FLTAS scores between different age groups. The post hoc test (see Appendix J) revealed that the participants in the 25-34 age group (M = 1.99, SD = 0.48) had significantly higher levels of FL teaching anxiety scores than the participants in the age groups of 35-44 (M = 1.69, SD = 0.42) and 45-54 (M = 1.69, SD = 0.47). The groups of different ages could account for 10% of the variance in their mean scores.

Table 13

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Age

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	3	49	3.07	.036
	No	3	176	0.47	.705

Major. This variable was grouped under three levels for the native speakers as ELT, English language-related departments (i.e., literature, linguistics and translation), and others. The non-native participants were grouped under two levels as ELT and English-language graduates since the responses for the *other* option (n = 3) were discarded as outliers. The data were normal; therefore, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for the native participants, and an independent t-test was done for the non-natives. The homogeneity of variances was met for the natives (F (2, 50) = 2.34, p = .107), but not for the non-natives (F = 4.86, p = .029) (see Table 14). The one-

way ANOVA test in Table 10 showed no significant results in the mean differences among the major degrees of the native sample (F (2, 50) = 0.71, p = .497).

Table 14

Levene's Tests for Equality of Error Variances in Major Degrees

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	2	50	2.34	.107
	No	-	-	4.86	.029

For the non-native sample, the t-test results in Table 15 (t (143.96) = 2.13, p = .035, d = 0.33) indicated a significant mean difference between the graduates of ELT and the graduates of other English language departments such as literature, translation, and linguistics. ELT graduates (M = 1.85, SD = 0.51) had significantly higher FLTAS scores than the graduates of other English language departments (M = 1.70, SD = 0.39). The effect size was calculated as 0.33; therefore, major degrees of the non-native participants could account for the 33% of variance in their FLTAS scores. The 95% confidence interval of group differences between the ELT and language department graduates ranged from 0.01 to 0.28.

Table 15

Independent t-test Results for FLTAS and Major (Non-Native)

Construct	Major	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
FLTAS	ELT (n = 119)	1.85	0.51	-2.13	143.96	.035	[0.01, 0.28]
	EL (n = 58)	1.70	0.39				

Note. EL = English language departments other than ELT; CI = confidence interval.

Last completed degree. This variable was grouped into three levels as B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees. One-way ANOVA was used for the analysis as the data

were normal (see Appendix F). The Levene's test in Table 16 showed the variances were homogeneous in the native (F = 2.43, p = .099) and non-natives (F = 0.01, p = .995). However, the ANOVA analysis (see Table 10) revealed no significant mean difference between the groups in neither the native (F (2, 50) = 1.67, p = .199) nor the non-native sample (F (2, 177) = 2.40, p = .094).

Table 16

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Last Completed Degree

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	2	50	2.43	.099
	No	2	177	0.01	.995

Years of experience. This variable consists of five levels. Ensuring normality (see Appendix F), a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The Levene's test in Table 17 indicated equal variances in native (F = 1.34, p = .268) and non-native samples (F = 0.91, p = .458). The ANOVA results (see Table 10) showed no significant mean difference between various levels of experience among the native participants (F (4, 48) = 1.84, p = .136). Nonetheless, a significant difference was observed within the non-native sample (F (4, 175) = 3.15, p = .016). Therefore, multiple comparisons were made with Bonferroni. The post hoc tests (see Appendix K) showed teachers with 6-10 years of experience (M = 1.94, SD = 0.50) had a significantly higher FLTAS mean score than those with over 21 years of experience (M = 1.62, SD = 0.48). The groups of different years of experience could account for 6% of the variance in the mean scores of the non-native sample.

Table 17

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Years of Experience

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	4	48	1.34	.268
	No	4	175	0.91	.458

Proficiency levels taught. The responses for the proficiency levels taught in the last three semesters were grouped under three levels: Lower (i.e., from elementary to intermediate), higher (i.e., from intermediate to advanced), and all (i.e., from elementary to advanced). The Levene's test in Table 18 indicated equality of variances in the native ($F = 0.93$, $p = .403$) and non-native sample ($F = 0.91$, $p = .373$). The ANOVA results showed no significant mean differences in the FLTAS scores between various levels of proficiency taught among the native (F (2, 50) = 0.16, $p = .857$) and non-native (F (2, 177) = 0.53, p = .592) participants (see Table 10).

Table 18

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Proficiency Levels Taught

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	Yes	2	50	0.93	.403
	No	2	177	0.91	.373

Qualifications. Certificates such as CELTA, DELTA, TESOL and ICELT were grouped under one level. As a result, the levels were reduced to *yes* and *no*. Further native and non-native comparison could not be made here since there was only one native participant who reported *no* for this variable. Therefore, an

independent samples t-test was conducted for the whole sample. The Levene's test (F = 1.65, p = .200) confirmed the homogeneity of variances (see Table 19). According to the independent t-test results in Table 20 (t (231) = -1.36, p = .175), there was no statistically significant mean difference between the participants who have other qualifications (M = 1.72, SD = 0.50) and those who do not (M = 1.81, SD = 0.47).

Table 19

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in Qualifications

Construct	*F*	*p*
FLTAS	1.65	.200

Table 20

Independent Samples t-test Results for Qualifications

Construct	Qualifications	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
FLTAS	Y (n = 132)	1.72	0.50	-1.36	231	.175	[-0.22, 0.04]
	N (n = 101)	1.81	0.47				

Note. Y = yes; N = no; CI = confidence interval.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions among the Subgroups of the Native and Non-native Participants

The same procedures used for the previous question were followed to answer the fifth research question, as well. The analyses were conducted after ensuring that the data were normal for all the categorical variables (i.e., gender, age, major, last completed degree, years of experience, proficiency levels taught, and qualifications) (see Appendix F). One-way ANOVA and independent samples t-tests were used to find if there were statistically significant differences in terms of teacher efficacy

among the subgroups of native and non-native participants. Table 21 summarizes the results obtained from one-way ANOVA.

Table 21

ANOVA Results for TSES in Various Subgroups

Construct	Categorical Variables (Native, n = 53)	df_1	df_2	F	p	R^2
TSES	Age	3	49	0.27	.845	.00
	Major	2	50	0.73	.487	.00
	Last completed degree	2	50	0.16	.850	.00
	Years of experience	4	48	1.50	.217	.00
	Proficiency levels	2	50	0.60	.553	.00
Construct	Categorical Variables (Non-Native, n = 180)	df_1	df_2	F	p	R^2
TSES	Age	3	176	2.06	.107	.00
	Last completed degree	2	177	0.49	.611	.00
	Years of experience	4	175	3.01	.020	.06
	Proficiency levels	2	177	6.50	.002	.06

Gender (male-female). Independent samples t-test was implemented for the female and male participants as the *other* option had only one response from the non-native sample. The assumption for homogeneity of variances were met for the natives (F = 0.27, p = .609) and the non-natives (F = 3.46, p = .064) (see Table 22). Two independent t-tests were run together for the native and non-native sample. Therefore, a Bonferroni correction was made and the new p value was .025 (.05 / 2 = .025). The independent t-tests in Table 23 showed no significant mean differences between the female and male participants in neither native (t (49) = 1.74, p = .087)

nor non-native (t (177) = -0.71, p = .478) samples in terms of the TSES scores. The female participants in both native (n = 21, M = 6.64, SD = 0.99) and non-native (n = 130, M = 7.05, SD = 0.93) groups had higher TSES scores than native (n = 30, M = 7.08, SD = 0.83) and non-native (n = 49, M = 6.93, SD = 1.22) male participants. The 95% confidence interval of group differences ranged from -0.07 to -0.96 for the native sample and from -0.46 to 0.22 for the non-native sample.

Table 22

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in Gender

Construct	Native Speaker	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	0.27	.609
	No	3.46	.064

Table 23

Independent t-test Results for the Male and Female (TSES)

Construct	Native Speaker	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
TSES	Yes	1.74	49	.087	[-0.07, 0.96]
	No	-0.71	177	.478	[-0.46, 0.22]

Note. CI = confidence interval.

Age. As the data were normal (Appendix F), a one-way ANOVA was conducted to measure the TSES mean score differences for this variable. The Levene's test in Table 24 confirmed the homogeneity of variances within the native (F = 0.08, p = .973) and non-native sample (F = 0.83, p = .477). The ANOVA results revealed no significant mean differences between different age groups in neither native (F (3, 49) = 0.27, p = .845) nor non-native (F (3, 176) = 2.06, p = .107) participants (see Table 21).

Table 24

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Age

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	3	49	0.08	.973
	No	3	176	0.83	.477

Major. The data were normal (see Appendix F) for this variable; therefore, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for the natives, and an independent t-test was conducted for the non-natives. The non-natives were grouped under two levels as ELT and English-language graduates because the responses for the *other* option (n = 3) were discarded as outliers. The homogeneity of variances was met for the natives (F (2, 50) = 0.64, p = .531), and for the non-natives (F = 0.79, p = .375) (see Table 25). The ANOVA test (see Table 21) showed no significant results in the mean differences among the major degrees for the native sample (F (2, 50) = 0.73, p = .487).

Table 25

Levene's Tests for Equality of Error Variances in Major Degrees

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	2	50	0.64	.531
	No	-	-	0.79	.375

For the non-native sample, the t-test results in Table 26 (t (175) = 2.24, p = .026, d = 0.35) indicated a significant mean difference between the graduates of ELT and the graduates of other English language departments of literature, translation, and linguistics. The ELT graduates (M = 7.12, SD = 1.01) had significantly higher

TSES scores than the graduates of other English language departments (M = 6.76, SD = 1.00). The effect size for the non-native sample was calculated as 0.35, which showed that 35% of the variance in the non-native participants' TSES scores could be accounted for by the major degrees. The 95% confidence interval of group differences ranged from 0.04 to 0.68.

Table 26

Independent t-test Results for TSES and Major (Non-Native)

Construct	Major	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
TSES	ELT (*n* = 119)	7.12	1.01	2.24	175	.026	[0.04, 0.68]
	EL (*n* = 58)	6.76	1.00				

Note. EL = English language departments other than ELT; CI = confidence interval.

Last completed degree. A one-way ANOVA was used for the analysis as the data were normal (see Appendix F), and the levels were grouped into three as B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees. The Levene's test showed the variances were homogeneous in both the natives (F = 1.46, p = .242) and the non-natives (F = 0.49, p = .611) (see Table 27). However, the analysis revealed no significant mean differences among the groups in neither the native (F (2, 50) = 0.16, p = .850) nor the non-native sample (F (2, 177) = 2.12, p = .123) (see Table 21).

Table 27

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Last Completed Degree

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	2	50	1.46	.242
	No	2	177	0.49	.611

Years of experience. Ensuring the normality of the data (see Appendix F), a one-way ANOVA was conducted for the five levels of this category. First, the Levene's test confirmed equality of variances in the native (F = 0.60, p = .663) and non-native samples (F = 0.59, p = .672) (see Table 28). The ANOVA test revealed no significant mean differences among various levels of experience for the native participants (F (4, 48) = 1.25, p = .217) but a significant difference was observed within the non-native sample (F (4, 175) = 3.04, p = .020) (see Table 21). Therefore, multiple comparisons were made. The post hoc tests (see Appendix L) showed teachers with 6-10 years of experience (M = 6.74, SD = 1.12) had significantly lower mean scores on TSES than those who had over 21 years of experience (M = 7.39, SD = 0.89). The rest of the groups had no significant difference. Also, 6% of the variance in the mean scores could be accounted for by the groups of different years of experience.

Table 28

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Years of Experience

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	2	50	0.60	.663
	No	2	177	0.59	.672

Proficiency levels taught. As it was a multiple-response question in the survey, the proficiency levels taught for the last three semesters were grouped under three levels: Lower (i.e., from elementary to intermediate), higher (i.e., from intermediate to advanced), and all (i.e., from elementary to advanced). The Levene's test confirmed equality of variances in native (F = 2.02, p = .144) and non-native sample (F = 0.91, p = .373) (see Table 29). The one-way ANOVA analysis showed

no significant mean differences between various levels of proficiency among the natives (F (2, 50) = 0.60, p = .553). But the non-native (F (2, 177) = 6.50, p = .002) participants showed significant mean difference in the TSES (see Table 21). The post hoc tests (see Appendix M) revealed that the group of teachers who taught at lower levels (M = 6.82, SD = 1.07) had a significantly lower mean score than those who taught at higher levels (M = 7.42, SD = 0.80), and the ones teaching at all levels (M = 7.33, SD = 0.90). The groups of the proficiency levels taught could account for 6% of the variance in mean scores of the non-native participants.

Table 29

Levene's Test for Equality of Error Variances in Proficiency Levels Taught

Construct	Native Speaker	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	*p*
TSES	Yes	2	50	2.02	.144
	No	2	177	1.03	.358

Qualifications. As another multiple-response question, the levels of this variable were reduced to *yes* and *no*. What is more, native and non-native comparison could not be made as there was only one native participant who reported *no* for this variable. An independent samples t-test was conducted for the whole sample. The Levene's test (F = 0.42, p = .517) confirmed the homogeneity of variances (see Table 30). According to the t-test results shown in Table 31 (t (231) = -1.71, p = .088), no significant mean difference was observed between the participants who had other qualifications (M = 6.91, SD = 1.06) and those who did not (M = 7.14, SD = 0.91).

Table 30

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in Qualifications

Construct	*F*	*p*
TSES	0.42	.517

Table 31

Independent Samples t-test Results for Qualifications and TSES

Construct	Qualifications	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
TSES	Y (n = 132)	6.91	1.06	-1.71	231	.088	[-0.03, 0.49]
	N (n = 101)	7.14	0.91				

Note. Y = yes; N = no; CI = confidence interval.

Conclusion

The current study investigated the native and non-native EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs. This chapter explained the findings obtained through various descriptive and inferential analyses for each research question. In the following chapter, these findings will be discussed in relation to the literature. Finally, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research will be provided.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The chapter starts with an overview of the current study followed by a discussion on the main findings. Then, some implications for practice and further research are given along with the limitations of the study.

Overview of the Study

The present quantitative study aimed to investigate the foreign language (FL) teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers at tertiary level institutions in Turkey. Analyses were done to answer the research questions below:

1. What is the extent of the tertiary level EFL teachers'
    a. FL teaching anxiety
    b. teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EFL teachers' FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference between native and non-native speaker teachers in terms of their FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions?
4. Does FL teaching anxiety among the participants significantly differ by:
    a. gender
    b. age
    c. major
    d. last completed degree
    e. years of experience

f. proficiency levels taught

g. qualifications?

5. Does perceived teacher self-efficacy among the participants significantly differ by:

    a. gender

    b. age

    c. major

    d. last completed degree

    e. years of experience

    f. proficiency levels taught

    g. qualifications?

The data were collected via an online questionnaire completed by 180 non-native and 53 native EFL instructors at the SFLs of 30 universities in Turkey. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part included items on FL teaching anxiety and the second part was about teacher self-efficacy. The third part included demographic, educational, and work-related items. Except for the items in part three, all the other items in the main questionnaire (see Appendix B) were adapted from İpek's (2006) Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS) and from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The data were analyzed with the use of descriptive statistics, Pearson Correlation test, independent t-test, and one-way ANOVA.

Discussion of Major Findings

With the guidance of the results obtained from the descriptive and inferential statistics, the findings related to the perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers on FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy will be discussed in this

section. In parallel with the literature, some relationships, similarities and differences between the findings of the present study and the previous ones could be identified. In this section, the discussions will follow the same order as the research questions. However, the findings related to the fourth and fifth research questions will be discussed together.

The Extent of the EFL Teachers' FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions

The results of the descriptive analyses showed that the participants had lower levels of perceived FL teaching anxiety and higher levels of teacher self-efficacy. These findings can be traced to the years of experience of the participants. In the present study, 92% of the participants had more than five years of experience. Therefore, these results were expected because, as indicated in the literature, anxiety levels might decrease while teacher efficacy might increase with experience and enactive mastery experiences (Bandura, 1988; Dişli, 2020; Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Öztürk, 2016; Senler, 2016).

In general, the participants rarely experienced FL teaching anxiety, and more than half of the participants did not feel anxious at all about their target language performance, which was expected as the sample included native teachers, as well. Interestingly, teaching students with a high proficiency level was the highest scoring item in this subscale, which may mean that even though the participants were very confident in their language performance, teaching students with a high level of proficiency still caused some level of discomfort. This finding contradicts Kongchan and Singashiri's (2008) study, in which the participants reported that teaching low level students made them anxious. The cause of this result might be related to the possibility of being scrutinized or criticized by high level students.

Another important finding in the FLTAS was that the use of native language (L1) had the highest mean score of all the subscales. Both native and non-native participants had higher levels of anxiety related to using students' L1 in class. For the participants, this finding might be related to the times they felt the need to resort to L1 due to the difficulty in adjusting the level of the L2 they use, communication breakdowns when students fail to understand the instruction and/or the task, challenges of teaching grammar topics, and so forth. To illustrate, in Liaw's (2004) study, native teachers reported having problems with adjusting their level to the students' proficiency. Therefore, the same problem could be experienced by not only the non-native teachers but also the native participants of this study, as well.

Another possible reason behind this finding could be feeling obliged to conduct English-only classes as a personal teaching goal or an institutional policy. Teachers' affective states and outcome expectancies may influence their approach to L1 use. They might feel that using L1 in a foreign language teaching practice can be perceived as low confidence, or inadequacy, in the target language. As a matter of fact, the use of L1 has been a controversial subject in FL teaching, and there are conflicting ideas on it. Some scholars (e.g., Ellis, 1984; Krashen, 1982) support that English should be the sole medium of instruction in an EFL class so that students can be exposed to L2 more. However, other researchers (e.g., Cook, 2001; Reyes, 2004) disagree with this notion for various reasons including that using students' L1 is a natural outcome of a monolingual classroom context. They also suggest that using L1 in certain situations may serve as a means of scaffolding, and it may help lower students' affective filter (Balabakgil & Mede, 2016; Cook, 2001).

Furthermore, feeling anxious of being compared to other teachers was the second highest mean score after the use of L1. In Kim and Kim's (2004) study,

participants' uneasiness about their L2 knowledge was associated with the anxiety of being compared to others. A similar explanation might partly justify this particular finding, as well. In general, the descriptive FLTAS findings for this research question are partly in line with previous findings which indicated moderate levels of overall FL teaching anxiety among the participants (Dişli, 2020; Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Öztürk, 2016).

The second part of the questionnaire measured teacher self-efficacy perceptions. Descriptive statistics for the TSES showed that the lowest scoring subscale was student engagement while the highest score belonged to instructional strategies. This finding indicated that the participants were highly confident in managing the classroom and providing alternative instructional methods to address to their learners' varying needs. However, they still had doubts about enhancing student motivation, reaching difficult students, and getting them to show more interest in language learning. Efficacy in student engagement had the lowest score of the three subscales in previous studies as well (Chacon, 2005; Yavuz, 2007). Yavuz (2007) suggests that one of the reasons for this might be limited teacher autonomy stemming from the tight schedules, along with standardization and testing-oriented teaching practice. It can also be observed that teaching students with low motivation and engaging them in learning is still a common issue in language teaching, even among high-efficacy teachers. In parallel with this finding, Demir (2017) and Mousavi (2007) also found that teaching students with low motivation was perceived as a challenge and a stress provoking factor for both native and non-native teachers. The overall results were further investigated with the subgroups for the following research questions.

The Relationship between FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions of EFL Teachers

The literature suggests that anxiety and self-efficacy perceptions are negatively correlated (Bandura, 1997; Senler, 2016). In parallel with this hypothesis, the results of the present study showed that FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy had a weak to moderate level of significant negative correlation. Güngör and Yaylı (2012) also found a similar level of correlation between the two constructs. This weak to moderate negative correlation might be related to the facilitative aspect of anxiety.

For the subscales, anxiety in teaching a particular skill and in target language performance showed significant negative correlations with all of the TSES subscales. The strongest relationship was between anxiety in teaching a particular skill and efficacy in instructional strategies. This finding indicates that when teachers teach a particular skill (e.g., reading, listening, speaking, grammar, and so on) in which they are not confident enough, or when they have doubts about their target language performance, their perceived instructional efficacy decreases.

Another finding worth mentioning here is that anxiety in using the native language subscale in the FLTAS had no significant relationships with any of the TSES subscales. In other words, teacher self-efficacy and use of L1 were not directly related to each other. Teachers might sometimes feel uneasy about using students' L1 in classroom; however, their perceived teacher self-efficacy did not change in relation to it. Interestingly, the only positive correlation between the two scales was observed between anxiety in using the native language and efficacy in student engagement. Their nonsignificant but positive relationship was striking as it might reflect the controversy on the use of L1 in classroom.

FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions among the Native and Non-Native Participants

Previous studies on native and non-native teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Liaw, 2004; Mills & Allen, 2007; Praver, 2014) indicated significantly higher teacher self-efficacy beliefs were perceived by the native speaker teachers. Mills and Allen (2007) associated these results with the difference in the content knowledge of native and non-native participants. However, the results of the present study contradicted the previous findings. The findings showed no significant mean difference in the level of perceived teacher self-efficacy between native and non-native teachers, which indicated that being a native speaker did not make any difference at this point. Both groups had similar beliefs of teacher self-efficacy.

On the other hand, the FLTAS scores were significantly higher among the non-native teachers. Further analyses revealed that they had higher scores in the subscales of target language performance, making mistakes, and using students' L1. This difference in target language performance scores were expected as native teachers are L1 users of English. Although both groups had low anxiety on this variable, the significant difference is striking. It indicates that even if non-native teachers have high self-efficacy and low anxiety, they might still feel uneasy about their language performance, which corroborates Horwitz's (1996) claim that non-native EFL teachers are still learners of English. Additionally, although both groups had the highest score on using students' L1, the non-native teachers had significantly higher scores, which can also be related to native teachers' being L1 users of English and having limited knowledge of students' L1.

FL Teaching Anxiety and Teacher Self-Efficacy Perceptions among the Subgroups of the Native and Non-Native Participants

Gender. The results indicated various similarities and differences among the subgroups of native and non-native participants. To begin with, significant differences were observed between female and male participants both in the FLTAS and TSES scores. Interestingly, both native and non-native female participants had significantly higher scores on the FLTAS and TSES than the males.

The expected result was that if individuals had higher levels of anxiety, they would have a lower sense of teacher self-efficacy. However, the present study revealed a different result. Studies investigating gender as a variable also provided different results in the literature. Therefore, the current study's findings on the FLTAS contradict some of the previous studies that found no significant result in terms of gender (Dişli, 2020; Kim & Kim, 2004; Öztürk, 2016). The reason behind this particular finding could be that the level of anxiety among the female participants in both native and non-native groups might serve as a facilitating anxiety rather than a debilitative one, which is worth future investigation.

The gender-related results on the TSES are also in contrast with the previous studies indicating that male and female teachers do not significantly differ in self-efficacy beliefs (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Murshidi et al., 2006). However, the results concur with Yavuz's (2007) findings related to gender. She suggests that this finding may be related to the stereotypical and traditional views on occupational efficacy, namely the belief that teaching is a feminine task, and that female teachers dominate this field.

Age. Furthermore, age made no significant difference in either group in terms of the TSES scores, which was contrary to some previous studies (Campbell, 1996;

Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011; Özkara, 2019). Nonetheless, it did make a difference in anxiety among the non-natives. The age group of 25-34 had significantly higher levels of anxiety than the older age groups in non-native participants while no difference was observed among the natives. This finding might be explained with the possible link between age and experience. As teachers get older, they also become more experienced; therefore, their sources of teacher self-efficacy may equip them with the coping skills that help eliminate or control their debilitative anxiety.

Major. Another categorical variable was major degrees, which showed nonsignificant results among the natives but significant results among the non-native sample. The non-native ELT graduates had significantly higher scores than the graduates of other English language departments both in the FLTAS and the TSES. This interesting combination of results is similar to the significant differences based on gender. Contradicting with some previous studies (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010; Solar Şekerci, 2011), this finding related to teacher self-efficacy might be explained with the possible differences of pedagogy knowledge between the graduates of ELT and other departments.

The significantly higher anxiety scores of the ELT graduates, on the other hand, contradict Dişli's (2020) finding that graduates of literature departments had significantly higher anxiety. This finding also contradicts the previous studies (Canessa, 2006; Kim & Kim, 2004) that did not find a difference related to major degrees. In the present study, this difference might be explained with the facilitative aspect of anxiety when the significantly higher level of self-efficacy among the ELT graduates is also considered.

Degree and qualifications. In Hoy and Woolfolk's (1993) study on teacher efficacy, educational level predicted personal teaching efficacy as teachers with

graduate degrees tended to have significantly higher efficacy. However, in the current study, last completed degree showed no significant difference in either group in terms of the FLTAS and TSES scores. This means that teachers with an M.A. or Ph.D. degree did not differ from those with B.A. degrees in terms of their anxiety and self-efficacy perceptions. This finding concurred with Tseng (2005) and Öztürk's (2016) findings in terms of anxiety scores.

On the other hand, Chacon's (2005) study revealed a positive correlation between professional development (PD) trainings and self-efficacy, which means efficacy scores increase along with PD activities. However, in this study, no significant difference was found between those who hold other qualifications including CELTA, DELTA, and so on, and those who do not in terms of efficacy and anxiety.

Years of experience. Years of experience created no significant difference among the native participants in the FLTAS and TSES scores. However, for the non-natives, experience did matter in both scales. Those who had 6-10 years of experience had significantly higher anxiety and lower self-efficacy scores than those with 21 and more years of experience. These findings supported the findings in previous studies indicating a positive correlation between teacher self-efficacy and experience (Campbell, 1996; Daugherty, 2005; Solar Şekerci, 2011). Moreover, this finding can also be justified with the claim that mastery experiences are enhanced and a stable sense of self-efficacy is established through years of experience (Bandura, 1997). However, the nonsignificant finding about the native speakers was striking. They did not show any significant difference between the novice and experienced groups of teachers, which was contrary to various studies in the literature (e.g., Daugherty, 2005; Liaw, 2004; Praver, 2014; Solar Şekerci, 2011).

Another striking part here was that the expected significant difference did not occur between the novice non-native teachers and the experienced teachers, as well, in anxiety and efficacy scores. This particular finding might be explained with Dembo and Gibson' (1985) claim that increase in experience lead to fluctuations in teacher efficacy. They explained that in Gibson and Brown's (1982) study, beginning teachers' self-efficacy was significantly higher than pre-service teachers. However, as they gained more experience in the practice, these scores decreased. Therefore, with experience, teachers become more confident in their teaching skills, yet they may also become less convinced that good teaching practice facilitate student learning (Dembo & Gibson, 1985). In terms of the FL teaching anxiety scores, this finding is partly in line with previous studies that found that experienced teachers' anxiety levels were significantly lower (Canessa, 2006; Kesen & Aydın, 2014). Also, the findings concur with Öztürk's (2016) results because in his study, the significant difference in terms of experience did not include the novice teachers. Instead, the significant results were between the experience groups of four to nine years and over 16 years.

Proficiency levels taught. Furthermore, the proficiency levels taught indicated no significant difference in the FLTAS scores of both native and non-native groups, which may mean that teaching lower levels or higher levels did not make a significant difference in the participants' level of anxiety. While the native teachers also showed no significant difference in the TSES, the non-native teachers who taught lower levels had significantly lower teacher self-efficacy than those who taught higher levels or both lower and higher levels. This finding might be related to the possible frustration the non-native teachers had due to the difficulty of motivating lower level students especially if they fail and repeat the same level. Another reason

might be the discomfort of using L2 with lower levels when they do not understand the teacher (Kongchan & Singhasiri, 2008).

Implications for Practice

As the findings related to the TSES scale indicated, non-native teachers who repeatedly taught at lower proficiency levels had significantly lower teacher self-efficacy scores than those who taught at higher levels or both lower and higher levels. As the demographic data of the present study showed (see Tables 1 and 2), the native teachers mostly taught higher levels while non-native teachers mostly taught at lower levels. When this trend in the levels taught is also considered, rotation among EFL teachers in various proficiency levels could be emphasized more during program preparation and level assignments. In this way, teachers may enhance their mastery experiences, and refresh their instructional strategies along with content knowledge.

In this study, attending or not attending professional trainings, such as CELTA and DELTA, made no significant difference in efficacy and anxiety scores of the participants. However, in Chacon's (2005) study, professional development experience positively correlated with instructional strategies and student engagement. Similarly, Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2015) found that an in-service training program improved teachers' practice and self-efficacy. These findings are of particular importance when the participants of the present study had relatively lower levels of efficacy in student engagement than classroom management and instructional strategies. Reaching out to difficult or unmotivated students can pose challenges to teachers even though they have a high sense of overall efficacy. Therefore, workshops and training sessions can be useful for teachers to share experiences, exchange ideas, and get practical tips on how to engage students in

language learning more effectively. Peer observations and team teaching might also serve as sources of efficacy by providing vicarious and enactive mastery experiences related to student engagement. As suggested by Liaw (2004), team teaching, especially, can be a source of collaboration between native and non-native teachers. In this study, Liaw's (2004) suggestion can be useful for novice and experienced teachers, as well. In this way, distinctive strengths of the two groups might be combined, and both groups can utilize each other's skills in student engagement.

The findings also showed that the participants had lower levels of FL teaching anxiety. However, both native and non-native participants had moderate levels of anxiety in using students' L1 in the classroom. Although the underlying reasons for anxiety in L1 use might differ among native and non-native groups, it would be beneficial for both groups to consider the functions and practical benefits of using L1 in class as a way to encourage student engagement. In a study with native and non-native EFL teachers on their L1 use in class, Balabakgil and Mede (2016) found that both groups were in favor of using L1 as a teaching strategy such as checking understanding, focusing students' attention, consolidation, and clarification. Similarly, reconsidering the English-only teaching practices and focusing on such practical uses of L1 might help the participants of the present study to reduce their anxiety.

Implications for Further Research

Studies on anxiety tend to focus on the debilitative aspect of it. However, facilitating anxiety and its effects could be the focus of further studies with native and non-native EFL teachers. Moreover, this study may be replicated in different settings and with a bigger sample size. With purposive sampling, a balanced sample with similar numbers of novice native and non-native teachers could be compared to

each other. Another point is this study focused on the universities in metropolitan areas of Turkey. Instead, teachers in the other regions could be the focus of a similar study.

Also, further correlational research can be done with native and non-native teachers of languages other than English. What is more, there are a number of non-native EFL teachers who also teach their native language to foreigners. Comparing their perceived teacher efficacy and anxiety levels both as a non-native and a native teacher can be a useful contribution to the field. As FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs are likely to be situation specific, thus, unlikely to be generalized through various settings (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), comparing the EFL teachers' anxiety and self-efficacy perceptions in primary, secondary and tertiary settings may also be useful.

Moreover, qualitative inquiries, such as case studies or phenomenological research, and longitudinal studies investigating the factors that cause anxiety in native and non-native EFL teachers and their coping strategies may contribute to the field. Native and non-native EFL teachers' attitudes towards the use of students' L1 might also be studied more. Finally, considering Bandura's (1997) statement that self-efficacy beliefs are mostly shaped in early learning and that it is difficult to change them later on, longitudinal studies with novice teachers to observe the changes during the course of their career may also provide useful insights into the phenomenon.

Limitations

The present study has several limitations in investigating the FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs of EFL teachers in higher education. First, the data collection was implemented through an online self-reporting questionnaire.

Even though questionnaires are extensively used in quantitative designs, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) warn that online questionnaires may yield lower response rates than the traditional ones. Supporting the online data collection by delivering the survey in paper-based form could have brought more responses. The length of the questionnaire may also have caused the participants to leave the study without completion. What is more, the results may not be generalized to the population due to the sample size of the study.

Additionally, investigating psychological constructs with self-reporting instruments may not always provide an in-depth understanding about the issue. With self-reporting instruments, reliance on participants is essential, and their momentary emotional states might affect their responses.

Also, despite their certain advantages, quantitative designs tend to reduce the responses to average numbers by ignoring subjective varieties and underlying reasons for certain responses, which limits the exploratory capacity of these designs (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For these reasons, this study could have been supported with classroom observations or semi-structured interviews both with the participants and with their students to ensure triangulation of the data.

Another limitation is that there were no native EFL teachers during the initial feedback session about the questionnaire items before piloting. The presence of native teachers in the first discussions could have been more useful in adapting the questionnaire. Finally, the data collection period could have been kept shorter; however, it had to be prolonged to increase the response rate. The semester break, along with the Christmas break for the native teachers, might have influenced the participants' affective states.

Conclusion

The present quantitative design descriptive study investigated the FL teaching anxiety and teacher self-efficacy perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers at tertiary level institutions in Turkey. The constructs were examined in relation to the demographic variables including gender, age, major, last completed degree, experience, proficiency levels taught, and qualifications. The study also focused on finding possible similarities and differences between the native and non-native teachers in terms of these variables. The sample included 180 non-native and 53 native EFL teachers.

In summary, the findings indicated that both groups had low FL teaching anxiety and high teacher self-efficacy. The highest level of anxiety among both groups was due to the use of students' L1. Teacher self-efficacy of the two groups were similar but there were significant differences in anxiety scores. The non-native teachers had significantly higher FL teaching anxiety than the natives in terms of target language performance, making mistakes, and using L1. Scores in teaching a particular skill and being compared to other teachers were similar for both groups. These results support the hypothesis that FL teaching anxiety is a phenomenon that is observed more among non-native teachers, despite some similarities between the two groups.

On the other hand, the native teachers' efficacy and anxiety did not significantly change depending on the demographic variables except for gender. The female teachers of both groups had significantly higher levels of anxiety and teacher self-efficacy. On the other hand, age, major, and experience made a significant difference in the anxiety scores of non-native teachers. Also, the non-native participants' teacher self-efficacy perceptions significantly changed with major,

experience, and students' proficiency levels. The non-native graduates of ELT departments had significantly higher anxiety and teacher self-efficacy than the graduates of other English language departments. One last finding was that completing M.A. and Ph.D. degrees, and having certificates such as CELTA, DELTA, and so forth indicated no significant difference in anxiety and teacher self-efficacy beliefs of either group.

REFERENCES

Agustiana, V. (2014). Pre-service teachers' anxiety during teaching practicum. *English Review: Journal of English Education*, *2*(2), 174-182.

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal, 78,* 155-168. doi:10.2307/329005

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.

Alpert, R., & Haber, R. N. (1960). Anxiety in academic achievement situations. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *61*(2), 207-215. doi:10.1037/j0045464

Anderson, R., Greene, M., & Loewen, P. (1988). Relationships among teachers' and students' thinking skills, sense of efficacy, and student achievement. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 34,* 148-165.

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-LAUSD). Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Ashton, P. T., Olejnik, S., Crocker, L., & McAuliffe, M. (1982, April). *Measurement problems in the study of teachers' sense of efficacy*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York.

Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement.* New York, NY: Longman.

Awan, R. N., Azher, M., Anwar, M. N., & Naz, A. (2010). An investigation of foreign language classroom anxiety and its relationship with students′ achievement. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 7(11), 33-40. doi:10.19030/tlc.v7i11.249

Aydın, S. (2016). A qualitative research on foreign language teaching anxiety. *The Qualitative Report, 21*(4), 629-642.

Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 67-102). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Balabakgil, B., & Mede, E. (2016). The use of L1 as a teaching strategy by native and non-native EFL instructors at a language preparatory program in Turkey. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies (ALLS), 7*(6), 15-35. doi:10.7575/aiac.alls.v.7n.6p.15

Bandura, A. (1988). Self-efficacy conception of anxiety. *Anxiety Research: An International Journal*, *1*(2), 77-98.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148. doi:10.1207/s15326985ep2802_3

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child Development, 67*, 1206-1222. doi:10.2307/1131888

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Bandura, A. (2006). Toward a psychology of human agency. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *1*(2), 164-180. doi:10.1111/j.1745-6916.2006.00011.x

Buitink, J., & Kemme, S. (1986). Changes in student teacher thinking. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *9*(1), 75–84. doi:10.1080/0261976860090109

Campbell, J. (1996). A comparison of teacher efficacy for pre and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. *Education*, *117*(1), 2-11.

Canessa, L. (2006). Foreign language anxiety: A closer look at nonnative foreign language teachers. In D. Schwarzer, M. Bloom, & S. Shono (Eds.). *Research as tool for empowerment: Theory informing practice* (pp. 3-29). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publications.

Chacon, T. C. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among EFL teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*(3), 257-272. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2005.01.001

Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 25*(1), 153-161. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1975.tb00115.x

Cheng, Y. S. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals, 35*(6), 647-656. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2002.tb01903.x

Choi, E., & Lee, J. (2018). EFL teachers' self-efficacy and teaching practices. *ELT Journal*, (*72*)2, 175-186. doi:10.1093/elt/ccx046

Coelho, P. (2013). *Manuscript found in Accra.* New York, NY: Alfred. A. Knopf.

Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *Journal of Experimental Education, 60*(4), 323-337. doi:10.1080/00220973.1992.9943869

Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*, 402-427.

Çapa, Y. (2005). *Factors influencing first-year teachers' sense of efficacy* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Ohio State University.

Çapa, Y., Çakıroğlu, J., & Sarıkaya, H. (2005). The development and validation of a Turkish version of teachers' sense of efficacy scale. *Eğitim ve Bilim (Education and Science)*, *30*(137), 74-81.

Daugherty, S. G. (2005). *Teacher efficacy and its relation to teachers' behaviors in the classroom* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Houston.

Dembo, M. H., & Gibson, S. (1985). Teachers' sense of efficacy: An important factor in school improvement. *The Elementary School Journal*, *86*(2), 173-184. doi:10.1086/461441

Demir, Y. (2017). What, how and why? A multi-dimensional case analysis of the challenges facing native and non-native EFL teachers. *PASAA*, *54*, 141-176.

Denzine, G. M., Cooney, J. B., & McKenzie, R. (2005). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Teacher Efficacy Scale for prospective teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *75*, 689-708. doi:10.1348/000709905X37253

Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *4*, 237-274. doi:10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.5

Dişli, A. (2020). *A mixed approach towards EFL teachers' teaching anxiety* (Unpublished master's thesis). Çağ University, Mersin.

Dolgun, H., & Caner, M. (2018). Self-efficacy belief profiles of pre-service and in-service EFL teachers. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 48, 602-623.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow, England: Longman.

Elkhafaifi, H. (2005). Listening comprehension and anxiety in Arabic language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *89*(2), 206-220. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00275.x

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Enochs, L. G., & Riggs, I. M. (1990). Further development of an elementary science teaching efficacy belief instrument: A pre-service elementary scale. *School Science and Mathematics*, *90*(8), 695-706.

Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of non-native EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ*, *11*(4), 1-19.

Fish, T. A., & Fraser, I. H. (2001). Exposing the iceberg of teaching anxiety: A survey of faculty at the three New Brunswick Universities. *Electronic Journal of the American Association of Behavioral and Social Sciences*, *4*. Retrieved from https://sites.google.com/a/aabss.net/american-association-of-behavioral-and-social-sciences---index/home/perspectives-2001/exposing-the-iceberg-of-teaching-anxiety-a-survey-of-faculty-at-three-new-brunswick-universities

Fisher, D. L, & Fraser, P. J. (1990, April). *Validity and use of the school-level environment questionnaire.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2011). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Friedman, I. A. (2000). Burnout in teachers: Shattered dreams of impeccable professional performance. *Psychotherapy in Practice*, *26*(5), 595-606.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning*, *43*(2), 157-194. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb00714.x

Ghaith, G., & Yaghi, H. (1997). Relationships among experience, teacher efficacy, and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *13*(4), 451-458.

Ghanizadeh, A., & Moafian, F. (2011). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their pedagogical success in language institutes. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(2), 249-272.

Ghasemboland, F., & Hashim, F. B. (2013). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their English language proficiency: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in selected language centers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *103*, 890-899. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.411

Gibson, S., & Brown, R. (1982, November). *Teachers' sense of efficacy: Changes due to experience*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of California Educational Research Association, Sacramento.

Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *76*, 569-582. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.76.4.569

Guskey, T. R. (1981). Measurement of responsibility teachers assume for academic successes and failures in the classroom. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *32*, 44-51. doi:10.1177/002248718103200310

Güngör, Y., & Yaylı, D. (2012). Self-efficacy and anxiety perceptions of pre-service EFL teachers. In A. Akbarov & V. Cook (Eds.), *Approaches and methods in second and foreign language teaching* (pp. 227-236). Sarajevo: IBU Publications.

Gür, G. (2008). *A study on the predictors of teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs* (Unpublished master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Han, T., & Takkaç-Tulgar, A. (2019). An analysis of pre-service teachers' teaching anxiety and coping strategies: A Turkish elementary school context. *GIST - Education and Learning Research Journal*, *19*, 49-83. doi:10.26817/16925777.802

Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is enough in internet survey research? *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century*, *6*(3-4), 1-10.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(2), 125-132.

Horwitz, E. K. (1996). Even teachers get the blues: Recognizing and alleviating non-native teachers' feelings of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(3), 365-372.

Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching, 43*(2), 154-167. doi:10.1017/s026144480999036x

Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk, A. E. (1993). Teachers' sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools. *The Elementary School Journal,* 93, 355-372.

İpek, H. (2006). *Foreign language teaching anxiety* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Anadolu University, Eskişehir.

İpek, H. (2016). A qualitative study on foreign language teaching anxiety. *Eğitimde Nitel Araştırmalar Dergisi - Journal of Qualitative Research in Education, 4*(3), 92-105. doi:10.14689/issn.2148-2624.1.4c3s5m

Jackson, S. E., Schwab, R. L., & Schuler, R. S. (1986). Toward an understanding of the burnout phenomenon. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(4), 630-640.

Kearney, G., & S Sinclair, K. E. (1978). Teacher concerns and teacher anxiety: A neglected topic of classroom research. *Review of Educational Research, 48*(2), 273–290. doi:10.3102/00346543048002273

Kesen, A., & Aydın, Z. (2014). Anxiety levels of novice and experienced EFL instructors: İstanbul Aydın University case. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 116*, 880-883.

Kımav, A. U. (2010). *An exploration of burnout and individual and collective teacher efficacy in a Turkish state university* (Unpublished master's thesis). İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, Ankara.

Kim, H. Y. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: Assessing normal distribution (2) using skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative Dentistry and Endodontics*, *38*(1), 52-54.

Kim, S. Y., & Kim, J. (2004). When learner becomes a teacher: Foreign language anxiety as an occupational hazard. *English Teaching*, *59*(1), 165-186.

Kim, S. Y. (2009). Questioning the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety and motivation across different classroom contexts. *Foreign Language Annals*, *42*(1), 138-157.

Klanrit, P., & Sroinam, R. (2012). EFL teachers' anxiety in using English in teaching in the language classroom. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity, 2*(6), 493-496. doi:10.7763/IJSSH.2012.V2.154

Kongchan, C., & Singhasiri, W. (2008). Teachers' anxiety about using L2 in EFL classrooms. *Proceedings of the Annual Korea TESOL International Conference: Responding to a Changing World, Korea*, 145-149.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Labone, E. (1995). *Teacher burnout and teacher efficacy: Trends over time*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Australian Association for Research in Education, Tasmania.

Liaw, E. (2004). "*How are they different?" A comparative study of native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants regarding selected characteristics: Teacher efficacy, approach to language teaching / learning, teaching strategies and perception of nativeship* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Ohio State University, Columbus.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, *39*(2), 251-275.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, *44*(2), 283-305. doi:0.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01103.x

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The non-native teacher*. Hong Kong: Macmillan Publishers.

Merç, A. (2011). Sources of foreign language student teacher anxiety: A qualitative inquiry. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry (TOJQI)*, *2*(4), 80-94.

Merç, A. (2015). Foreign language teaching anxiety and self-efficacy beliefs of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, *6*(3), 40-58.

Mills, N. A., & Allen, H. (2007). Teacher self-efficacy of graduate teaching assistants of French. In H. J. Siskin (Ed.), *From thought to action: Exploring beliefs and outcomes in the foreign language program*. Australia: Thomson Heinle.

Moradkhani, S., Raygan, A., & Moein, M. S. (2017). Iranian EFL teachers' reflective practices and self-efficacy: Exploring possible relationships. *System*, *65*, 1-14. doi:10.1016/j.system.2016.12.011

Mousavi, E. S. (2007). Exploring teachers' stress in non-native and native teachers of EFL. *English Language Education and Development Journal (ELTED)*, *10*, 33-41.

Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. London: Sage Publications.

Murshidi, R., Konting, M. M., Elias, H., & Fooi, F. S. (2006). Sense of efficacy among beginning teachers in Sarawak. *Teacher Education*, *17*, 265-275.

Mutlu, M. (2017). *Foreign language teaching anxiety of teacher candidates: The level, sources and coping strategies* (Unpublished master's thesis). Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, Muğla.

Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(1), 131-153.

Ortaçtepe, D., & Akyel, A. S. (2015). The effects of a professional development program on English as a foreign language teachers' efficacy and classroom practice. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(4), 680-706. doi:10.1002/tesj.185

Özkara, B. (2019). An investigation into the relationship between Turkish EFL teachers' self-efficacy and burnout level. *Journal of Family Counseling and Education*, *4*(1), 12-24. doi:10.32568/jfce.504499

Öztürk, G. (2016). Foreign language teaching anxiety among non-native teachers of English: A sample from Turkey. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, *6*(3), 54-70. doi:10.19126/suje.220180

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(4), 543-578. doi:10.3102/00346543066004543

Pajares, F. (2002). Gender and perceived self-efficacy in self-regulated learning. *Theory into Practice*, *41*(2), 116-125. doi:10.1207/s15430421tip4102_8

Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual. A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

Phan, N. T. T., & Locke, T. (2015). Sources of self-efficacy of Vietnamese EFL teachers: A qualitative study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *52*, 73-82. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2015.09.006

Praver, M. (2014). *Japanese university English language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: A mixed-methods exploration* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Philadelphia.

Ra, J., & Rhee, K. J. (2018). Detection of gender related DIF in the foreign language classroom anxiety scale. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, *18*(1), 47-60. doi:10.12738/estp.2018.1.0606

Reyes, I. (2004). Functions of code-switching in schoolchildren's conversations. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *28*(1), 77-98. doi:10.1080/15235882.2004.10162613

Rose, J. S., & Medway, F. J. (1981). Measurement of teachers' beliefs in their control over student outcome. *Journal of Educational Research*, *74*, 185-190. doi:10.1080/00220671.1981.10885308

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, *80*, 1-28. doi:10.1037/h0092976

Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Garza, T. J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, *83*(2), 202-218. doi:10.1111/0026-7902.00016

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3-4), 207-231.

Schunk, D. H., & Meece, J. L. (2006). Self-efficacy development in adolescence. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 71-96). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning, 28*(1), 129-142. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1978.tb00309.x

Senler, B. (2016). Pre-service science teachers' self-efficacy: The role of attitude, anxiety and locus of control. *Australian Journal of Education*, *60*(1), 26-41. doi:10.1177/0004944116629807

Sevimel, A., & Subasi, G. (2018). The factors affecting teacher efficacy perceptions of Turkish pre-service English language teachers. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, *8*(1), 1-17.

Shang, H. F. (2013). Factors associated with English as foreign language university students' writing anxiety. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, *1*(1), 1-12.

Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relations with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *99*, 611-625. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.99.3.611

Solar Şekerci, A. (2011). *Self-efficacy levels of pre-school instructors and its predictors* (Unpublished master's thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Spada, N., & Frönlich, M. (1995). *Communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme coding conventions and applications*. Macquaire University: NCELTR Publications.

Spielberger, C. D., & Reheiser, E. C. (2009). Assessment of emotions: Anxiety, anger, depression, and curiosity. *Applied Psychology: Health and Wellbeing*, *1*(3), 271-302. doi:10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01017.x

Stein, M. K., & Wang, M. C. (1988). Teacher development and school improvement: The process of teacher change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *4*(2), 171-187. doi:10.1016/0742-051X(88)90016-9

Thompson, G. (2016). *Japanese high school English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching English* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202-248. doi:10.3102/00346543068002202

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing and elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17,* 783-805. doi:10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00036-1

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23,* 944-956. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2006.05.003

Tseng, C. (2005). *Taiwanese English teachers' language anxiety: A comparison study between elementary school and high school teachers* (Unpublished master's thesis). The University of Texas, Austin.

Tüfekçi Can, D. (2018). Foreign language teaching anxiety among pre-service teachers during teaching practicum. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, *5*(3), 579-595.

Türkmen, Ş. (2019). *A taxonomic study of foreign language teaching anxiety among pre-service and in-service teachers of English* (Unpublished master's thesis). Balıkesir University, Balıkesir.

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. doi:10.3102/0034654308321456

Ünver, M. M. (2004). *An exploration of perceived self-determination and self-efficacy of EFL instructors in a Turkish state university* (Unpublished master's thesis). İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, Ankara.

Williams, K. (1991). Anxiety and formal second/foreign language learning. *RELC Journal*, *22*(2), 19-28. doi:10.1177/003368829102200202

Wood, P. G. (2000). *An in-depth inquiry into the language and teaching anxieties experienced by preservice foreign language teachers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of North Carolina, Greensboro.

Woodrow, L. J. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, *37*(3), 308-328. doi:10.1177/0033688206071315

Yavuz, Ş. (2007). Socio-demographic predictors of EFL teacher efficacy. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *3*(2), 304-324.

Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, *75*(4), 426-439.

Zakeri, A., & Alavi, M. (2011). English language teachers' knowledge and their self-efficacy. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *2*(2), 413-419. doi:10.4304/jltr.2.2.413-419

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent Form

Dear Colleague,

My name is Gamze EREN, and I am studying at Bilkent University MA TEFL program. Currently, I am in the process of collecting data for my thesis research that aims to explore your foreign language teaching anxiety and self-efficacy beliefs. Your voluntary participation and responses are extremely important to the outcomes of the study. To this end, you will be asked to take an online survey that includes 62 items. No names will be used. The questions in this survey are simply about your opinions, and there are no right or wrong answers. Participation in this survey will require approximately 20 minutes.
You must be an English language instructor to participate in the study.

The survey consists of three parts:

a. The first part has questions about foreign language teaching anxiety.
b. The second part has questions about teacher self-efficacy beliefs.
c. The third part has questions about your background.

By completing this survey, it is assumed that you agree to participate in this study and give the researcher permission to use your answers for research purposes. Please be informed that you can discontinue your participation at any time. Your participation in this study will not affect your relationship with your institution in any way. The researcher guarantees that all the responses and the information that you provide will be strictly confidential and not shared with others in ways that your individual responses could be identified. Additionally, in all presented and published data resulting from this research, your responses will be aggregated with responses from the other participants to assure protection of your identity.

Thank you for your participation and your valuable contribution to this study. If you have any concerns or questions, please contact me at gamze.eren@bilkent.edu.tr or my supervisor, Dr. Hilal Peker at hilal.peker@bilkent.edu.tr.

Best Regards,
Gamze EREN
MA TEFL Student
Graduate School of Education
Bilkent University, Ankara

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire

Section 1. Adapted version of the FLTAS	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I feel uncomfortable when I use Turkish (or students' native language) in the class.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The thought of making a grammar mistake worries me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel anxious about my students testing my knowledge of English.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The thought of making a spelling mistake on the board disturbs me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I get so nervous when I am teaching English that I forget the things that I know.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel nervous when teaching English to students with an average proficiency level.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel tense when I am giving instructions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel uncomfortable when my English knowledge is compared to that of other teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I think my knowledge of English is not good enough to teach in English.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I worry about not being able to teach grammar effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel uncomfortable when teaching a skill in which I feel I am not proficient enough.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I worry about not being able to teach listening effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I worry about not being able to give clear instructions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel nervous when speaking English in class.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I feel nervous when teaching English to students with a high proficiency level.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I worry about not being able to teach speaking effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel uncomfortable when I think about having used Turkish (or students' native language) during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Teaching English to students with a high level of language proficiency makes me feel uneasy.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I feel uneasy when my English teaching methods are compared to that of other teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I feel uneasy when I am teaching speaking topics.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I am afraid of my students criticizing my knowledge of English.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I worry about not being able to teach reading effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I feel uneasy when I am teaching listening topics.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I worry about not being able to teach writing effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I feel anxious about making a mistake while teaching English.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I feel uneasy thinking that I might have to use Turkish (or students' native language) during the class.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 2. Adapted version of the TSES	None		Very little		Some		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 school work?	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 school work?	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?	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 students 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 form 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 well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Section 3. Demographic and Work-Related Questions

Please choose the appropriate option or fill in the blanks.

A) Personal Details

1. Gender: Male / Female / Other – prefer not to say
2. Major: American Culture and Literature / Comparative Literature / English Language and Literature / ELT / English Linguistics / Translation and Interpreting / Other (please specify) _____
3. Age: 18-24 / 25-34 / 35-44 / 45-54 / 55-64 / 65 years or older
4. Teaching Experience: 0-5 years / 6-10 years / 11-15 years / 16-20 years / 21 years and over
5. Educational Status: B.A. / M.A. in progress / M.A./ Ph.D. in progress / Ph.D.
6. Are you a native English speaker? Yes. / No.
7. Which country are you from? Afghanistan / Albania… (drop-down menu)

B) Work Details

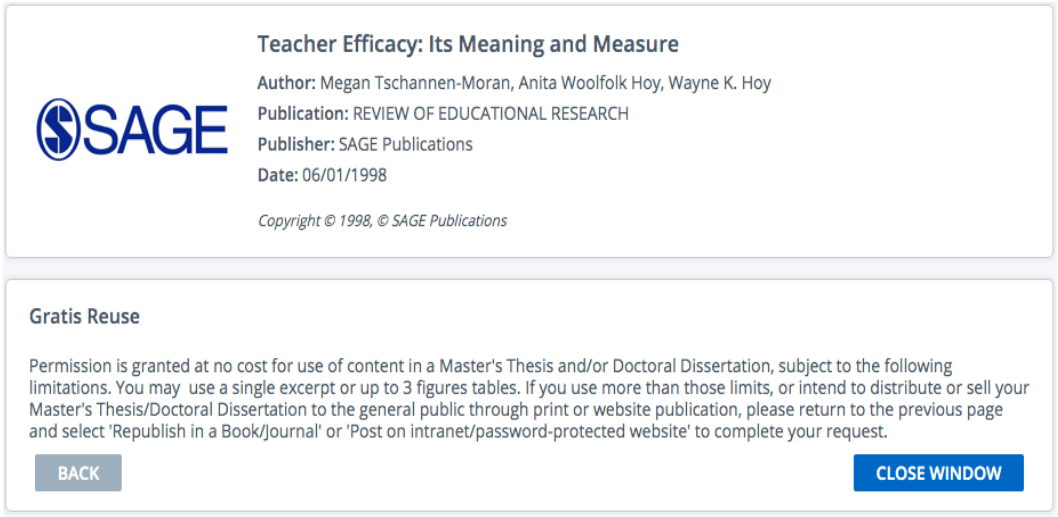
8. At which university do you work? (drop-down menu)
9. Do you have any administrative duties?
   Yes (please specify) / No.
10. Do you have any of the certificates listed?
    No. / CELTA / DELTA / ICELT / Other (please specify)
11. How many hours a week do you teach?
    1-9 / 10-15 / 16-20 / 21-25 / 26-30 / more than 30
12. Which proficiency level(s) have you taught for the last three semesters?
    Beginner / Elementary / Pre-intermediate / Intermediate / Upper-intermediate / Advanced
13. Which teaching system is adopted in your curriculum/institution?
    Skill-based / Integrated / Other (please specify)

The online version of the questionnaire can be found at:

https://psybilkent.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_ctMlLYxqp8VADad

APPENDIX C

Copyright Permission



Teacher Efficacy: Its Meaning and Measure

Author: Megan Tschannen-Moran, Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Wayne K. Hoy
Publication: REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Publisher: SAGE Publications
Date: 06/01/1998

Gratis Reuse

Permission is granted at no cost for use of content in a Master's Thesis and/or Doctoral Dissertation, subject to the following limitations. You may use a single excerpt or up to 3 figures tables. If you use more than those limits, or intend to distribute or sell your Master's Thesis/Doctoral Dissertation to the general public through print or website publication, please return to the previous page and select 'Republish in a Book/Journal' or 'Post on intranet/password-protected website' to complete your request.

BACK CLOSE WINDOW

APPENDIX D

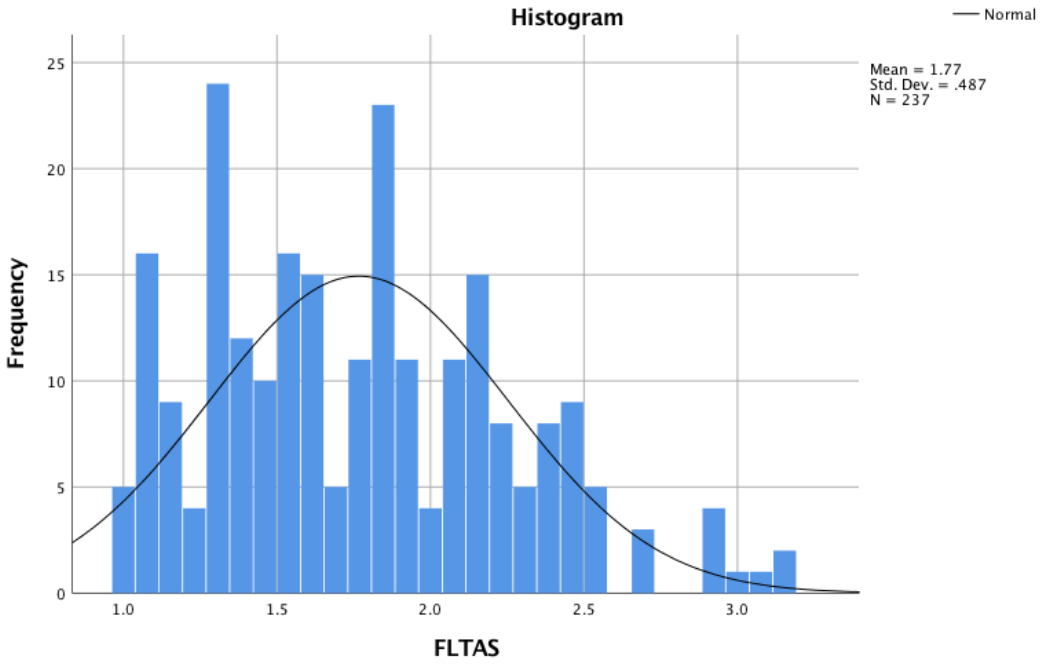
Descriptive Statistics

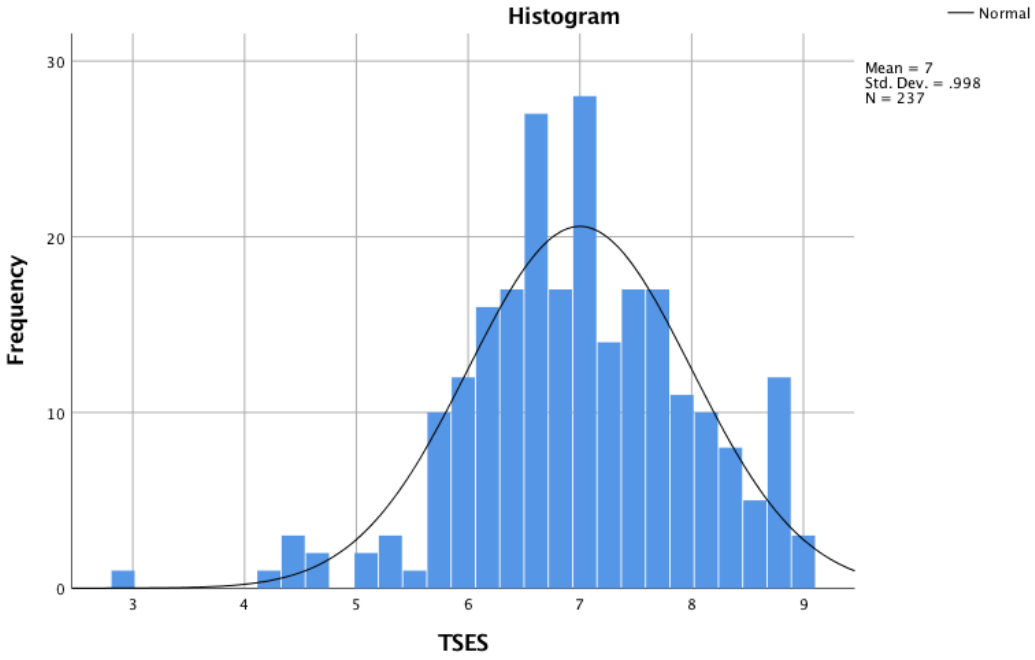
	FLTAS						TSES			
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	ALL	T1	T2	T3	ALL
N Valid	237	237	237	237	237	237	237	237	237	237
N Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	1.72	1.48	1.80	1.84	2.51	1.77	6.63	7.19	7.13	7.00
Std. Error of Mean	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.07
Median	1.71	1.38	1.67	1.50	2.33	1.73	6.71	7.13	7.13	7.00
SD	0.65	0.46	0.63	0.91	0.89	0.49	1.17	0.98	1.17	1.00
Variance	0.42	0.21	0.39	0.83	0.80	0.24	1.38	0.95	1.36	1.00
Skewness	0.85	0.84	0.79	1.15	0.24	0.53	-0.32	-0.35	-0.68	-0.37
S. E. of Skewness	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16
Kurtosis	0.49	-0.08	0.73	0.97	-0.39	-0.21	0.56	0.35	1.17	0.85
S. E. of Kurtosis	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32
Range	3	2	3	4	4	2	7	5	7	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	2	3
Maximum	4	3	4	5	5	3	9	9	9	9
Percentiles										
25	1.14	1.00	1.33	1.00	1.67	1.38	5.86	6.63	6.38	6.41
50	1.71	1.38	1.67	1.50	2.33	1.73	6.71	7.13	7.13	7.00
75	2.14	1.81	2.17	2.50	3.00	2.12	7.43	7.88	8.13	7.70

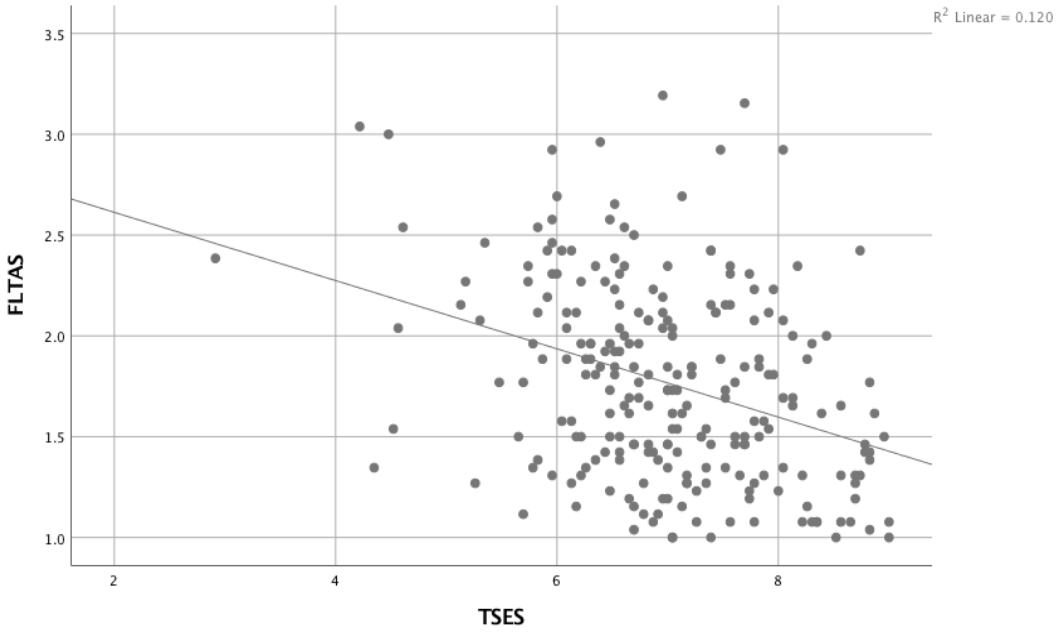
Note. F1= teaching a particular skill; F2 = target language performance; F3 = making mistakes; F4 = being compared to other teachers; F5 = using native language; ALL = FLTAS overall score; T1 = student engagement; T2 = instructional strategies; T3 = classroom management; ALL = TSES overall score.

APPENDIX E

Histograms and Scatter Plots






R² Linear = 0.120
FLTAS
TSES
3.5
3.0
2.5
2.0
1.5
1.0
2
4
6
8

APPENDIX F

Normality Values

	FLTAS (skewness, kurtosis)		TSES (skewness, kurtosis)	
	Native	Non-native	Native	Non-native
Gender				
Male	2.19, 1	1.32, -0.26	1.10, 0.55	-2.92, 2.20
Female	0.37, -0.8	2.20, 0.54	0.31, 1.64	-2.54, -0.36
Other	-, -	-, -	-, -	-, -
Age				
25-34	0.81, -1.33	1.62, -0,21	1.65, 0.91	-2.90, 3.38*
35-44	-0.17, -1.01	1.94, -0.42	1.10, -0.26	1.03, -0.11
45-54	2.02, 1.27	1.41, 0.01	-1.65, 2.59	0.39, -0.72
55+	1.13, -0.81	-0.61, -1.80	-0.06, -0.54	1.06, 0.14
Major				
ELT	1.86, 0.68	2.21, -0.60	-1.79, 1.94	-1.06, -0.60
Lang. & Lit.	0.22, -0.81	0.80, -1.16	2.44, 2.65	-3.68*, -5.33*
Other	1.94, -0.69	-0.88, -	1.32, 0.01	0.65, -
Degree				
B.A.	1.17, -0.87	1.26, -0.12	1.03, 0.47	-2.97, 2.56
M.A.	2.60, 0.65	2.46, 0.26	-0.07, 0.56	0.72, -1.85
Ph.D.	-, -	2.99, 3.16	-, -	-0.79, 0.45

	FLTAS (skewness, kurtosis)		TSES (skewness, kurtosis)	
	Native	Non-native	Native	Non-native
Experience				
0-5	0.20, -0.87	-0.81, -0.99	-0.74, 1.94	0.38, -1.32
6-10	1.38, -0.32	2.16, 0.03	1.58, 0.10	-2.79, 2.66
11-15	1.23, -0.21	1.13, 0.44	1.48, 0.02	-0.66, 0.31
16-20	1.29, 0.32	1.60, -0.07	-0.89, 0.14	-0.91, -0.06
21+	1.40, -0.06	1.77, -0.19	0.50, -1.02	0.45, -1.07
Qualifications				
Yes	2.51, -0.15	2.23, -0.19	0.31, 1.32	-2.47, 1.95
No	-, -	2.11, 1.04	-, -	-0.07, -0.73
Prof. levels taught				
Lower	2.02, 0.21	2.52, -0.31	-2.69, 3.17	-2.43, 2.03
Higher	0.65, -1.34	0.95, -0.37	1.37, -0.48	0.37, -1.17
All	1.59, 0.31	0.98, 0.36	0.54, -0.88	0.46, -0.88

* The starred values exceed the absolute value of 3.29. However, their mean and 5% trimmed mean differences were at an acceptable level. Therefore, they were regarded as normal, as well.

APPENDIX G

Mean Scores of Subgroups

	FLTAS						TSES					
	Native			Non-native			Native			Non-native		
Subgroups	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Gender												
Male	30	1.42	0.36	49	1.65	0.38	30	7.08	0.83	49	6.93	1.22
Female	21	1.95	0.54	130	1.86	0.49	21	6.64	0.99	130	7.05	0.93
Other	2	1.19	0.16	1	1.00	-	2	8.09	0.31	1	9.00	-
Age												
25-34	15	1.75	0.57	70	1.99	0.48	15	6.80	0.95	70	6.81	1.04
35-44	16	1.54	0.31	79	1.69	0.42	16	7.04	0.95	79	7.12	1.07
45-54	12	1.60	0.61	27	1.69	0.47	12	6.87	1.07	27	7.21	0.82
55+	10	1.60	0.60	4	1.47	0.38	10	7.08	0.77	4	7.65	0.74
Major												
ELT	7	1.73	0.70	119	1.85	0.51	7	7.04	1.41	119	7.12	1.01
Lang. & Lit.	10	1.76	0.59	58	1.70	0.39	10	6.62	0.79	58	6.76	1.00
Other	36	1.57	0.45	3	1.67	0.40	36	7.01	0.86	3	8.23	0.55
Degree												
B.A.	25	1.60	0.51	71	1.88	0.47	25	7.02	0.83	71	6.85	1.13
M.A.	26	1.69	0.51	99	1.77	0.47	26	6.87	1.06	99	7.17	0.92
Ph.D.	2	1.02	0.03	10	1.56	0.55	2	6.87	0.25	10	6.85	1.19
Years of Experience												
0-5	9	1.99	0.68	10	1.97	0.45	9	6.69	1.20	10	6.75	1.03
6-10	14	1.65	0.47	55	1.94	0.50	14	6.64	1.00	55	6.74	1.12
11-15	11	1.57	0.43	48	1.79	0.41	11	7.23	0.89	48	6.98	0.89
16-20	9	1.52	0.46	31	1.73	0.47	9	6.81	0.56	31	7.27	1.07
21+	10	1.40	0.43	36	1.62	0.48	10	7.40	0.73	36	7.39	0.89
Qualifications												
Yes	52	1.63	0.51	80	1.78	0.49	52	6.92	0.92	80	6.90	1.15
No	1	1.08	-	100	1.82	0.47	1	8.30	-	100	7.12	0.91
Prof. levels taught												
Lower	13	1.65	0.66	113	1.83	0.50	13	6.75	0.94	113	6.82	1.07
Higher	27	1.64	0.46	30	1.77	0.46	27	6.94	0.78	30	7.42	0.80
All	13	1.55	0.47	37	1.74	0.43	13	7.15	1.21	37	7.33	0.90

APPENDIX H

RQ 3. Levene's Tests for FLTAS and TSES Subscales

Construct	*F*	*p*
FLTAS		
1. Teaching a particular skill	3.84	.051
2. Target language performance	9.69	.002
3. Making mistakes	1.13	.288
4. Being compared to other Ts	0.87	.353
5. Using the native language	2.51	.115
TSES		
1. Student engagement	0.60	.440
2. Instructional strategies	0.01	.925
3. Classroom management	0.35	.556

APPENDIX I

RQ 3. Independent t-tests for FLTAS and TSES Subscales

Construct	Native Speaker	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*	95% CI
FLTAS							
1. Teaching a particular skill	Y	1.75	0.78	0.47	231	.640	[-0.15, 0.25]
	N	1.71	0.61				
2. L2 perf.	Y	1.31	0.35	-3.76	117.011	.000	[-0.34, -0.11]
	N	1.53	0.48				
3. Making mistakes	Y	1.59	0.53	-2.69	231	.008	[-0.44, -0.07]
	N	1.84	0.63				
4. Comp. to other Ts	Y	1.63	0.86	-1.79	231	.074	[-0.53, 0.03]
	N	1.89	0.92				
5. Using L1	Y	2.22	1.02	-2.71	231	.007	[-0.65, -0.10]
	N	2.60	0.85				
TSES							
1. Student engagement	Y	6.51	1.05	-0.93	231	.352	[-0.53, 0.19]
	N	6.69	1.21				
2. Inst. strategies	Y	7.27	0.96	0.63	231	.527	[-0.21, -0.40]
	N	7.17	0.99				
3. Classroom management	Y	6.99	1.20	-1.03	231	.304	[-0.55, 0.17]
	N	7.18	1.17				

Note. Y = yes; N = no; CI = confidence interval.

APPENDIX J

RQ 4. Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

FLTAS – Age (Non-Native)

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
25-34	35-44	.31*	0.07	.000	0.11	0.51
	45-54	.30*	0.10	.022	0.03	0.58
	55+	.52	0.23	.157	-0.10	1.14
35-44	25-34	-.31*	0.07	.000	-0.51	-0.11
	45-54	-.01	0.10	1.000	-0.28	0.26
	55+	.21	0.23	1.000	-0.41	0.83
45-54	25-34	-.30*	0.10	.022	-0.58	-0.03
	35-44	.01	0.10	1.000	-0.26	0.28
	55+	.22	0.24	1.000	-0.43	0.87
55+	25-34	-.52	0.23	.157	-1.14	0.10
	35-44	-.21	0.23	1.000	-0.83	0.41
	45-54	-.22	0.24	1.000	-0.87	0.43

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

APPENDIX K

RQ 4. Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

FLTAS – Experience (Non-Native)

(I) Teaching Experience	(J) Teaching Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-5 years	6-10 years	.03	0.16	1.000	-0.43	0.48
	11-15 years	.17	0.16	1.000	-0.29	0.63
	16-20 years	.24	0.17	1.000	-0.25	0.71
	21+	.35	0.17	.365	-0.12	0.82
6-10 years	0-5 years	-.03	0.16	1.000	-0.48	0.43
	11-15 years	.15	0.09	1.000	-0.11	0.41
	16-20 years	.21	0.10	.473	-0.09	0.50
	21+	.32*	0.10	.014	0.04	0.61
11-15 years	0-5 years	-.17	0.16	1.000	-0.63	0.29
	6-10 years	-.15	0.09	1.000	-0.41	0.11
	16-20 years	.06	0.11	1.000	-0.24	0.37
	21+	.18	0.10	.856	-0.11	0.47
16-20 years	0-5 years	-.24	0.17	1.000	-0.71	0.25
	6-10 years	-.21	0.10	.473	-0.50	0.09
	11-15 years	-.06	0.11	1.000	-0.37	0.24
	21 +	.12	0.11	1.000	-0.21	0.44
21 +	0-5 years	-.35	0.17	.365	-0.82	0.12
	6-10 years	-.32*	0.10	.014	-0.61	-0.04
	11-15 years	-.18	0.10	.856	-0.47	0.11
	16-20 years	-.12	0.11	1.000	-0.44	0.21

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

APPENDIX L

RQ 5. Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

TSES – Teaching Experience (Non-Native)

(I) Teaching Experience	(J) Teaching Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-5 years	6-10 years	.01	0.35	1.000	-0.97	0.99
	11-15 years	-.23	0.35	1.000	-1.22	0.76
	16-20 years	-.53	0.37	1.000	-1.56	0.51
	21+	-.65	0.36	.740	-1.66	0.38
6-10 years	0-5 years	-.01	0.35	1.000	-0.99	0.97
	11-15 years	-.24	0.20	1.000	-0.80	0.33
	16-20 years	-.54	0.23	.187	-1.18	0.11
	21+	-.65*	0.22	.028	-1.26	-0.04
11-15 years	0-5 years	.23	0.35	1.000	-0.76	1.22
	6-10 years	.24	0.20	1.000	-0.33	0.80
	16-20 years	-.30	0.23	1.000	-0.95	0.36
	21+	-.41	0.22	.628	-1.04	0.21
16-20 years	0-5 years	.53	0.37	1.000	-0.51	1.56
	6-10 years	.54	0.23	.187	-0.11	1.18
	11-15 years	.30	0.23	1.000	-0.36	0.95
	21+	-.12	0.25	1.000	-0.82	0.58
21+	0-5 years	.65	0.36	.740	-0.38	1.66
	6-10 years	.65*	0.22	.028	0.04	1.26
	11-15 years	.41	0.22	.628	-0.21	1.04
	16-20 years	.12	0.25	1.000	-0.58	0.82

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

APPENDIX M

RQ 5. Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

TSES - Proficiency Levels Taught (Non-Native)

(I) Lower-higher-all	(J) Lower-higher-all	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
lower	higher	-.60*	0.20	.012	-1.09	-0.10
	both	-.51*	0.19	.021	-0.97	0.06
higher	lower	.60*	0.20	.012	0.10	1.09
	both	.08	0.25	1.000	-0.51	0.68
both	lower	.51*	0.19	.021	0.06	0.97
	higher	.08	0.25	1.000	-0.68	0.51

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.