

Self-efficacy levels and student-teacher language teaching skills development

Saad Fathy Shawer¹

This quantitative study investigated the relationship between EFL student-teacher self-efficacy and their language-teaching skills development. An ex-post facto research design tested the speculation that high self-efficacy levels improve student-teacher language teaching skills. The data was collected through the MSLQ self-efficacy subscale and an achievement test of language teaching skills. Data analysis techniques involved the independent-groups t-test and its non-parametric counterpart Mann-Whitney U test. The findings contradicted the mainstream research results on self-efficacy since no significant differences were found between the low and high self-efficacious student-teachers in their language-teaching skills. The study raised questions about examining self-efficacy through self-reporting instruments and cast serious doubts on its influence on academic achievement. Moreover, it standardized an achievement test that professionals could use to measure language-teaching skills and proposed useful testing procedures.

Keywords: pedagogical-content knowledge; self-efficacy; self-regulated learning; metacognition; motivation; test construction; foreign language teaching.

1. Introduction

This study examined the relationship between English as a foreign language (EFL) student-teacher self-efficacy and their language teaching skills development. Traditionally, educators had been concerned with assisting students in grasping a defined body of knowledge. Currently, teacher-educators in particular train student-teachers to learn how to learn and become independent lifelong learners so that they can face political, social and economic uncertainties (Shawer, 2009, 2010). Self-efficacy beliefs are essential for developing students' lifelong-learning skills, being about "their capability to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1993, p. 118), and making informed "judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391).

Self-efficacy has never been as necessary for student-teachers as today, given the fact that they are now so concerned with their beliefs about their abilities and opportunities to fail or succeed in their academic study and careers. This awareness of current opportunities and challenges through positive self-efficacy builds confidence in one's ability to pursue and complete tasks and results in informed decisions and actions. In contrast, less self-efficacious people lack confidence and hesitate to take necessary and decisive decisions and actions. As a result, self-efficacy is a good indication of whether students can process and complete assigned tasks successfully (Lemcool, 2007; Zimmerman, 1990). Self-efficacy subsequently influences student planning, motivation, strategy use, and ultimately actions. However, this does not mean encouraging students to develop superficial self-efficacy. This is why educators need to assist students with beyond-ability tasks through scaffolding because appropriate scaffolding prevents a reduction in self-efficacy (Moos & Azevedo, 2008).

Pedagogical content-knowledge is the most influential component in teacher development in addition to subject and curricular content-knowledge (Shulman, 1986). No doubt teachers cannot teach effectively or develop self-efficacy without grasping the key information, principles, and theories of their subjects. However, subject content-knowledge is insufficient to make competent teachers. Curricular knowledge also assists teachers in understanding curriculum domains, models, evaluation, syllabi, materials, and how these relate to other disciplines (Fullan, 1993; Pollard & Triggs, 1997; Shulman, 1986; White, 1988).

¹ Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, Ittihad University, RAK, P.O. Box, 2286, UAE, saadsaad71@yahoo.com; sshawer@ittihad.ac.ae; saadshawer@wsu.edu; saad.shawer.2000@wolfsonmail.com.

Without good pedagogical skills teachers can neither communicate subject nor curricular knowledge to learners because it involves use of various teaching strategies, procedures, techniques, and other useful ways of content representations. Teaching skills, therefore, enable teachers to understand the learners and what facilitates and impedes their cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and social development (Pollard & Triggs, 1997; Shawer, Gilmore & Banks-Joseph, 2008; Shulman, 1986). With subject, pedagogical and curricular knowledge teachers become self-efficacious since meagre or abundant domain knowledge including, subject, curricular and pedagogical knowledge, influences their approach to different cognitive enterprises (Flavell, 1979; Kuhn, 2000; Shawer, Gilmore, Banks-Joseph, 2009). EFL student-teachers who develop a range of teaching skills can handle “different learner strategies, be good classroom managers (organizers, initiators, monitors, advisors and resource-providers), help students to learn from their errors, motivate them, promote learner autonomy, and cater for different abilities and learning styles” (Basanta, 1996, p. 263).

In this study, EFL teaching skills included key pedagogical concepts, such as teaching, learning, teaching method, procedures, activities, and teacher and student roles. It also included an understanding of the influence of teaching approaches on course design and teaching procedures. Moreover, the ability to teach language skills (e.g., reading and writing), grammar, and vocabulary is essential for EFL teaching. In particular, EFL teaching skills comprised the ability to select and realize language teaching methods, including Communicative Language Teaching, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Direct Method, Total Physical Response and several others.

Many cross-subject research indicated positive correlations between teacher ability to teach and their abundant pedagogical content-knowledge and improved student learning (e.g., Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1990; Gudmundsdottir, 1991; Kinach, 2002; Lee, 1995; Shawer, 2010). In particular, various studies examined the relationship between EFL teacher pedagogical content-knowledge and improved teaching ability (Barkhuizen & Gough, 1996; Gahin, 2001; Gahin & Myhill, 2000; Shawer, Gilmore & Banks-Joseph, 2009). Other studies indicated that program interventions improve EFL teacher pedagogical ability (Borgan & Thai Ha, 1999; Linne, 2001; Schleppegrell & Bowman, 1995; Thorne & Qiang, 1996). Although self-efficacy proved effective in promoting academic achievement in various content areas (e.g., Hwang & Vrongistinos, 2002; Nevill, 2008; Settlage, Southerland, Smith & Ceglie, 2009), the current study did not manage to unearth a study that examined the influence of self-efficacy on student-teacher pedagogical skills. This gave ground for this investigation to examine the influence positive self-efficacy may have on teachers’ ability to continue their own development.

2. Theoretical framework

This section throws more light on the self-efficacy construct, its impact on academic achievement, and the relationships between self-efficacy and social cognitive theory, self-regulated learning, metacognition, and motivation.

2.1 Self-efficacy

Regardless of ability, college students in particular need to develop their self-efficacy because it impacts on the course and rate of academic achievement (Nevill, 2008). Since it concerns student beliefs in their ability to achieve tasks at predetermined standards (Bandura, 1986), self-efficacy also impacts on their strategy use, activity selection, effort required to achieve tasks, achievement standards, and perseverance levels necessary to overcome task problems. It is subsequently vital for college students to effectively regulate their cognition and learn in contexts fraught with uncertainties and challenges (Nevill, 2008).

Self-efficacy forms a basic tenet of social cognitive theory which suggests human thought and actions result from interactions between behavioural, cognitive and contextual factors, and that learning occurs through observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection (Bandura, 1986; 2002). Self-efficacy is also an integral element of self-regulated learning (SRL), a very influential construct college students need to process and regulate their cognition and to develop independent lifelong learning skills. In effect, students use SRL to self-monitor and evaluate current and prior learning so that they change for better the

course of subsequent learning and self-create new thoughts, feelings, and actions necessary to achieve independent academic goals (Zimmerman, 2002). Necessary as SRL is to student academic achievement and future careers, it requires positive self-efficacy to occur (Cooney, 2008; Zimmerman, 2001).

2.2 Self-efficacy and social cognitive theory

According to Bandura's (1986, 2002) social cognitive theory, cognitive change and development (learning) result from the interplay between several contextual factors, including student perceptions about their ability to complete cognitive tasks (self-efficacy). Positive and negative self-efficacy impacts differently on student learning and behaviour. Through introspection (reflection) and interactions with various contextual variables, thought and behaviour take shape. The interactions between social, economic, and educational factors influence academic self-efficacy and aspirations (Schunk & Pajares, 2002).

Mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and the physiological state enhance student self-efficacy. Mastery experiences enhance self-efficacy when students successfully complete tasks but can also lower it if students fail to fulfil task requirements. By the same token, vicarious experiences consolidate self-efficacy through modelling where reinforcing observer responses increases future repetition of copied behaviours. Moreover, verbal persuasion of reasonable praise and positive feedback enhances self-efficacy but overstating ability could undermine self-efficacy when learning experiences fail (Bandura, 1997). Consequently, positive feedbacks about academic achievement increase self-efficacy (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Finally, the learner's physiological state, including fear, anxiety, and stress, affects student confidence to achieve tasks (Bandura, 1997). Positive relationships have been established between self-efficacy and task persistence, academic achievement, goal setting, and career aspirations (Nevill, 2008).

2.3 Self-efficacy and self-regulated learning (SRL)

Self-efficacy influences student SRL strategy use (Rubel, 2008). Through SRL, students self-monitor and evaluate current and prior learning to improve subsequent learning so that they can achieve academic goals (Zimmerman, 2002). The strategies that students use to process and monitor their cognition depend directly on their perceptions of their academic self-efficacy. High self-efficacy increases student motivation and performance through encouraging their own selves to use learning strategies that can achieve cognitive tasks (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003).

Positive self-efficacy activates self-regulation processes, including planning, goal setting, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and corrective actions (Zimmerman, 1990). Self-efficacious students set challenging goals (Rubel, 2008), a key SRL strategy that self-efficacy activates (Perry, Hladkyj, Pelletier & Pekrun, 2001; Zusho & Pintrich, 2003). A characterising feature of self-efficacious students is that they set higher goals for themselves and raise commitment to performance levels capable of achieving them. High goals activate various activities and lead students to exert more effort that matches goal levels. Further, hard goals increase perseverance through more hard effort, and direct students to select and use most effective strategies to achieve hard goals (Locke & Latham, 2002).

2.4 Self-efficacy and metacognition

The relationship between metacognition and self-efficacy is complementary (Nevill, 2008). Metacognitive knowledge is the "knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" (Flavell, 1979, p. 907). Such knowledge forms the "cognition that reflects on, monitors, or regulates first-order cognition" (Kuhn, 2000, p. 178). It is most often "reflected in either effective use or overt description of the knowledge in question" (Brown, 1987, p. 65). It can therefore determine the purposes, route, and content of learning (Wenden, 1998).

Metacognitive knowledge leads learners "to select, evaluate, revise, and abandon cognitive tasks, goals, and strategies in light of their relationships with one another and with... [their] own abilities and interests with respect to that enterprise" (Flavell, 1979, p. 908). It therefore influences student belief in

their ability to initiate, maintain, and achieve tasks (self-efficacy). In particular, the personal component of student metacognition influences their self-efficacy for involving that "general knowledge learners have acquired about human factors that facilitate or inhibit learning" (Wenden, 1998, p. 518). This concerns intra- and inter-individual differences. Intra-individual differences are learners' beliefs about their ability to achieve a task while inter-individual differences concern their awareness of the differences between their own and others' abilities (Flavell, 1979). Both constitute a main part of student self-efficacy.

2.5 Self-efficacy and motivation strategies

Since regulation of motivation concerns student persistence in achieving difficult and boring tasks, it forms the crux of self-efficacy. Self-efficacious students are motivated learners who rarely give up tasks, being flexible, enthusiastic, curious, persistent, and risk-takers (Wolters, 2003). They regulate their motivation to keep up with tasks. For example, they use *goal-oriented self-talk* to focus attention on the task, employ *performance self-talk* to increase performance up to task achievement standards, and accelerate effort to achieve high grades and goals. They further use *self-consequating self-talk* through setting rewards for themselves to complete tasks. Self-efficacious students also use *interest enhancement self-talk* to make boring tasks interesting alongside *structuring environment* to keep away from distractions (Lemcool, 2007).

Previous researchers studied self-efficacy from several angles. The majority of studies found that there were positive relationships between high self-efficacy and improved academic achievement (e.g., DeWitz, Woolsey & Walsh, 2009; Hoffman & Schraw, 2009; Hwang & Vrongistinos, 2002; Nevill, 2008; Perry et al., 2001; Zusho & Pintrich, 2003). However, such relationships were not always found to be positive. For example, Langley II (2007) reached no significant t-test differences on the MSLQ self-efficacy subscale ($p > .05$) **between high and low achieving students**. Other studies found many low-achievers outperform several high-achievers in their self-efficacy, concluding that high self-efficacy is a good indicator of career rather than academic performance. This was because high self-efficacious students overestimated their abilities but failed to translate them into high test scores (Beyer, 1999; Garavalia & Gredler, 2002; Settlage et al., 2009; Winne & Jamieson-Noel, 2003).

Moreover, several studies found positive correlations between self-efficacy and SRL (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005; Langley II, 2007; Moos & Azevedo, 2008; Nevill, 2008; Pintrich, 1999; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Wolters, 2003). Several empirical studies examined other issues relating to self-efficacy. For example, Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) found positive self-efficacy improves students' use of effective learning strategies; whereas Mathisen and Bronnick (2009) found self-efficacy training improves student self-efficacy skills. McMahon, Wernsman and Rose (2009) found self-efficacy increases with school belonging, greater satisfaction, and less friction. Moreover, Usher (2009) found teaching structures, course placement, and SRL among the important factors relating to self-efficacy.

While the relationships between self-efficacy and academic achievement and regulation of cognition have been an area of study, the current study failed to spot a single study examining the relationship between student-teacher self-efficacy and their teaching skills. The current study endeavoured to answer these research questions:

1. Do EFL student-teachers differ in their self-efficacy?
2. Do high and low self-efficacy EFL student-teachers differ in their language teaching skills?

3. Method and procedures

As shown in figure 1, the hypothetic-deductive paradigm (positivism) defined the research procedures at the ontological, epistemological and methodological level. The research ontology (phenomenon) was based on standardized conceptualizations of self-efficacy and language teaching skills (section 1); while its epistemology opted for detachment from rather than interactions with the subjects to maintain objectivity and rigour. The research methodology used a nomothetic strategy (ex-post facto), instruments (self-efficacy subscale of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and achievement

test), and data analysis techniques (an independent samples t-test and its equivalent non-parametric *Mann-Whitney U/ Wilcoxon W*). This section placed particular emphasis on the test construction process.

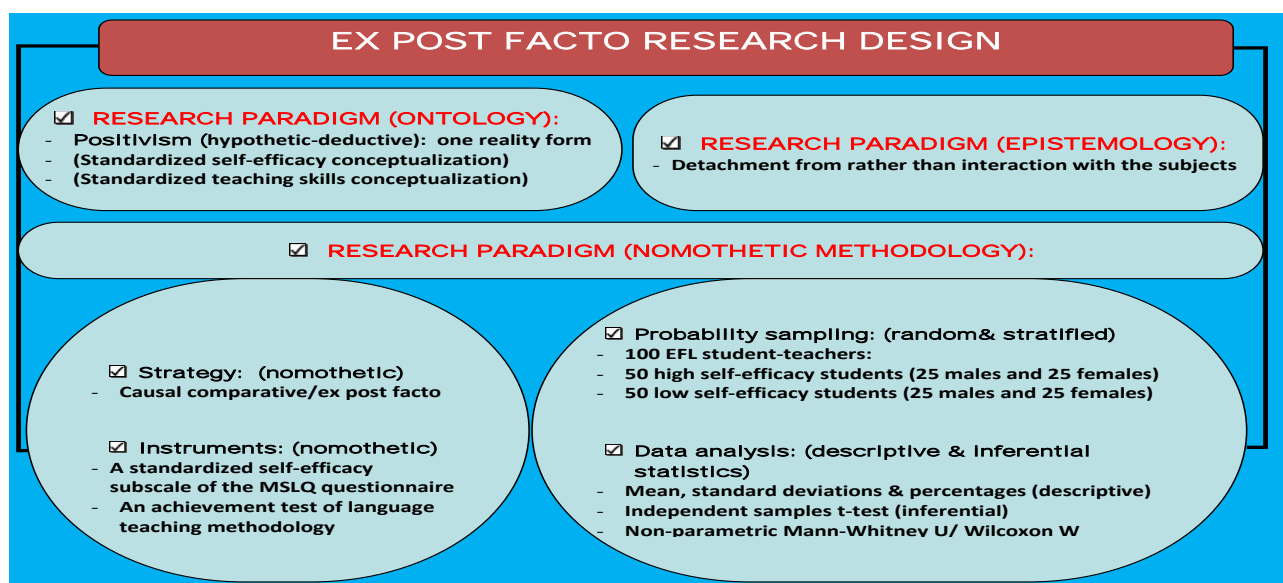


Figure 1. The Ex-post facto research design

This research design involved two consecutive phases. Phase one examined the extent to which student-teachers differed in their self-efficacy, which resulted in a high and a low self-efficacy group (section 4.1). Phase one results gave ground to examine the relationship between student-teacher self-efficacy and their teaching skills in phase two (section 4.2). Had all students possessed one self-efficacy level (e.g., a low self-efficacy level), the study's second phase could not have been conducted. The second phase required at least two self-efficacy levels to examine such a relationship.

3.1 Strategy

This study described student-teacher self-efficacy (research phenomenon) and explored possible relationships between their self-efficacy levels and teaching skills improvement (variables) through the ex-post facto (causal comparative) research strategy. Ex-post facto research was particularly employed because it not only explores relationships between variables but also involves descriptions. Precisely, an ex-post facto design draws comparisons and explores possible causes and effects between two or more samples (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996).

The study used ex-post facto research rather than experimentation because student-teacher self-efficacy was studied in retrospection. In particular, an ex-post facto design speculates about possible causes and effects through drawing comparisons between a group possessing particular characteristics and another group (or other groups) missing them. Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie's (1991) MSLQ self-efficacy subscale collected evidence to identify the study's two samples in its first phase. An achievement test was constructed to examine the differences between the two groups in their teaching skills (research second phase).

Based on previous research findings indicating positive relationships between self-efficacy and academic achievement (e.g., Hoffman & Schraw, 2009; Nevill, 2008), this study speculated that EFL student-teachers with high self-efficacy (presumed cause) would outperform low self-efficacy counterparts in their language teaching skills (presumed effect). This research aimed to test these hypotheses:

1. There are no statistically significant differences at .05 among EFL student-teachers in their self-efficacy.
2. High self-efficacy EFL student-teachers would outperform low self-efficacy counterparts in their language teaching skills.

3.2 Sampling

In group-administration sessions, out of 300 students 263 voluntarily completed the MSLQ self-efficacy subscale at the beginning of the semester (Appendix A). All students were assured of complete anonymity and confidentiality, by strictly concealing their names and any information about their identities (Cohen et al, 2000; Lester & Lester, 2010). The researcher categorized the 263 students into a low self-efficacy group (between 20% and 50% of the responses) and a high self-efficacy group (between 57% and 85%) (see section 4.1 for analysis).

The researcher randomly selected and stratified a 100 out of the 263 students. He put the 263 names in a vessel and shuffled each time before selecting a name. Each time he selected a name, put it back in the vessel and shuffled again till he obtained 50 student-teachers (25 males and 25 females) in each group (N = 100). The high self-efficacy students formed the defined group whereas the low self-efficacy students constituted the comparison group (Gall et al, 1996). Both groups took the language teaching skills test at the end of the semester.

3.3 Self-efficacy subscale validity, reliability, and analysis

No valid and reliable measure was found better than the MSLQ self-efficacy subscale to assess student self-efficacy. The MSLQ subscales could be used together or independently in any specified academic course (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Rubel, 2008). The self-efficacy subscale consisted of 8 items and requires subjects to report the frequency of their strategy use on a scale from one (1= not at all true of me) to seven (7 = very true of me). The study, however, turned the seven-point scale to a five-point one to focus the subjects' responses (Langley II, 2007).

Although the self-efficacy subscale demonstrated validity across various contexts, it was content validated to ensure its items addressed the research purpose and context by two EFL and two educational psychology professors who agreed it could address the purpose of the study's first part. Moreover, the MSLQ as a whole and its subscales showed predictive validity between its scores and course grades (Rubel, 2008; Thompson, 2007). The self-efficacy subscale had a .93 Cronbach's alpha and demonstrated high reliability across various contexts (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). In addition, this study calculated Cronbach's alpha on 150 students using SPSS (version 14). Cronbach's alpha was .88 which was quite high. This subscale was analysed first through percentages and means. Second, the t-test and its equivalent non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test examined the between-groups mean differences (see section 4.1).

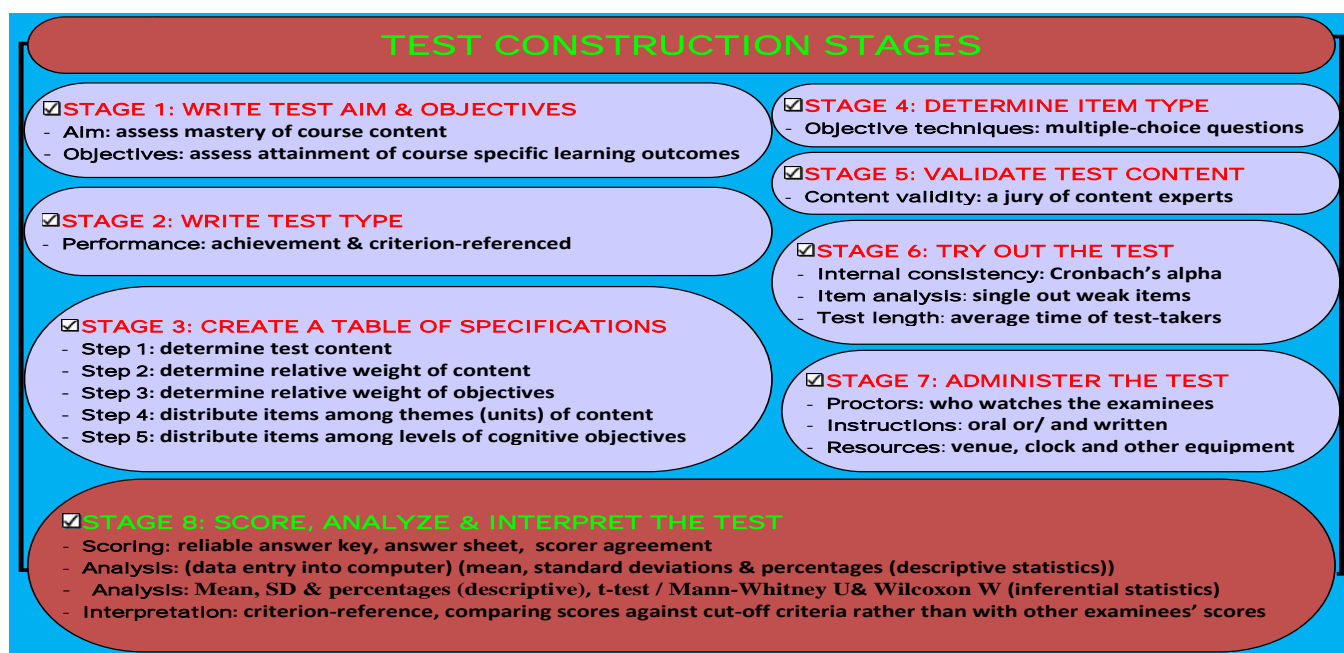


Figure 2. Stages of test construction

3.4 Test construction, validity, reliability, and analysis

The researcher constructed an achievement test to assess student-teacher teaching skills differences between the high and low self-efficacy groups. Based on his informed practical experiences, the researcher proposed eight test construction stages shown in figure 2 and explained in section 3.4.1 through 3.4.8.

3.4.1 Stage 1: Write the test aim and objectives

The test aimed to measure the extent to which EFL student-teachers mastered the methods of teaching course content and achieved its objectives (Hughes, 2003). Its medium-level objectives sought to examine the extent to which they had been able to:

- ☒ master key pedagogical terms (e.g., teaching, learning, procedure, and techniques).
- ☒ match language approaches to teaching methods (e.g., audio-lingual method with structuralism).
- ☒ select a method that can address the lesson aim (e.g., direct method for oral skills).
- ☒ translate a method into procedures (e.g., activity 1, making suggestions (language functions)).
- ☒ use techniques/ activities that address aspects of the method (e.g., dictation for simple writing).
- ☒ use pre, while and post teaching activities to teach reading, listening, and speaking.
- ☒ use pedagogical, authentic and adapted materials for teaching reading and listening.
- ☒ use appropriate reading and listening approaches for teaching reading and listening.
- ☒ use appropriate teaching methods for teaching grammar.
- ☒ use various techniques for teaching vocabulary.

3.4.2 Stage 2: Write the test type

The test was of the achievement type to measure the extent to which student-teachers mastered course content and achieved its objectives. Moreover, the test was criterion-referenced to check content mastery against predetermined standards rather than comparing student scores against average performance (see section 3.4.8 for norm- and criterion-referenced test interpretation).

3.4.3 Stage 3: Create a table of specifications

As shown in figure 2, the researcher created a table of specifications to determine item number, allocate items to each content unit and to each of the six levels of cognitive objectives in five steps. As shown in table 1, the first step concerned determining the test content by means of content analysis through determining major themes (5 units), their main themes (19 lessons), and the minor themes of each main theme (31 lesson points) (see appendix B for the course themes of content and appendix C for the test).

Table 1.
Course major, main, and minor themes of content.

Themes			
No.	Major	main	minor
1	Understanding pedagogical terms	4	6
2	Language approaches	2	2
3	Language teaching methods	8	9
4	Teaching language skills	3	5
5	Teaching grammar and vocabulary	2	9
Total		19	31

The second step concerned determining the relative weight of content in terms of assigning item percentage to each major theme from the test's overall items. For example, unit one was assigned 19% ($6 \text{ (unit 1 minor themes)} \div 31 \text{ (course total minor themes)} \times 100 = 19\%$). These are shown in the table of specifications of table 2, column 2. The table of specifications comprised a horizontal axis that included content units, and a vertical axis which showed objectives weights.

Table 2.
Test table of specifications.

Objectives	weight	remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	total
Content	%	30 %	70%	%	%	%	%	100%
Unit 1	19%	3	7	0	0	0	0	10
objectives		remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	
content	%	33%	66%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
Unit 2	6%	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
objectives		remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	
content	%	14%	29%	0%	14%	29%	14%	100%
Unit 3	29%	2	4	0	2	4	2	14
objectives		remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	
content	%	37.5%	25%	12.5%	25%	0%	0%	100%
Unit 4	16%	3	2	1	2	0	0	8
objectives		remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	
content	%	53%	13%	33%	0%	0%	0%	100%
Unit 5	29%	8	2	5	0	0	0	15
Total	100 %	17	17	6	4	4	2	50

The third step concerned determining the relative weight of objectives in terms of the number of items each of the six levels of objectives was allocated from each unit as well as the test's overall items. Though the usual way of determining relative weight of objectives depends on the test developer's personal judgement by specifying each level a percentage that applies to all units of content, the researcher developed a more efficient method for this purpose (*the list of objectives method*). First, he created an objectives list as a result of his teaching during a semester. He wrote between three and six objectives that he wanted to achieve in each lesson on a daily basis and also classified each lesson objectives according to the six levels of objectives. At the end of the semester, he had a classified list of objectives form which he chose only 50 (see table 3). Second, he calculated objectives weights. For example, the remembering level weight in the first unit was 30% (3 (objectives at the remembering level) \div 10 (sum of unit one objectives) \times 100 = 30 %). All unit weights of objectives are written in the table of specifications of table 2 above (rows under the six levels of objectives).

Table 3.
Cognitive objectives classification across the course five units.

Units	remember	understand	apply	analyze	evaluate	create	Total
1	3	7	0	0	0	0	10
2	1	2	0	0	0	0	3
3	2	4	0	2	4	2	14
4	3	2	1	2	0	0	8
5	8	2	5	0	0	0	15
Total	17	17	6	4	4	2	50

The fourth step concerned distributing items among themes of content. The researcher first determined the test overall number of items and second distributed them among the five units. The test comprised 50 items since tests should usually be around 50 items (Hughes, 2003). Then he distributed the 50 items among the five units using this formula: *weight of each unit \times total test items \div 100 = unit items*. For example, unit one was assigned 10 items (19 % (unit 1 content weight) \times 50 (test items) \div 100 = 9.5 rounded up to 10). Unit one therefore took 10 items from the test 50 questions. Table 2 above also shows all unit calculations (final column, right).

The final/fifth step concerned distributing items among the six levels of objectives using this formula: *total items per unit* \times *weight of each level of objectives* \div 100. For example, the remembering level at unit one took three items (10 (unit 1 sum of items) \times 30% (remember level percentage) \div $100 = 3$). This meant the remembering level took 3 questions from the 10 questions assigned to unit one. The five unit calculations are again shown in table 2 above (cells under the six objectives) (see appendix D for question and objective alignment matrix).

3.4.4 Stage 4: Determine type of items/ techniques

Types of items were the techniques used to elicit target behaviours from the examinees (Hughes, 2003). In other words, questions were the techniques the researcher used to check the extent to which examinees acquired the target information and skills. Objective rather than essay questions were used to maintain answer and scoring reliability and to cover as much content as possible. In particular, multiple-choice questions were used in the form of a stem followed by several options. One option was correct whereas the others were distracters. The researcher managed to use multiple-choice questions to check student knowledge and understanding at the six levels of objectives. For example, items 1, 6, 11, and 13 measured student cognition at the 'evaluate' level (see appendix D for question and objective alignment matrix).

3.4.5 Stage 5: Validate content

Since content validity in particular best suits achievement tests, the test was content validated to ensure it measured student-teacher teaching skills as conceptualized by the study (Cohen et al., 2000; Lester & Lester, 2010). The test content was validated by checking the degree to which the test items adequately represented the content it was designed to assess (Gall et al., 1996). Four experts (two EFL and two educational psychology professors) agreed the researcher stated the test purpose precisely, translated the test purpose into precise objectives, defined precisely the domain that the test sought to measure, and spelled out the content in the light of test objectives. Based on the test purpose and objectives, each jury member also agreed each theme of content was allocated a specific weight and was represented on the test in terms of items according to objectives weights through an accurate table of specifications.

3.4.6 Stage 6: Try out the test

After the researcher had developed the test initial version, he tried it out on 40 student-teachers from a similar population to conduct item analysis and check reliability in terms of "how much measurement error is present in the scores yielded by the test" (Gall et al., 1996, p. 254). The purpose was to ensure the test scores were free of measurement error (false/ error variance).

Reliability as internal consistency ensured the subjects' performance on all items was consistent without improved performance on some sections than others. Cronbach's Alpha particularly suited the test multiple-choice items. Using SPSS (version 14), Cronbach's Alpha was high (0.86) since tests over .80 coefficients are reliable (Gall et al., 1996). The researcher determined the test length (time) through calculating the average time the 40 students spent to complete the test. The time each student spent on the test was recorded, summed up, and divided by 40 (student number). The average time of the test was 90 minutes ($3550 \text{ minutes} \div 40 = 88.75$ rounded up to 90).

3.4.7 Stage 7: Administer the test

The researcher (examiner) and four other invigilators watched the test administration. The room had a clock in addition to good ventilation and light. Running the piloting version was similar to the actual test administration (Hughes, 2003).

3.4.8 Stage 8: Score, analyze, and interpret the test

Scoring was strictly reliable. Scorers did not exercise personal judgement since each question was assigned a specific point. An answer key was developed and piloted where two instructors of methods of teaching English answered the test in addition to the researcher (see appendix E). The three provided the same answers. All students answered in a standardized answer sheet (see appendix F). The researcher

used SPSS (version 14) throughout the test analysis process (see section 4.2 for test analysis and interpretation). After entering the data into the computer, descriptive statistics was calculated, including percentages, mean, and standard deviation. Further, the independent between-groups t-test and its equivalent non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test examined the differences between means for significance.

This criterion-referenced test was interpreted through comparing students' performance against cut-off standards (e.g., 0 – 39 = F and 75 – 80 = A+) rather than with students who took the same test (Hughes, 2003). Table 4 shows actual three scores on the test out of 80. The student who scored 73 was far above the cut-off pass criterion (40). His score placed him in category A. The six students who scored 40 reached the cutoff, placing them in category D. In contrast, the three students' score of 15 was far below the cutoff, placing them in category F. This meant the student who scored 73 and the six who scored 40 passed the test whereas the three students who scored 15 did not pass.

Table 4.
Criterion-referenced interpretation of the test scores.

Student score	frequency	Grade	%	mean	N	cutoff	Test overall score	Sum of test scores
		A+	75-80					
73	1	A	70-74	1				
		B+	65-70					
		B	60-64					
		C+	55-60	42.72	100	40	80	4272
		C	50-54					
		D+	45-50					
40	6	D	40-44	6				
15	3	F	0-39	15				

Of course the same test scores could be interpreted on norm-referenced basis. The student's score of 73 was far above the average (42.72). His score placed him at the top 1% of students who took the test. The six students' score of 40 was below the average, placing them at the below-average 6% group. The three students' score of 30 was far below the average, placing them at the bottom 15% group. Although the six students who scored 40 passed the criterion-referenced test, they failed the test according to a norm-referenced interpretation because their score was below the average (42.72). The situation of the students scoring 15 and the student who scored 73 did not change at both interpretations of the test.

4. Findings

The self-efficacy results were first presented to group students according to their self-efficacy levels (first phase of the study) followed by the test results to highlight the influence of self-efficacy on student-teacher teaching skills (second phase).

Table 5.
Grouping 100 students into low and high self-efficacy groups.

Group 1: Low self-efficacy				Group 2: High self-efficacy			
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	20.00	26	45.00	1	57.50	26	65.00
2	20.00	27	45.00	2	57.50	27	67.50
3	20.00	28	47.50	3	60.00	28	67.50
4	25.00	29	47.50	4	60.00	29	67.50
5	27.50	30	47.50	5	60.00	30	70.00
6	30.00	31	47.50	6	60.00	31	70.00

7	30.00	32	47.50	7	60.00	32	72.50
8	30.00	33	47.50	8	60.00	33	72.50
9	30.00	34	47.50	9	60.00	34	72.50
10	32.50	35	47.50	10	60.00	35	72.50
11	32.50	36	47.50	11	60.00	36	75.00
12	35.00	37	47.50	12	62.50	37	75.00
13	35.00	38	47.50	13	62.50	38	75.00
14	37.50	39	50.00	14	62.50	39	75.00
15	37.50	40	50.00	15	62.50	40	75.00
16	37.50	41	50.00	16	62.50	41	75.00
17	40.00	42	50.00	17	62.50	42	77.50
18	40.00	43	50.00	18	62.50	43	80.00
19	42.50	44	50.00	19	62.50	44	80.00
20	42.50	45	50.00	20	65.00	45	80.00
21	42.50	46	50.00	21	65.00	46	80.00
22	42.50	47	50.00	22	65.00	47	80.00
23	42.50	48	50.00	23	65.00	48	80.00
24	42.50	49	50.00	24	65.00	49	82.50
25	42.50	50	50.00	25	65.00	50	85.00

4.1 Phase 1: The self-efficacy findings

This section addressed this first research question: *Do EFL student-teachers differ in their self-efficacy?* As noted in sections 3.2 and 3.3 above, data analysis of the self-efficacy subscale resulted in classifying students into a high self-efficacy group (50 students) and a low self-efficacy group (50 students). Table 5 shows student score percentages based on the total score each student obtained on the self-efficacy subscale divided by the maximum possible score a student could achieve on it multiplied by 100. The minimum possible score a student could achieve was 8 (8 (items) \times 1 (minimum possible score)) = 8). The maximum possible score a student could achieve was 40 (8 (items) \times 5 (maximum possible score)) = 40).

This way the students were categorized into two groups. Table 6 shows student number, actual minimum and maximum scores on the self-efficacy subscale (8 and 34 respectively), minimum and maximum possible score a student could achieve (8 and 40 in a row), and whole sample mean and standard deviation. Moreover, table 6 shows individual group means, numbers, and standard deviations. Though descriptive statistics showed differences between group means, these differences were further tested for significance using the independent-groups t-test (the between-subjects design) to determine whether the differences were true. The independent-groups t-test was used because it determines the mean differences between two sets of independent scores, meaning participants appear in only one group.

Table 6.
Descriptive statistics (self-efficacy).

Whole sample descriptive statistics (100 students)					
N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
100	8.00	34.00	2195.00	21.9500	6.36495
	8	40			
Two independent-groups descriptive statistics					
Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
1.00	50	16.5600	3.60363	.50963	
2.00	50	27.3400	3.09450	.43763	

The t-test normality assumption was conducted because the two samples were independent through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Table 7 shows that both tests were significant ($p < .05$)

which meant the two groups were not drawn from a normally-distributed population and the normality assumption was therefore violated (Coakes & Steed, 2007). As a result, normality was further checked through the box plot illustrated in Figure 3 which shows the scores by plotting summary statistics of the median, 25th and 75th percentiles and the extreme scores in the distribution. The lower boundary of the box is the 25th percentile whereas the upper boundary is the 75th percentile. The median is represented by a horizontal line in the centre of the box. The distribution's smallest and largest observed values (known as whiskers) are represented by the horizontal lines at either ends of the box.

Table 7.
Normality tests, Levene's test for equality of variance, and t-test (Self-efficacy).

			Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a) normality test			Shapiro-Wilk normality test		
Group			Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
1.00			.211	50	.000	.849	50	.000
2.00			.188	50	.000	.912	50	.001

Levene's test of variances			Independent samples t-test for equality of means								
			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference			
								Lower	Upper		
Equal variances assumed			-16.048	98	.000	-10.78	.67174	-12.11306	-9.44694		
Equal variances not assumed			.509	.477	-16.048	95. 811	.000	-10.78	.67174	-12.11344	-9.44656

Figure 3 indicated no extreme scores (cases with three or more box lengths from the upper or lower edge of the box) as it showed no asterisks for both groups. The figure did not show outlier cases (cases with values between one-and-a-half and three box lengths from the upper or lower edge of the box) because the graph showed no circles. Clearly, the distribution was not normal for both groups. Group one distribution was negatively skewed because the median was close to the top of the box whereas the distribution of group two was positively skewed since the median was close to the bottom.

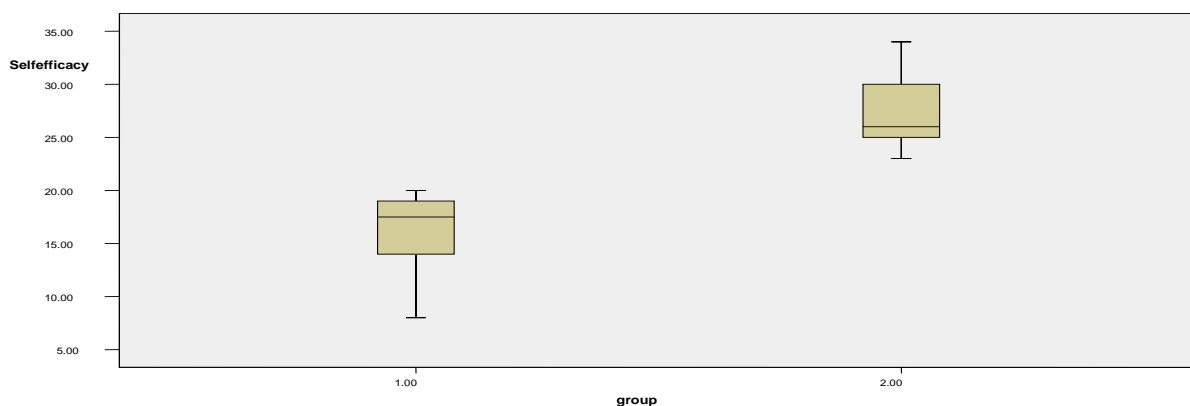


Figure 3. The box plots for two independent groups

Although the t-test group normality assumption was violated, the group variances assumption was met as also shown in table 7. Levene's test had a probability value greater than .05, which meant group variances were equal. Since one of the t-test assumptions (normality) was violated, the decision concerned whether or not the researcher would proceed with the t-test. He decided to proceed with it because the t-test has proven effective and reliable even when its criteria were violated. However, if there were concerns about the distribution of scores, a non-parametric counterpart t-test, like the *Mann-Whitney*

U test (independent samples) or the *Wilcoxon signed rank* test (paired/ dependent samples) could be used. If the non-parametric test results differed from the t-test scores, the non-parametric test results should be only reported (Gall et al, 1996). Moreover, the *Mann-Whitney U* test is used when the t-test assumptions are severely violated (Coakes & Steed, 2007).

As again shown in table 7, the t-test value was significant ($p < .001$). This meant the null hypothesis stating group equality in self-efficacy was rejected. The alternative hypothesis stating that the two groups differed in their self-efficacy was therefore accepted. Based on the concerns around the t-test results due to lack of group normality, the researcher turned to test group differences using the Mann-Whitney U test (Wilcoxon rank sum W) for the two independent groups. Interpretation of the Mann-Whitney U test results involved looking at the z-score and two-tailed P-value.

Table 8.
Ranks and test Statistics (Self-efficacy).

Ranks			
Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
1.00	50	25.50	1275.00
2.00	50	75.50	3775.00
Total	100		
Test Statistics			
Mann-Whitney U			.000
Wilcoxon W			1275.000
Z			-8.641
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)			.000

Table 8 shows group ranks, sample number, and a significant Mann-Whitney U test ($z = -8.641$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the Mann-Whitney U test confirmed the t-test results that EFL student-teachers differed in their self-efficacy. These results answered the first research question in positive, indicating that EFL student-teachers differed in their self-efficacy. The first phase results therefore gave ground to second phase (relationships between self-efficacy and language teaching skills).

4.2 Phase 2: The test findings

Data analysis in this section was concerned with answering this second research question: *Do high and low self-efficacy EFL student-teachers differ in their language teaching skills?* The researcher used the independent-groups t-test to determine the difference between means for the two sets of independent test scores. Group normality was examined through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk. Table 9 shows both tests were not significant ($p > .05$). This indicated the subjects came from a normally-distributed population (Coakes & Steed, 2007).

Table 9.
Normality test, Levene's test for equality of variance, and t-test (Test-scores).

Group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a) normality test			Shapiro-Wilk normality test		
	Statistic	df	Sig.		Statistic	df	Sig.
1.00	.118	50	.080		.964	50	.128
2.00	.108	50	.200(*)		.974	50	.333
* This is a lower bound of the true significance.			a Lilliefors Significance Correction				

Levene's Test of Variances				Independent samples t-test for equality of means			
				Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference
F	Sig.	t	df				
							Lower Upper

Equal variances assumed	1.008	.318	.193	98	.847	.56000	2.90350	-5.20191	6.32191
Equal variances not assumed			.193	96.273	.847	.56000	2.90350	-5.20320	6.32320

Sample normality (homogeneity) was further confirmed through box plots. Figure 4 indicated neither extreme scores, revealing no asterisks, nor outlier cases, because the graph showed no circles for both groups. The distribution was clearly normal since the median positioned exactly in the middle of the box (figure 4). The t-test group variances assumption was also met. Table 9 also shows that group variances were equal because the Levene's F ratio was not significant ($p > .05$). The values of 'equal of variances' row were therefore consulted. Table 9 further shows the t-test value was surprisingly not significant ($p > .05$). As a result, the null hypothesis stating group equality in their teaching skills was accepted, while rejecting the alternative hypothesis stating both groups differed in their teaching skills.

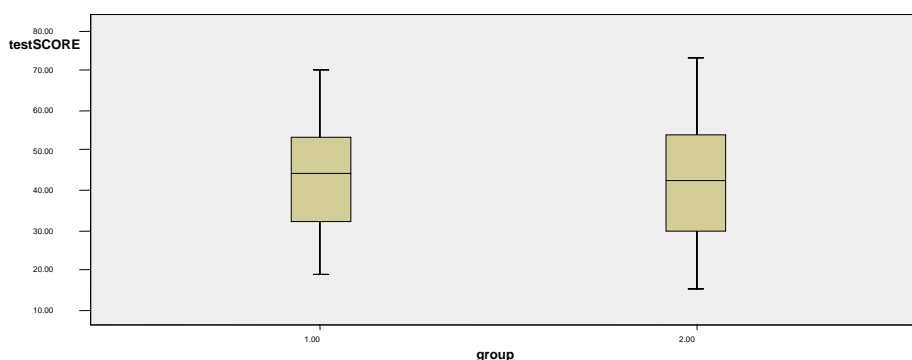


Figure 4. The box plots for two groups drawn from a normally-distributed population

These findings gave evidence to refute the research initial speculation that high self-efficacy groups outperform low-self-efficacy counterparts in their teaching skills development. The second research question was therefore answered in the negative. This meant that high and low self-efficacy EFL student-teachers performed almost the same on the achievement test and that high self-efficacy did not improve academic achievement.

5. Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between EFL student-teacher self-efficacy and language teaching skills. An overwhelming body of empirical research confirmed a positive relationship did exist between self-efficacy and academic achievement in almost all subject areas (e.g., DeWitz et al., 2009; Hoffman & Schraw, 2009; Hwang & Vrongistinos, 2002; Nevill, 2008; Perry et al., 2001; Zusho & Pintrich, 2003). Supported by various research findings, the current study assumed that high self-efficacy EFL student-teachers would outperform low self-efficacy counterparts in their language teaching skills. The surprise was a dissonance between the current research findings (indicating a neutral relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement) and many previous research findings (indicating a positive relationship).

The study did not reach differences between low and high self-efficacy EFL student-teachers in their teaching skills. In such a positivist study that characterized by an epistemological stance of detachment from respondents and objectivity (Cohen et al., 2000), the study had nothing against self-efficacy. On the contrary, the researcher was positive about the self-efficacy possible influence on academic achievement as reflected in the research design and literature survey. Based on sound theoretical standpoints and rigorous methodological procedures, this study's findings, however, reached a neutral relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement. Why the current findings contradicted the positive correlation between self-efficacy and academic achievement that has been

established across diverse domains and contexts! This required plausible interpretations of such surprising results.

The first explanation was that high self-efficacy does not necessarily result in academic achievement improvement. Although this sounded unreasonable, various previous research findings came in line with it. For example, Langley II (2007) found no significant t-test differences on the self-efficacy subscale ($p > .05$) between high and low achieving students. Not only did other empirical studies challenge high-achievers to have high self-efficacy than low-achievers, but also indicated that many high-achievers had lower self-efficacy than low-achievers. Moreover, they gave evidence that high self-efficacy is a good indicator of career rather than academic performance. Their evidence was based on the assumption that high self-efficacy students overestimate their abilities but fail to translate them into actual performance (Beyer, 1999; Garavalia & Gredler, 2002; Settlage et al., 2009; Winne & Jamieson-Noel, 2003).

The current study strongly supported these studies in that student overestimation of ability was the main reason behind such a neutral relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement. As a result, the current findings disagreed with previous studies indicating that self-efficacy enhances college students' academic achievement (e.g., DeWitz et al., 2009; Hoffman & Schraw, 2009; Hwang & Vrongistinos, 2002; Nevill, 2008; Perry et al., 2001; Zusho & Pintrich, 2003). Moreover, the current findings cast doubts on the positive relationships between student self-efficacy training and improved academic achievement (e.g., Mathisen & Bronnick, 2009). This study did not, however, indicate that training students to improve their self-efficacy does not improve their self-efficacy strategy use. It only questioned the impact of improved self-efficacy skills to result in real differences in academic achievement.

6. Conclusions and recommendations

Based on the evidence drawn from this research, the current study concluded that high self-efficacy levels did not influence academic achievement in terms of teaching skills. High self-efficacy student-teachers did not outperform low self-efficacy counterparts in their language teaching skills. Further research is therefore required to determine the causes behind the gap between high self-efficacy and academic achievement. Because teaching-methodology courses demand use of practical skills, cross-subject research may examine why students make use of positive self-efficacy in certain subjects than others. This study also recommended using instruments other than self-reporting measures to assess self-efficacy with regard to academic achievement. Measurement should move from self-reporting measures to alternatives capable of spotting the link between actual performance and self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, multiple-choice questions are effective in assessing higher-order cognition including, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis (create). Moreover, professionals may use the current research test and test construction procedures.

References

- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundation of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (2002). *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (4th Ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Barkhuizen, G., & Gough, D. (1996). Language curriculum development in South Africa: What place for English? *Tesol Quarterly*, 30 (3), 453- 471.
- Basanta, C. (1996). Comment: In the name of the teacher. *ELT Journal*, 50 (3), 263-264.
- Beyer, S. (1999). Gender differences in the accuracy of grade expectations and self-evaluations. *Sex Roles*, 41, 279-296.
- Borgan, M. & Thai Ha, N. (1999). The 3 R's of teacher training in Vietnam: Revising, reviving and researching. *The fourth International Conference on Language and Development*. [WWW] <<http://languages.ait.ac.th/hanoi-proceedings/nth.htm>> [Accessed 25 March, 2001]
- Brown, A. (1987). 'Metacognition, executive control, self-regulation, and other more mysterious mechanisms'. In F. Weinert and R. Kluwe (Eds) *Metacognition, motivation, and understanding*. Hillsdale, NJ.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Coakes, S. J., & Steed, L. (2007). *SPSS Version 14.0 for windows: Analysis without anguish*. Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education* (5th Ed.). London: Routledge.
- Cooney, F. (2008). Adolescent self-regulation skills, working portfolios, and explicit instruction: A mixed methods study. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*, Walden University.
- DeWitz J. S., Woolsey, L. W., & Walsh, B. W. (2009). College student retention: An exploration of the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and purpose in life among college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50 (1), 19-34.
- Duckworth, A., & Seligman, M. (2005). Self-discipline outdoes IQ in predicting academic performance of adolescents. *Psychological Science*, 16(12), 939-944.
- Feiman-Nemser, S., & Parker, M. B. (1990). Making subject matter part of the conversation in learning to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 41 (3), 32-43.
- Flavell, J. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring. A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34 (10), 906-911.
- Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. London: Falmer.
- Gahin, G. (2001). An investigation into Egyptian EFL teachers' beliefs. *TESOL Arabia 2000*, 5, 109-131.
- Gahin, G., & Myhill, D. (2000). The communicative approach in Egypt! Digging into the pyramids. *A Paper Presented to The 8th Symposium for Language Teacher Educators- Institute for Applied Language Studies (IALS)- Edinburgh (Scotland)*.
- Gall, M., Borg, W., & Gall, J. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th Ed.) New York: Longman.
- Garavalia, L., & Gredler, M. (2002). An exploratory study of academic goal setting, achievement calibration and self-regulated learning. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 29, 221- 231.
- Gudmundsdottir, S. (1991). Story-maker, story-teller: narrative structures in curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 23 (3), 207-218.
- Hoffman, B., & Schraw, G. (2009). The influence of self-efficacy and working memory capacity on problem-solving efficiency. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 19 (1),91-100.
- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hwang, Y., & Vrongistinos, K. (2002). Elementary in-service teachers' self-regulated learning strategies related to their academic achievements. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 29, 147-154.
- Kinach, B. M. (2002). A cognitive strategy for developing pedagogical content knowledge in the secondary mathematics methods course: Toward a model of effective practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18, 51-71.
- Kuhn, D. (2000). Metacognitive development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9 (5), 178-181.
- Langley II, S. (2007). Identifying self-regulatory factors that influence the academic achievement motivation of under-prepared college students. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*, University of Minnesota.
- Lee, O. (1995). Subject matter knowledge, classroom management, and instructional practices in middle school science classroom. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 32 (4), 423-440.
- Lemcool, K. E. (2007). Effects of coaching on self-regulated learning strategy use and achievement in an entry-level nursing class. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation*, University of South Alabama.
- Lester, J. D. & Lester, J. D. (2010). *Writing research papers: A complete Guide* (13th Ed.). Boston: Longman, Pearson.
- Linne, A. (2001). The lesson as a pedagogic text: A case study of lesson designs. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 33 (2), 129-156.
- Linnenbrink, E., & Pintrich, P. (2003). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement and learning in the classroom. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19, 119-137.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9), 705-717.
- Mathisen, G. E., & Bronnack, K. S. (2009). Creative self-Efficacy: An intervention study. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 48 (1), 21-29.

- McMahon, S. D., Wernsman, J., & Rose, D. S. (2009). The relation of classroom environment and school belonging to academic self-efficacy among urban fourth- and fifth-grade students. *Elementary School Journal*, 109 (3), 267-281.
- Moos, D., & Azevedo, R. (2008). Monitoring, planning and self-efficacy during learning with hypermedia: The impact of conceptual scaffolds. *Computers in human behaviour*, 24, 1686-1706.
- Nevill, M. (2008). The impact of reading self-efficacy and the regulation of cognition on the reading achievement of an intermediate elementary sample. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania*.
- Perry, R., Hladkyi, S., Pelletier, S., & Pekrun, R. (2001). Academic control and action control in the achievement of college students: A longitudinal field study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93, 776- 789.
- Pintrich, P. R. (1999). The role of motivation in promoting and sustaining self-regulated learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 31(6), 459-470.
- Pintrich, P. R., & DeGroot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82 (1), 22-40.
- Pintrich, P., Smith, D., Garcia, T., & McKeachie, W. (1991). *A manual for the use of the motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ)*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, National Centre for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning.
- Pollard, A., & Triggs, P. (1997). *Reflective teaching in secondary education: A handbook for schools and colleges*. London: Cassell.
- Rubel, D. (2008). Perceived classmate, teacher, and parent support and self-regulated learning skills during middle school. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Fordham University*.
- Schleppegrell, M., & Bowman, B. (1995). Problem-posing: A tool for curriculum renewal. *ELT Journal*, 49 (4), 297-307.
- Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 16–29). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Settlage, J., Southerland, S. A., Smith, L. K., & Ceglie, R. (2009). Constructing a doubt-free teaching self: self-efficacy, teacher identity, and science instruction within diverse settings. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 46 (1), 102-125.
- Shawer, S. F. (2010). Classroom-level curriculum development: EFL teachers as curriculum-developers, curriculum-makers and curriculum-transmitters. *Teaching and teacher education*, 26 (2), 173-184.
- Shawer, S. F. (2009). Classroom-level teacher professional development and satisfaction: Teachers learn in the context of classroom-level curriculum development. *Paper presented at the International Professional Development Conference, Birmingham, UK, November 28th, 2009*.
- Shawer, S. F., Gilmore, D., & Banks-Joseph, S. (2009). Learner-driven EFL curriculum developments at the classroom level. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 20, (2), 125-143.
- Shawer, S. F., Gilmore, D., & Banks-Joseph, S. (2008). Student cognitive and affective development in the context of classroom-level curriculum development. *Journal of the scholarship of teaching and learning*, 8 (1), 1-28.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15 (2), 4-14.
- Thompson, R. (2007). Metacognition: An intervention for academically unprepared college students. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Capella University*.
- Thorne, C., & Qiang, W. (1996). Action research in language teacher education. *ELT Journal*, 50 (3), 254-261.
- Usher, E. L. (2009). Sources of middle school students' self-efficacy in mathematics: a qualitative investigation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46 (1), 275-314.
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19 (4), 515-537.
- White, R. (1988). *The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Winne, P., & Jamieson-Noel, D. (2003). Self-regulated studying by objectives for learning: Students' reports compared to a model. *Cotemporary Educational Psychology*, 28, 259-277.
- Wolters, C. (2003). Regulation of motivation: Evaluating and underemphasizing aspect of self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 38, 189-205.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: an overview. *Educational Psychologist*, 25, 3-17.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2001). Development of self-regulated learning: Which are the key sub-processes? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 16, 307-313.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 64-72.
- Zusho, A., & Pintrich, P. (2003). Skill and will: The role of motivation and cognition in the learning of college chemistry. *International Journal of Science Education*, 25, 1081-1094.

Appendix C: The methods of teaching English test

College of Education

Methods of teaching English (80 points)

90 min.

Name:..... Student ID.....

Choose the correct answer by inserting **A, B, C, D or E** in the correct box of each question in the answer-sheet. Each question has only one correct answer. Submit the answer-sheet and keep the questions sheet for yourself. Questions points are shown on the answer sheet.

Multiple-choice questions:

(Total: 80)

1. You observed a teacher start, teach and end a lesson as in table 1 below, which method did she use?

Starting lesson	Table 1
Teaching the lesson	1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by presenting it through a projector 1. teacher says the command (look at the ceiling) as herself performs the action (she looks at the ceiling) (step 1) 2. teacher says the command as teacher + students perform action (teacher & students look at the ceiling) (step 2) 3. teacher says the command (look at the ceiling), but students only perform the action (students only look at the ceiling) (step 3) 4. teacher says a command to one student at a time, she performs the action (student looks at the ceiling) (step 4) 5. this time one student says a command as teacher + other students perform the action (teacher & other students look at the ceiling) (step 5) 6. expansion of commands on new sentences and situations where teacher says new commands (look right, look left, look up, look down), and teacher and students follow the same five steps mentioned above (step 6)
Closing lesson	1. teacher summarizes the lesson commands 2. teacher sets homework and preparation points of the coming lesson

- a) the audio-lingual method
b) the grammar translation method
c) community language learning
d) total physical response
e) none of them

2. In table 1 above, what is the language approach/ theory that underlies the method?

- a) the structural approach
b) the comprehension approach
c) the communicative approach
d) b + c
e) All of them

3. In table 1 above, what do you think the teacher's role is?

- a) participant b) director c) actor/ performer d) a + c e) All of them

4. In table 1 above, what do you think the students' role is?

- a) participants b) active listeners c) performers d) a + c e) All of them

5. In table 1 above, what do you think the major classroom activities are?

- a) imperatives b) role-play c) intensive reading d) a + b e) b + c

6. You observed a teacher approach a lesson as in table 2 below, which method did the teacher use?

Starting the lesson	Table 2
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by writing it on the board
	<p>Stage 1: 1. student communicates in native language to teacher what she wishes to say to the group.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. teacher translates student's ideas to her in target language in simple sentences and warm way. 3. student turns to the group and says her ideas in target language. Teacher supports rather than correcting student.
	<p>Stage 2: 1. student communicates in native language to teacher what she wishes to say to the group.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. student turns to the group and communicates her ideas directly to the group in the target language. Teacher supports rather than correcting student where necessary.
	<p>4. Stage 3: 1. student speaks directly to the group in the target language. Teacher supports rather than correcting student.</p>
Teaching the lesson	<p>Stage 4: 1. student speaks freely in the target language to the group.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. teacher directly intervenes to correct grammar, pronunciation etc. (student feels safe to accept corrections).
	<p>Stage 5: 1. student also speaks freely in the target language to the group.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. teacher intervenes to correct grammar & pronunciation and to add vocabulary, idioms and elegant sentences. 3. student become teacher/ counselor to the group in stages 1, 2 and 3.
	<p>Recording: classroom activities are recorded for reflection</p>
	<p>Transcription: recorded activities are transcribed for studying grammar points and vocabulary</p>
	<p>Practice/ analysis: students analyze transcriptions to study grammar and vocabulary</p>

	Group work: students discuss the lesson topic or prepare for a conversation
Closing the lesson	1. reflection/free discussion: students reflect on activities to discuss learning and express their feelings 2. teacher sets homework and preparation points of the coming lesson

- a) the direct method
b) the audio-lingual method
c) community language learning
d) total physical response
e) none of them

7. In table 2 above, what is the medium of classroom communication?

- a) target language
b) native language
c) a + b
d) None of them

8. Which of the following methods does translation form a usual classroom activity?

- a) grammar-translation method
b) Suggestopedia
c) Community language learning
d) All of them

9. In which of the following methods native language is allowed to be used for instruction?

- a) Community language learning
b) Suggestopedia
c) Silent way
d) All of them

10. Which of the following reflects the principles of the comprehension approach?

- a) comprehension ability (listening) develops and precedes productive skills (speaking)
b) teaching of speaking must be delayed until comprehension is established
c) comprehension occurs through listening and transfers into other skills
d) teaching should minimize learner stress
e) All of them

11. You observed a teacher approach a lesson as in table 3 below, which method did the teacher use?

	Table 3
Starting lesson	1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by writing it on the board
Teaching lesson	1. teacher points to sound chart and tap out sound blocks without saying anything 2. students say a sound or word while other students correct if there is a mistake 3. teacher points to a rod and then to the colored blocks that represent it on sound chart, students say the word 4. teacher points to a red rod and points to the sound blocks, students respond (red rod) 5. teacher asks a student to take a specific colored rod and asks her to tap out block sounds (students take turns) 6. teacher uses fingers to refer to position of words needing correction 7. students form words by tapping out sounds on sound charts 8. students form sentences by tapping out words on word charts
Closing lesson	1. teacher asks students for feedback about the lesson 2. no homework

- a) the silent way
b) Suggestopedia
c) community language learning
d) the direct method
e) total physical response

12. In table 3 above, which of the following underpins the method you chose for question 11 above?

- a) discovery learning
b) problem-solving
c) All of them
d) None of them

13. You observed a teacher teach a lesson as in the table 4 below, which method did the teacher use?

	Table 4
Starting the lesson	1. classroom-set up: teacher sets up a colorful and cheerful classroom setting by making sure there are comfortable seats, dim lights, tape recorder, and music materials 2. peripheral learning: teacher makes sure there are decorations, posters and wall charts about language elements of vocabulary, grammar points, pronunciation, and so on. 3. positive suggestion: through direct suggestion, teacher helps students to overcome preconceived psychological barriers that they cannot learn. Teacher stresses learning will be easy, playful and that they will be successful (de-suggestion). Through indirect suggestion, teacher ensures the learning setting reflects affective support. 4. teacher introduces the lesson topic by presenting it through oral presentation 5. learning material: teacher prepares a lengthy dialogue text in the target language (between 800-1200 words) together with a translation into the mother tongue and hands out a copy to each of the 12 students. Teacher makes sure grammar and vocabulary points are highlighted under the text and in boldface in the text 6. choosing new identity: teacher asks students to choose a new name and new profession (identity) in the target language to help students relax and act in their fictional characters.
	(1) The receptive phase A) active concert: 1. teacher introduces the story as related in the dialogue

Teaching the lesson	2. teacher draws students' attention to grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary points in the text 3. teacher reads the dialogue in the target language 4. students listen and follow teacher's reading of the dialogue in their bilingual texts 5. teacher plays background classic music and adjusts her reading in rate and intonation to the music B) passive concert: 1. teacher asks students to put their texts aside and listen to teacher loud reading 2. background music on, teacher reads at a normal speed without adjusting voice to music while students listen (2) The activation phase 1. primary activation: students as individuals or groups loudly re-read the dialogue playfully in the target language 2. creative adaptation: students participate in various activities to study aspects of target language with focus on meaning or content than forms (sing, dance, role-play (dramatization), games)
Closing the lesson	1. No homework, teacher suggests that students read the text before going to bed and after waking up
a) the silent way c) the audio-lingual method d) the direct method e) total physical response b) Suggestopedia	

14. In table 4 above, which approach underpins the method you chose for question 13?

- a) humanistic b) communicative c) structural d) All of them e) None of them

15. Which set of principles in table 5 underpins Community Language Learning?

Set	Table 5
First	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learning is facilitated in a comfortable environment - peripheral learning is a key through learning from environment with minimum effort - the teacher is the complete authority in class whom students must trust as children trust parents - removing self-conceived and psychological barriers increases memory capacity for processing learning. Classic music of 60 beats a minute can increase alpha brain waves and decrease blood pressure and heart rate which increases retention. Learners use only between 5 to 10 % of their mental capacity through traditional learning - learners are encouraged to take new identities and names in the target language as this helps them act freely in their fictional characters. It increases learning.
Second	- teacher generally is silent - learning through mime and gestures - active student learning
Third	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - security: providing maximum support and affection for learners to feel secure - aggression: learner uses what she learnt to show self-assertion - attention: students pay attention as a sign of involvement in learning - reflection: students reflect on the transcript of actual learning and get silent to think of what they learned - retention: students integrate what they learned into their schema as language learners - discrimination: students make differences between language elements and relate aspects to others

- a) first set b) second set c) third set d) all of them e) a + c

16. Which set of activities in table 6 is typical of the silent way?

Set	Table 6
First	Translation: teacher translates what the client wants to say into target language Group work: learners discuss a topic or prepare for a conversational topic Recording: conversations in the target language are tape recorded Transcription: recorded conversations are transcribed for analysis of language forms and vocabulary Analysis: transcriptions are analyzed to study grammar points, vocabulary, pronunciation etc. Reflection: students reflect on class activities, what they learnt and express their feelings etc. Listening: clients listen to the counselor's conversation and translations in the target language Free conversation: students discuss among themselves and with the teacher their feelings and learning
Second	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - working on sounds through sound charts and Fidel charts - working on words through word charts - focus on pronunciation & pointing to things and actions - working on situations to present language structures and meaning, one at a time - practice of sounds, words and structures
Third	- reading, singing, role-play, games, dance etc.

- a) first set b) second set c) third set d) b + C e) none of them

17. Which of the elements in table 7 represents a Fidel chart?

	Table 7
First	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a wall chart with block rectangles - each block of rectangles has a different color - each rectangle represents one sound of the target language

	- the chart is divided into two parts, the first is for the vowel sounds, the second for consonants - students use it to build words with correct pronunciation
Second	- functional words are written on charts - each letter of the word is written in the same color representing the sound
Third	- each sound corresponds with a particular color letter in addition to listing many different spellings of the same sound (e.g. veil, weigh, steak, say) and (phone, food, rough)

- a) first row b) second row c) third row d) all of them e) none of them

18. In table 8 below, you have 3 ways of *starting* lessons. Each reflects the way of starting lessons of a specific method. In table 9, you have 3 ways of *teaching* lessons. Each reflects the way of teaching lessons of a specific method. In table 10, you have 3 ways of *closing* lessons. Each reflects the way of closing lessons of a specific method. Which combination of the following represents the process of *starting, teaching and closing* a lesson according to the grammar translation method?

Table 8	
A	1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by writing it on the board or presenting it through a projector 2. teacher prepares an audio tape to play
B	1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by presenting it through a projector
C	1. teacher introduces the lesson topic by writing it on the board 2. teacher writes the language rules/ forms (structures) to be taught on the board 3. teacher writes a bilingual list of vocabulary on the board

Table 9	
A	1. teacher plays a short dialogue at a time and demonstrates new vocabulary through classroom objects and realia 2. teacher pronounces the new vocabulary very clearly 3. teacher engages students in kinesthetic activities where students learn the language through movements and actions (e.g., come here, go there, stand up, sit down etc.). 4. teacher uses paralanguage (gesture, mime, pointing to things) to get students do actions 5. teacher asks students questions about the dialogues/ texts 6. teacher asks personal questions and sets speaking activities by asking students to ask one another personal questions 7. students read a text aloud
B	1. teacher reads each vocabulary in the target language and gives meaning in mother tongue out of context 2. through mother tongue, teacher explicitly explains and analyzes each structure/ grammar rule in order 3. teacher asks students to practice similar sentences by analyzing their structure and giving answers 4. teacher gives a text about the literature of target language for students to read and answer questions 5. teacher gives students a sample writing to emulate in terms of tense, structure, punctuation etc. 6. teacher gives students texts to translate word for word from and to the mother tongue
C	The presentation phase: 1. teacher presents the lesson topic through a taped conversation, a video or a reading text 2. teacher explains new vocabulary in context out of a listening or reading text and presents language functions 3. teacher explains a grammatical point inductively in the context of the reading/ listening text The guided/ controlled practice phase: 1. teacher sets pairs or small groups where students read or listen to a text to answer some comprehension questions 2. language functions practice in situations (e.g., could you open the door? Could you close the window? Could you pass me that book? The students answer this request by saying, sure.). 3. teacher sets collaborative activities (pairs or small groups) where students work to find out the grammatical rationale for some sentences and functions in a reading or dialogue 4. students write a paragraph about a real world issue relating to the lesson topic The free practice/ production phase: 1. students work in pairs or small groups to negotiate personal issues and practice language functions in situations 2. students write a paragraph about a personal matter

Table 10	
A	1. teacher asks students to write a short piece of writing about the lesson and gives a dictation 2. teacher sets homework and preparation points of the coming lesson
B	1. teacher asks students to submit their paragraphs 2. teacher sets homework and preparation points of the coming lesson
C	1. teacher summarizes the rules 2. teacher sets homework and preparation points of the coming lesson

- a) from table 8, C to start the lesson; table 9, B to teach the lesson; table 10, C to close the lesson
 b) from table 8, A to start the lesson; table 9, A to teach the lesson; table 10, A to close the lesson
 c) from table 8, C to start the lesson; table 9, C to teach the lesson; table 10, A to close the lesson d) none of them

19. From tables 8, 9 and 10 above which combination of the following represents the process of *starting, teaching and closing* a lesson according to the audio-lingual method?

- a) from table 8, B to start the lesson; table 9, B to teach the lesson; table 10, C to close the lesson
 b) from table 8, C to start the lesson; table 9, A to teach the lesson; table 10, B to close the lesson
 c) from table 8, C to start the lesson; table 9, A to teach the lesson; table 10, A to close the lesson d) none of them

20. Which method reflects the features in table 11 below?

Table 11	
language theory/ approach	<u>Structuralism</u> : students learn language by analyzing language forms into sentences, words, subject, verb etc. <u>Contrastive analysis</u> : students learn language through comparing the similarities and differences between the target and mother tongue. By predicting the possible interference between them, optimal learning can be expected
learning theory	<u>Behaviorism</u> : language forms are broken down into small parts that students practice. Correct responses are positively reinforced to help form correct language habits.
purpose	Student to form language habits through intensive drills
medium of instruction	the target language only grammar instruction taught inductively through dialogues
vocabulary instruction	Vocabulary is taught out of context through drawings and pictures
materials	Phrase books that students practice and memorize.

- a) the silent way
 c) the direct method
 d) all of them
 b) community language learning
 e) none of them

21. Which of the following best describes the term teaching?

- a) a deliberate activity teachers plan to make cognitive changes in learners
 b) a deliberate activity teachers plan to make cognitive, affective or psychomotor changes in learners
 c) a cognitive change that occurs to learners d) all of them e) none of them

22. Which of the following best describes the term learning:

- a) the cognitive change that occurs to learners
 b) the psychomotor change that occurs to learners
 c) the cognitive, affective or psychomotor change that occurs to learners d) none of them

23. An approach is:

- a) the theory upon which a teaching method is based
 c) the set of beliefs that guide the planning and implementation of teaching
 b) a linguistic or learning theory
 d) all of them

24. A teaching method is:

- a) the activities and tasks which the teacher selects and employs to achieve classroom learning
 b) all that the teacher and students do in the classroom with regard to classroom teaching and learning
 c) the description of activities in a learning situation d) all of them e) none of them

25. Which of the following best describes the term 'need':

- a) learners' readiness or tendency to learn something
 b) what people like and dislike
 c) a malfunction that occurs to something as a result of the absence of the whole or part of something
 d) a tendency to produce the same response to a specific stimulus that is repeated whenever the stimulus appears
 e) what makes people do what they do.

26. Which is the correct order of definitions in table 12?

- a) reading, scanning, comprehension & skimming
 c) reading, comprehension, scanning, & skimming
 b) reading, skimming, comprehension & scanning
 d) comprehension, reading, skimming & scanning

Table 12	
Row 1	a process of making sense or decoding the text to extract meaning out of it
Row 2	constructing necessary information for explaining the content of discourse
Row 3	reading quickly through text in search for a specific piece of information
Row 4	reading through the headings of the text in order to get a general sense of the text

27. Which type of materials in table 13 best describes *authentic materials*?

Table 13	
Row 1	material involving control over language (vocabulary, tense & information) for a particular learner type
Row 2	material written for native speakers of the target language
Row 3	material written for native speakers but simplified through adjusting it to suit a particular type of learner

a) row 1

b) row 2

c) row 3

d) all of them

e) none of them

28. Which of the *functions* in table 14 do the *while-reading phase activities* intend to achieve?

Table 14	
Row 1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to activate student existing schema (what they know) about the text
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to assess student available schema (information) about the text
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to introduce key vocabulary in the text that is necessary for understanding the text
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to use the most relevant materials to the learners
Row 2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to direct and facilitate student interaction with the text
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable students to become active and keep them interested during reading the text
Row 3	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to check student comprehension/ understanding of the text
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> they enable teachers to direct student attention to focus on actual meaning of the text not opinions

a) row 1

b) row 2

c) row 3

d) all of them

e) none of them

Table 15	
Row 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it builds on schema/ content theory of active information processing and meaning of the text than language elements - it activates and links learners' prior knowledge about the text to the knowledge in the text - it acknowledges the reader's characteristics including age, motivation, interests, culture and so on
Row 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it builds on formal schema theory by learning about language itself (sounds, letters, syllables, phrases, sentences) - there is emphasis on the lowest levels of cognitive development - it reflects behaviorism through heavy drills of small units up to larger units of language - students develop their learning ability through <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. matching sounds and letters 2. matching words and syllables 3. focus on the grammar in the text 4. focus on reference cohesive devices like 'they' and 'the latter' 5. focus on lexical cohesive devices like synonyms & connectives like 'moreover' (addition), and 'whereas' (contrast). - It underlies the phonics method that emphasizes: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. decoding sounds & letters of the text 2. decoding words and analyzing sentences of the text 3. establishing connections between these linear elements 4. rote learning 5. no information processing

29. Which row in table 15 represents the principles of the *bottom-up approach* to reading?

a) row 1

b) row 2

c) row 1 + 2

d) all of them

e) none of them

30. Which of the following does *intensive reading* involve?

a) individual-based, long texts & a long time

b) a topic of interest & large quantity of material

c) group-based, short texts (one page) & a short time

d) focus on reading strategies

e) c + d

31. Which is the correct order of the reading techniques in table 16?

Table 16	
Row 1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> a mental process to anticipate what the text will be about.
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> eliminating irrelevant issues to the text and focusing on the relevant issues
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> posing questions about the text to predict its content
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> using available information to figure out the content of the text
Row 2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> looking at pictures, the title of the text, the headings & sub-headings in the text
Row 3	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> reading first and last paragraph to check initial expectations about the text
Row 4	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> drawing a mental plan about the text and scanning it for salient information to complete parts of the plan
Row 5	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> students take notes about key vocabulary, words, and key information and details

a) previewing, prediction, semantic mapping & note-taking

b) semantic mapping, prediction, previewing & note-taking

c) note-taking, semantic mapping, previewing & prediction

d) all of them

e) none of them

32. What do you think the activities in table 17 reflect?

a) pre-listening phase

b) while-listening phase

c) post-listening phase

d) all of them

Table 17

a) individual-based activities

1. students figure out the purpose, central idea, main ideas, and supporting ideas in the text
2. students figure out the tone, style, and discourse type of the text as well as the target audience
3. students answer some specific questions about the content of text (meaning) and structure
4. students back reference by citing evidence from the text

b) pair/ small group-based activities

1. students work in pairs to discuss meaning extracted from the text and cross check answers to questions
2. students work in small groups to discuss meaning and to reach agreed-upon answers to questions

c) whole-class-based activities: 1. teacher and students discuss and answer each element in the text**33. Which of the following is a pre-speaking activity?**

- a) opening, closing & keeping a conversation going b) language functions and pronunciation activities
c) communication strategies & conversation skills practice d) all of them e) none of them

34. A structure is:

- a) the set of rules that govern a language b) one rule of grammar c) all of them d) none of them

35. Which of the following is not a technique for teaching grammar/ structures?

- a) Spelling out the meaning of structure b) Spelling out the form of structure
c) practicing meaning and form in communicative activities d) role-play e) all of them

36. Which of the following is *part of spelling out the meaning of structure*?

- a) visual representation b) verbal representation c) all of them d) none of them

37. Grammar could be taught through which of the following:

- a) inductive method b) deductive method c) role-play d) a + b e) none of them

38. A teacher taught a grammar lesson as shown in table 18. Which method did the teacher use?

- a) inductive method b) communicative method c) role-play d) a + b e) none of them

Starting the lesson	Table 18
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. teacher introduced the lesson topic by writing future perfect tense on the board 2. teacher wrote the rule or formation (will/ shall have + pp) on the board
Teaching the lesson	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. teacher explained the rule as follows: teacher says FUTURE means (shall or will). I and we take SHALL but all pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, they, and we) take WILL. Teacher says PERFECT means have, has or had but we must use have because WILL or SHALL must be followed by the infinitive. Teacher uses the rule in examples to show the students how they could apply it as follows: He will have traveled to America by 2009. I shall/ will have traveled to America before 2009. The students were asked to use the rule in examples similar to those used by their teacher. For example, the teacher said (finish school) while pointing to a student. The student answered 'I will/shall have finished school by July. The teacher followed the same steps in teaching the students the use (function) of the tense. 2. teacher asked questions about the lesson and students answered and set exercises of the rule for the students
closing lesson	1. teacher summarized the lesson & set homework and preparation points of the coming lesson

39. Which of the following is a vocabulary teaching technique?

- a) ostensive b) verbal c) audio d) b + c e) a + b + c

40. Which of the following is exactly part of the ostensive technique?

- a) realia, word sets, synonyms, antonyms b) pictures and drawings
c) body expressions, cognates, continuum d) all of them e) none of them

41. Which of the following best describes cognates?

- a) words or languages having the same origin b) putting words on a continuum from the smallest to the biggest
c) group or family words which have relationships to one another d) real objects and materials

42. Which of the following is the correct definition of vocabulary?

- a) all words which exist in a language b) the smallest isolable and meaningful unit of discourse c) all of them

43. Which of the following is a *function* word? a) the b) book c) car d) all of them**44. Which of the following do you think is a vocabulary?**

- a) phrasal verb b) compound noun c) expression d) all of them e) none of them
- 45. Which of the following is a *morpheme*?** a) work b) -er c) able d) un- e) all of them
- 46. Which of the following is a definition of a *morpheme*?**
a) a speech element that has a meaning or grammatical function which cannot be sub-divided into further elements
b) a verb that comprises more than one element whether or not meaning can be deduced from its constituents
c) a group of words whose meaning cannot be inferred from the constituent words d) all of them
- 47. A phoneme refers to:** a) sounds b) letters c) all of them d) none of them
- 48. A grapheme refers to:** a) sounds b) letters c) all of them d) none of them
- 49. A teacher found out that students cannot speak English at all while they will go to a native speaking country to study for a master. This means:**
a) the students have enduring belief of a specific mode of conduct to prefer an attribute to another opposite one
b) the students have a discrepancy need that must be addressed
c) the students have a basic need that must be addressed d) all of them e) none of them
- 50. Motivation is:**
a) what makes people do what they do. b) what people know about something or the world
c) a tendency to produce the same response to a specific stimulus. it is repeated whenever the stimulus appears.
d) all of them e) none of them

GOOD LUCK

Appendix D: Alignment matrix of the test 50 items with the six levels of cognitive objectives

<i>Questions</i>	<i>Remember</i>	<i>Understand</i>	<i>Apply</i>	<i>Analyze</i>	<i>Evaluate</i>	<i>Create</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Unit total questions</i>	<i>Unit questions</i>
1					✓		1	10	3, 4, 5, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 49, 50
2		✓							
3		✓							
4		✓							
5		✓							
6					✓				
7		✓							
8	✓								
9	✓								
10	✓								
11					✓				
12		✓							
13					✓		2	3	2,10, 14,
14		✓							
15		✓							
16				✓					
17		✓							
18						✓			
19						✓			
20				✓					
21		✓							
22		✓							
23	✓								
24		✓					3	14	1,6,7,8,9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20,
25	✓								
26	✓								
27	✓								
28				✓					
29				✓					
30		✓							
31		✓							
32			✓						
33	✓								
34	✓								
35	✓								
36	✓						4	8	26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33,
37	✓								
38			✓						
39	✓								
40		✓							
41	✓								
42	✓								
43		✓							
44			✓				5	15	34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
45			✓						
46	✓								
47			✓						
48			✓						
49		✓							
50	✓								
Total	17	17	6	4	4	2		50	

Appendix E: Answer Key

College of Education

Answer Key (80 points)

Methods of teaching English

Multiple-choice questions:**(Total: 80)**

Question	Answer	Question	Answer
1.	D	26	C
2.	B	27	B
3.	E	28	B
4.	E	29	B
5.	D	30	E
6.	C	31	E
7.	C	32	C
8.	D	33	D
9.	D	34	B
10.	E	35	D
11.	A	36	C
12.	C	37	D
13.	B	38	E
14.	A	39	E
15.	C	40	B
16.	B	41	A
17.	C	42	A
18.	A	43	A
19.	D	44	D
20.	E	45	E
21.	B	46	A
22.	C	47	A
23.	D	48	B
24.	A	49	C
25.	C	50	A
Total		Total	

Appendix F: Answer Sheet

College of Education Answer sheet (80 points) Methods of teaching English Time: 90 min.
 Name:..... ID:.....

Choose the correct answer by inserting **A, B, C, D or E** in the correct box of each question in the answer-sheet. Each question has only one correct answer. Submit the answer-sheet and keep the questions sheet for yourself.

Multiple-choice questions:

(Total: 80)

Question	Answer	score	Question	Answer	score
1.		3	26.		1
2.		1	27.		1
3.		1	28.		3
4.		1	29.		3
5.		1	30.		1
6.		3	31.		1
7.		1	32.		2
8.		1	33.		1
9.		1	34.		1
10.		1	35.		1
11.		3	36.		1
12.		1	37.		1
13.		3	38.		2
14.		1	39.		1
15.		1	40.		1
16.		3	41.		1
17.		1	42.		1
18.		5	43.		1
19.		5	44.		2
20.		3	45.		2
21.		1	46.		1
22.		1	47.		2
23.		1	48.		2
24.		1	49.		1
25.		1	50.		1
Total		45	Total		35

Scorer's name: