

# EFL Pre-Service Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

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**Gilman, Adriana**

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Sveučilište J. J. Strossmayera u Osijeku

Filozofski fakultet Osijek

Studij: Dvopredmetni sveučilišni diplomski studij engleskog jezika i  
književnosti – nastavnički smjer i mađarskog jezika i književnosti –  
komunikološki smjer

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**Mišljenja budućih nastavnika engleskog jezika o samoefikasnosti**

Diplomski rad

Mentor: doc. dr. sc. Draženka Molnar

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*Adriana Gilman*, 0122232500

## Table of contents

1. Introduction.....	1
2. Theoretical overview.....	2
2.1. A background for articulating teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.....	2
2.2. Contemporary studies.....	5
3. Teaching English for pre-service teachers.....	7
3.1. Pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching English.....	7
3.2. Language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs.....	8
3.2.1. Language proficiency and attitudes.....	8
3.2.2. Classroom practices.....	9
3.3. Pre-service English teachers' and the teaching practicum.....	10
3.3.1. Benefits of school experience for pre-service teachers.....	13
3.3.2. Learning environment.....	14
4. Key elements of effective language teaching.....	14
4.1. Teaching methods and techniques.....	14
4.2. Factors influencing self-efficacy.....	15
4.3. Teaching effectiveness.....	16
4.3.1. Class-wide teaching practice.....	17
4.3.2. Student engagement.....	19
4.3.3. Instructional strategies.....	20
4.3.4. Classroom management.....	22
4.4. Learning styles and strategies.....	23
4.5. Teaching strategies and techniques for school learners.....	26
5. Research.....	27
5.1. Aim, research questions and hypotheses.....	27
5.2. Participants.....	28
5.3. Instruments and procedure.....	29

5.4. Results .....	30
5.5. Discussion.....	39
6. Conclusion .....	40
Bibliography.....	43
Appendix .....	49



## **Abstract**

Understanding teachers' own self-efficacy beliefs and emotions regarding teaching significantly impacts their classroom performance. This paper, conducted at the University of Osijek, aimed to identify pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching English language, classroom management, instructional strategies and student engagement. Employing questionnaire, participants were prompted to express their perspectives on various aspects of teaching English as a foreign language. The results were studied through IBM SPSS statistics. The findings revealed that pre-service teachers harbored well-established and coherent beliefs shaped by their prior experiences. Notably, those enrolled in the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners* exhibited particularly insightful viewpoints. Finally, the study concludes by proposing avenues for future research and offering practical suggestions to inform teaching practices.

**Keywords:** pre-service teachers, self-efficacy beliefs, teaching English, young learners

## **Sažetak**

Razumijevanje vlastitih uvjerenja i emocija učitelja o poučavanju značajno utječe na njihovu izvedbu u učionici. Ovo istraživanje, provedeno na Sveučilištu u Osijeku, imalo je za cilj identificirati mišljenja budućih nastavnika engleskog jezika o samoeфикаsnosti u poučavanju engleskog jezika, upravljanju učionicom, nastavnim strategijama i sudjelovanju učenika. Ispunjavajući upitnik, sudionici su izrazili svoje mišljenje o različitim aspektima poučavanja engleskog jezika kao stranog jezika. Rezultati SPSS analize su pokazali da su mišljenja budućih nastavnika engleskog jezika koherentna i čvrsto oblikovana njihovim prethodnim iskustvima. Primjetno je da su ispitanici koji su pohađali izborni kolegij *Nastava engleskog jezika u ranoj školskoj dobi* pokazali posebno pronicljiva stajališta. U zaključnom dijelu rada, predlažu se teme za buduća istraživanja i nude praktični savjeti za njihovo provođenje u praksi.

**Ključne riječi:** budućí nastavnici, mišljenja o samoeфикаsnosti, poučavanje engleskog kao stranog jezika, učenici mlađe školske dobi

## 1. Introduction

Teaching is considered as one of the top challenging and demanding professions. It involves continuous learning throughout one's career and requires a lifelong commitment to personal and professional development. Becoming a teacher is an arduous process that calls for hard-work, commitment, ethics, discipline and a lot of patience. Being a teacher is more of a calling than just a job itself. Existing studies on challenges for prospective teachers, especially regarding self-efficacy beliefs in English language teaching and practical school experience, are still scarce. Key questions, such as factors influencing novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the potential impact this system might have on their careers, remain unanswered. Pre-service teachers may face challenges when they have to apply theoretical knowledge and teaching strategies in real-life classrooms, leading to frustration despite their theoretical preparation. The questions outlined below frequently present a challenge for individuals training to become English language educators: What elements impact the self-efficacy beliefs of these pre-service teachers concerning their ability to teach English in an academic setting? Is the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy belief framework subject to change? Moreover, how might this belief system affect their future careers – does it serve as a motivator or a limitation? Considering everything mentioned, prospective educators occasionally find themselves unprepared for the practical part of the classroom. Despite possessing theoretical knowledge and language proficiency, they encounter difficulties translating these into effective classroom practices. Consequently, this disparity often leads to feelings of personal discouragement or frustration.

The training received by pre-service teachers and their individual self-efficacy beliefs and perceptions about teaching play crucial roles in shaping their future practices. It is likely that they will adopt teaching methods similar to those they were exposed to during their own training. However, these beliefs are not only significant for their personal and professional growth, but also have a profound impact on their students. This is why this thesis seeks to investigate potential variations in self-efficacy beliefs among pre-service English language teachers, with specific reference to gender and academic year of study, as well as the impact of their views on the existing teaching methods and techniques.

The thesis is divided into two main parts: a theoretical and a research component. The theoretical section lays the groundwork for the practical aspect of the study. In Chapter 2, a review of existing literature highlights significant research findings related to teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, alongside various explanations of the meaning as articulated by various

scholars. Chapter 3 provides a concise overview of teachers' beliefs and their influence on instructional practices, with a focus on self-efficacy in language education. It explores the role of the teaching practicum in shaping pre-service teachers and emphasizes the importance of supportive learning environments for teacher development.

Chapter 4 examines strategies for teaching effective thinking, emphasizing the significance of critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving in education. It explores various teaching methods, such as direct instruction, problem-based learning, and Socratic questioning, while also introducing cognitive tools like graphic organizers and mind maps to aid student understanding. Assessment techniques, including formative and peer assessments, are discussed in alignment with instructional goals. The text also addresses challenges like student resistance and the need for teacher preparation, offering solutions such as professional development. It concludes by underscoring the importance of teaching thinking skills to prepare students for complex, real-world problems.

Chapter 5 presents the findings from the research conducted alongside pre-service English language teachers at the University of Osijek. A questionnaire on students' self-efficacy beliefs serves as the key instrument for data collection. Following the analysis of the data with IBM SPSS Statistics, which included descriptive analysis and statistical tests (Independent Samples t-test), the chapter discusses the obtained quantitative results and offers suggestions for further research.

## 2. Theoretical overview

The section that follows will outline a structure for explaining educators' beliefs in their self-efficacy, accompanied by a focused examination of past research endeavors addressing this subject on a global scale.

### 2.1. A background for articulating teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

The notion of self-efficacy relates to a person's confidence in their capacity to effectively plan and carry out actions needed to handle future challenges (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). It is a belief specific to tasks that influences choices, effort, and perseverance when faced with challenges, and is also linked to the individual's emotional state. Unlike broader constructs such as self-esteem or general confidence, self-efficacy is focused on specific tasks. These beliefs are shaped

by various sources of information, which can be gained through direct experiences or indirectly through social evaluations (Bandura, 1986, p. 13). Self-efficacy beliefs are considered crucial components in many modern theories of motivation (Graham & Weiner, 1996). They play a mediating role in various factors related to teacher effectiveness, including job satisfaction, intentions to leave the profession, adjustment to new roles, and training for new teachers (Saks, 1995 as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 14). Additionally, self-efficacy beliefs influence the relationship between responsibility and continuous learning (Martocchio & Judge, 1997, p. 764). These attributes suggest that self-efficacy has significant potential for enhancing teacher development initiatives. Teachers face significant challenges in adopting and integrating student-centered strategies, techniques, and methodologies that promote skill development and support independent studying. The success of these instructional methods largely depends on teachers' self-assessment and their confidence in handling the adjustments required by learner-centered approaches (Rodríguez, Núñez, Valle, Blas & Rosario, 2009, p. 6). This self-perception, known as self-efficacy, is crucial in determining how teachers choose assignments and activities. It influences their effort, persistence when encountering challenges, and emotional responses to difficult situations. Self-efficacy serves as a cognitive framework that influences the relationship between knowledge and behavior, along with various other factors, impacting the effectiveness of teaching methods (Prieto, 2003 as referenced in Villardón, 2012). A number of studies (Guskey, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Bamburg, 2004) indicate that teachers with high self-efficacy levels are more enthusiastic and open-minded, show greater willingness to consider new suggestions and teaching methods, organize their classes better, and are more content with their teaching. To be concise, self-efficacy beliefs influence how teachers approach their own teaching and how they see the concept of educational process, which in turn affects the overall quality of both learning and teaching (Villardón, 2012). Although teachers' self-efficacy beliefs play an important role in the teaching process, they are insufficient on their own to guarantee effective teaching. Educators must also express sympathy to their students and disseminate knowledge which would help them reach their learning goals. In other words, simply believing in one's teaching abilities does not automatically ensure high-quality instruction. Comprehensive knowledge, proper training, and wide array skills are crucial to fostering student learning as well (Villardón, 2012).

According to Bray-Clark and Bates (2003, p. 14-15), research related to teachers and their self-efficacy began over twenty years ago. Since then, surveys on teacher self-efficacy have greatly

advanced, uncovering a significant amount of information about its potential impact on teacher effectiveness. One key finding is that firm self-efficacy beliefs can enhance teachers' willingness to apply skills acquired during in-service training in their classrooms. For instance, studies on employee training have shown that interventions designed to boost self-efficacy regarding specific future behaviors substantially increase the likelihood of those behaviors being demonstrated at work (Eden & Kinnar, 1991 as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 15).

Research indicates that self-efficacy beliefs can significantly improve teachers' ability to manage stressful and challenging situations. Teachers with affirmative and positive beliefs in their teaching abilities are more inclined to take risks and implement new techniques (Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988 as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 15). They are also more confident in conducting experiments and persevere with more demanding strategies, which can consequently have a more positive impact on student achievement.

Over time, research on teacher self-efficacy has grown and uncovered a lot of evidence suggesting that it plays a key role in improving teacher performance in several areas (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 15). This is consistent with the findings suggesting that individuals with high self-efficacy experience greater stimulation but reduced anxiety in stressful situations compared to individuals with low self-efficacy (Jerusalem & Mittag, 1995 as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 15). In other words, self-efficacy beliefs can influence an individual's resilience when confronted with challenges and correlate negatively with the level of stress and anxiety experienced in various situations (Pintrich & Schunk, 1995 as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 15).

The current state of professional development for many teachers often involves isolated, one-time workshops held during "in-service days." During these sessions, teachers passively listen to external "experts" who cover topics that rarely enhance their subject knowledge or teaching abilities (Garet et al., 1999, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 16).

There has been a lack of consistency in how teaching practices are developed, and teachers have not had enough chances to reflect on their work with experienced peers (WestEd, 2000). Additionally, the support provided has not been closely aligned with the subjects, tasks, or skills teachers need to effectively help their students (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 14).

Mathew Miles (1995) strongly agreed and criticized much of the professional development in schools, describing it as ineffective and even disheartening for teachers. He argued that these

programs often fail to enhance teachers' knowledge, skills, or dedication, and can leave them feeling more frustrated and cynical than before (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 14).

Mathew Miles aptly criticizes such professional development efforts, stating that much of what is labeled as professional development in schools is inadequate and even demoralizing. These sessions often leave participants feeling more cynical and no better equipped than before (Miles, 1995, p. viii). Ultimately, teachers require in-service practice that address their real classroom needs, enhance their teaching effectiveness, and improve student outcomes. Bray-Clark and Bates (2003, p. 14) highlight the need for effective in-service training by emphasizing that professional development should be aligned with actual classroom experiences. They argue that coursework must be relevant and practical offering opportunities that help teachers build both their skills and confidence in the classroom.

## 2.2. Contemporary studies

For more than three decades, there has been a significant increase in the number of studies examining pre-service teachers' and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Johnson, 1994; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Li & Walsh, 2011). Despite their complexity, which makes them challenging to study (Graves, 2000), these beliefs are considered highly valuable in the field of teacher education. According to Pajares (1992, as cited in Li & Walsh, 2011), beliefs are difficult to differentiate from knowledge, making them a "messy construct". It is widely acknowledged that teachers' belief systems profoundly impact their teaching practices. On the one hand, they shape teachers' attitudes, choice of methods, and policies, but on the other hand they influence learners' growth. Horwitz (1987) posits that teachers' beliefs regarding language instruction play a significant role in their teaching practices. Additionally, researchers like Liao and Chiang (2003) and Yang (2000), as mentioned in Shinde and Karekatti (2010, p. 57), have engaged in examining teachers' beliefs related to language learning, students, and their own roles as language teachers.

Contemporary studies indicate that the beliefs of pre-service English teachers are shaped by their past experiences and how these experiences translate into classroom practices (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996). Johnson (1994) discovered that the instructional decisions made by pre-service teachers are frequently influenced by their personal experiences with teachers, materials, activities, and the overall organization of the classroom. She further suggested that

pre-service teachers' formal language learning experiences could be considered a decisive factor influencing pre-service teachers' beliefs (Johnson, 1994, p. 450).

Lamb (1995, as cited in Li and Walsh, 2011) found that teachers' classes are significantly shaped based on their interpretation of the ideas during and after their training courses. Essentially, this suggests that teachers often adopt teaching methods similar to those they experienced as students. Although the exact process of belief formation in teachers is not fully understood, it is evident that their educational experiences play a role in shaping these beliefs. Therefore, it is crucial for teacher educators to identify and address any pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, especially focusing on language teaching, that may hinder their future students' learning, to foster positive educational outcomes.

Some research, such as the work by Phipps and Borg (2009) highlights discrepancies among teacher's self-efficacy beliefs and the actual classroom practices. These inconsistencies are often attributed to various contextual elements, such as a required curriculum. Similarly, Lamb (1995, as cited in Li and Walsh, 2011) identified these inconsistencies arise from difficulties in implementing new ideas within an established syllabus and other practical limitations. On the other hand, Davis (2003, as cited in Li and Walsh, 2011) proposed that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs serve two primary functions: teachers view themselves both as nurturing figures in education and as authoritative educators.

A significant amount of insight into teachers' beliefs can be gained by examining their classroom interactions. Li and Walsh (2011) highlight multiple reasons why interaction is a crucial variable in studying teachers' beliefs. Firstly, they assert the one factor that interconnects with all three; teaching, learning and professional development, is interaction (Li & Walsh, 2011, p. 42), making it fundamental to achieving these goals. Secondly, the choices that educators make regarding education and development are directly influenced by their personal beliefs. Thirdly, an emphasis on interaction allows teachers to get a deeper comprehension of their specific context, which is also influenced by their perception (Li & Walsh, 2011). Additionally, Li and Walsh (2011) reference researchers like Yang (2000), Kern (1995), and Horowitz (1985), who found through studies of interaction that children find it easier to acquire a foreign language than adults. They emphasized the significance of listening and repetition, as well as the necessity of practice in language laboratory. Yang (2000) also identified the importance of teaching culture, while Kern's (1995) study noted that teachers exhibited greater tolerance of errors.



### 3. Teaching English for pre-service teachers

#### 3.1. Pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching English

Scholars in numerous research disciplines, including anthropology, psychology, sociology, and philosophy, commonly discussed the concept of “belief” (Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006), and despite the varied usage of the term, agreed on a consensus on certain defining features of teacher beliefs (Shinde and Karekattii, 2012, p. 72). Some research findings (cf. Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992 as referenced in Shinde and Karekatti, 2012, p. 72) indicate that the teachers' development of professional skills and their instructional methods are shaped by their educational beliefs. However, it wasn't until the 1970s that survey into education began to underscore the importance of teachers' beliefs. During the 1970s and 1980s, investigations primarily concentrated on teachers and their decision-making processes, including how they managed classrooms, structured activities, allocated time, designed lessons, assessed student comprehension, and more. Since the 1990s, there has been a shift towards examining the knowledge and beliefs underpinning teaching practices.

Teachers' perspectives encompassing their values, expectations, attitudes, assumptions, and theories regarding teaching and learning significantly shape their classroom methodologies. These viewpoints typically derive from various influences, such as personal experiences to classroom observations, and formal training received during their educational journey (Richards, 1998 as referenced in Shinde and Karekatti, 2012, p. 73). Researchers have categorized teachers' beliefs into different frameworks. For instance, Johnson (1992) and William & Burden (1997) have delineated teachers' beliefs into three main domains: their perceptions regarding language learning, their views on learners, and their self-perceptions as language educators (as cited in Shinde and Karekatti, 2012, p. 73). Furthermore, a number of studies (Hsieh & Chang, 2002; Johnson, 1992; Kern, 1995; Liao & Chiang, 2003; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992; Yang, 2000) attempted to explore the beliefs of English teachers based on questionnaires or evaluations. Yang's (2000) study elaborates on one such questionnaire entitled *Beliefs about Teaching Children English Survey*. It was initially designed to investigate the prospective English teachers' beliefs by classifying them into the following four major areas: (1) teaching English to children; (2) child development, including teaching strategies and techniques; (3) self-efficacy and expectation; and (4) the nature of language learning.

### 3.2. Language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

Teachers' self-efficacy (TSE) beliefs refer to their confidence in effectively fostering learning across different cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social dimensions, tailored to specific tasks, domains, and contexts (Wyatt, 2008, 2016). As teachers form their self-efficacy beliefs (TSE) regarding specific pedagogical tasks, they engage in reflective processes influenced by various experiences (Fives & Alexander, 2004 as cited in Wyatt, 2008, 2016). These experiences encompass personal successes or failures in similar tasks, observations of others' successes or failures, and feedback on performance (Bandura, 1986, p. 20). Additionally, physiological factors also play a role in shaping TSE beliefs. TSE beliefs are intricately connected with other self-beliefs, such as development and set mindsets (Dweck, 2000 as cited in Wyatt, 2008, 2016), as emphasized by Wyatt (2013). They can be understood as operating within broader motivational frameworks, like Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory (SDT). Within the mentioned theory, self-efficacy beliefs contribute to teachers' perception of proficiency, particularly those who are intrinsically motivated (Wyatt, 2015). These teachers often feel a sense of autonomy in their approach to work and derive fulfillment from strong interpersonal connections.

#### 3.2.1. Language proficiency and attitudes

Offering a summary of the topics investigated in studies concentrating on language education, Phan (2015) points out that these encompass inquiries into the connection between LTSE (Language Teachers' Self-efficacy) beliefs and language competence, practices, and/or attitudes. Similarly, Phan (2015) conducts a qualitative study examining Vietnamese English teachers' attitudes towards proficiency level required for teaching. Unlike teachers in other Asian studies, who often express feelings of inadequacy regarding perceived requirements, these Vietnamese teachers generally view their English proficiency as sufficient, despite acknowledging a decline since college due to limited opportunities for practice outside the classroom. Notably, attitudes towards perceived proficiency levels may stem from teachers' self-beliefs about their own language skills, beliefs about contextual requirements, perspectives on proficiency assessment methods, LTSE beliefs, and beliefs towards the English language, including its various forms.

### 3.2.2. Classroom practices

Numerous surveys have explored the relation among self-efficacy beliefs and teaching methods, typically based on self-stated data. Chacón (2005, p. 264) and Eslami and Fatahi (2008) created studies to identify practices aligned with the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). They assumed a preference for CLT, which puts an emphasize on developing speaking competence through profound engagement, unlike GTM, a classical textual method from the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Similarly, in his research findings, Ghasemband (2014) differentiates between interactive and structured teaching methods, with the latter related to the Audio-Lingual Method, a Behaviorist language learning approach common until the 1950s. Ghasemband (2014) suggests reconsidering the dismissal of certain GTM/mechanical strategies. He suggests that these methods might actually be effective pedagogical tools and that utilizing them does not inherently mean a teacher rejects Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). For instance, structured grammar exercises and rote memorization, often criticized within CLT frameworks, can still play a valuable role in language instruction by reinforcing foundational skills. Thus, employing these techniques does not necessarily indicate a lack of commitment to more communicative approaches (Wyatt, 2018, p. 106). One of the most notable results in Ghasemband's (2014) study was the firm correlation within self-stated CLT methods and results from the revised English version of the TSES for student engagement. Teachers who demonstrated high efficacy in their ability to help students to value English (Ghasemband, 2014, p. 209 as cited in Wyatt, 2018) also reported a greater use of CLT strategies. Additionally, Chacón (2005, p. 268) discovered that the most efficacious teacher overall, across all teaching dimensions, tended to employ clear-cut strategies, whether oriented towards CLT or GMT.

Some research questions required teachers to estimate how much of their class time had been spent using English. The idea behind this was that, if teachers used English a lot during their lessons, it might have helped students learn the language better. Other studies, however, looked at different ways to measure how much practice students get. While some studies (Choi & Lee, 2016) focused more on the class time in which teachers used the foreign language (as the prerequisite for learners' more effective learning), others have explored teaching practices through different methods (Wyatt, 2018, p. 107). For instance, Chan et al. (2010) assessed teachers' classroom performance by grading pre-service teaching practice. They found that teachers who were particularly effective in teaching, speaking, and writing tended to excel in overall classroom teaching (Chan et al., 2010, p. 162 as referenced in Wyatt, 2018).

Additionally, Choi and Lee (2016) employed multiple regression analysis with interaction, revealing a significant relation within language competence and LTSE beliefs. They demonstrated how these factors affect the amount of English used in the classroom. Their findings suggest a threshold level of proficiency: below this level, teachers in a Korean context struggle to use English extensively in class, whereas above this level, language competence and LTSE beliefs mutually enhance the amount of English employed. Studies on LTSE beliefs can investigate the reasons behind the seemingly limited cognitive changes observed during in-service teacher education. Wyatt's study was criticized by Ur (1996) for its reliance on techniques such as having students read aloud in class to develop reading skills. Wyatt (2015a) explored why cognitive changes during in-service teacher education could be minimal and noted that some teachers remained overly confident in these methods, despite their criticized effectiveness (Wyatt, 2018, p. 108). In her book, *A Course in Language Teaching* (1996), Penny Ur addresses several reading techniques, noting potential drawbacks if they are not used appropriately. She emphasizes the importance of purposeful reading activities, warning that exercises lacking clear objectives can be ineffective (Ur, 1996, p. 138). She critiques the overemphasis on intensive reading, suggesting that while it is useful for certain skills, it should be complemented by extensive reading to maintain student engagement. Additionally, she discusses the limitations of translation and reading aloud, pointing out that these methods can hinder reading comprehension and make students overly reliant on their first language (Ur, 1996, p. 147). Teachers' knowledge has also been evaluated indirectly through quantitative studies, like the TKT Test<sup>1</sup>, which measures familiarity with various teaching methods, resource utilization, classroom management techniques, and lesson planning (Zakeri & Alavi, 2011 as referenced in Wyatt, 2018, p. 108). Borg (2006) informs that elicitation methods based on multiple choice rather than open-ended questions are more likely to elicit idealized beliefs rather than those that are situated in real-world practices. Despite this unacknowledged limitation, Zakeri and Alavi (2011, p. 418) conclude that as teachers' knowledge increases, the sense of efficacy improves.

### 3.3. Pre-service English teachers' and the teaching practicum

The teaching practicum is widely regarded as one of the most pivotal and impactful phases in teacher education (Trent, 2013 as referenced in Castañeda-Trujillo and Aguirre-Hernández,

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<sup>1</sup> TKT (Teaching Knowledge Test) shows how you are developing as a teacher. TKT is a flexible series of modular teaching qualifications, which test your knowledge in specific areas of English language teaching.

2018, p. 157). Teaching practicum is crucial as it equips students with the necessary knowledge to effectively develop their teaching skills. It provides prospective teachers with the chance to apply and practice the knowledge gained during their teacher education programs in real classroom settings (Noguera & McCluskey, 2017 as referenced in Astuti & Drajiati, 2022, p. 382). This period provides pre-service teachers with real-world experience in teaching English to speakers of other languages, helping them understand the complexities of modern classroom practices. This exposure plays a significant role in enhancing their motivation, attitudes, and engagement with the teaching profession (Fajardo & Miranda, 2015 as referenced in Castañeda-Trujillo and Aguirre-Hernández, 2018, p. 157). However, for some, the practicum can also be the most challenging and unsatisfactory experience during their BA program (Farrell, 2001; Ferrier-Kerr, 2009; Trent, 2013 as referenced in Castañeda-Trujillo and Aguirre-Hernández, 2018, p. 157). The impacts of the teaching practicum on pre-service teachers can influence their learning experiences and either confirm or alter their initial impressions of the profession (Calderhead, 1988 as referenced in Castañeda-Trujillo and Aguirre-Hernández, 2018, p. 157). To delve deeper into pre-service teachers' experiences during the practicum, we systematized a pedagogical experience focusing on three primary concerns: comprehend their own classrooms, learning from mentor teachers, and mastering the concept of language teaching (Brinton & Holten as referenced in Farrell, 2001 as cited in Castañeda-Trujillo and Aguirre-Hernández, 2018, p. 157). The article *Pre-Service English Teachers' Voices About the Teaching Practicum* aims to reveal how pre-service English language teachers perceive their classrooms during their field-based experiences and to highlight their awareness of the need for changes in language teaching practices. The observations of pre-service English teachers are invaluable for informing curriculum design. It is crucial to create new opportunities for teaching practicums that foster both professional and personal growth. Therefore, language teacher education programs must include mechanisms and create environments that ensure the perspectives and voices of pre-service English teachers are acknowledged and incorporated.

Emphasizing the development of teacher self-efficacy marks an important advancement in the design of in-service training programs, with the potential to enhance teacher performance and student outcomes. However, there is a lack of literature on how to reframe the professional development of the teacher, especially in-service training, to integrate self-efficacy as a central theme or framework. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 93) identifies four main foundations of self-efficacy: enactive mastery, which includes previous successful experiences or training; vicarious experience; social or verbal

persuasion, which encompasses collaboration and constructive feedback; and psychological arousal, involving emotional state changes like anxiety, fear, or positive anticipation (Bandura, 1982, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 16). The concept of enactive mastery has clear implications for teacher in-service programs: these programs should be structured to ensure that teachers have sufficient opportunities to fully grasp new teaching methods and content before applying them in their classrooms. According to efficacy theory and research, certain approaches to achieving this goal are likely to improve effectiveness in fostering strong efficacy beliefs than others. Emphasizing the development of efficacy indicates a need for substantial enhancement in this area. It is crucial to prioritize enactive mastery in in-service training, ensuring that the application of new learning is both thoughtfully planned and challenging. When teachers face and successfully overcome challenges during training, they are more likely to expand stronger efficacy beliefs and subsequently apply what they have learned in their classrooms (Schmidt & Bjork, 1992, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 16-17).

Simulations are considered an effective design element aimed at enhancing teacher self-efficacy through mastery experiences. They have been successfully integrated into various training programs, including both pre-service and in-service teacher education (Jacobs & Dempsey, 1993, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 17). Another source of self-efficacy information, vicarious experience, provides insights into different approaches for designing educator training programs. Vicarious experience is based on the idea that individuals can strengthen their efficacy beliefs by observing a role model engaging in activities that align with their own perceived requirements. Thus, part of vicarious experience involves making social evaluations with others, which serve as influential benchmarks for developing perceptions of competence (Schunk, 1983, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 17). Verbal persuasion, though less potent than mastery or vicarious experiences, can still significantly influence teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. This approach stresses that genuine, credible feedback from respected individuals can enhance self-confidence. Bandura (1986, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 112) warns against superficial praise, advocating instead for sincere and valid appraisals. Effective verbal persuasion can bolster self-efficacy by countering doubts with compelling feedback (Bandura, 1997, as referenced in Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 100).

Self-efficacy beliefs are closely linked to physiological states, as both mutually influence each other. Therefore, physiological states like anxiety, stress, and fatigue represent additional significant sources of efficacy (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003, p. 112).

When considering in-service training, it is essential to create a supportive environment where teachers can learn collaboratively without feeling threatened. This involves allowing time for teachers to be interactive and build relationships with their trainers. Such a surrounding fosters a safe space for exchanging ideas, achieving success, and receiving constructive feedback. Effective facilitators – such as colleagues, staff, and administrators – not only provide positive feedback but also structure learning activities that promote success. This category of supportive setting enhances self-efficacy by reassuring teachers that mistakes during training are part of the learning process and will not be met with negative consequences. Instead, teachers perceive the training as an opportunity to enhance their professional knowledge and skills.

### 3.3.1. Benefits of school experience for pre-service teachers

In teacher education programs, the syllabus typically includes various practical experiences designed to prepare pre-service teachers for the classroom. Key components often feature classroom observations, allowing future educators to witness experienced teachers' methods and interactions. The practicum, or teaching practice, is a central element where pre-service teachers take on teaching responsibilities under the supervision of a mentor, applying their theoretical knowledge and honing their skills. Lesson planning, microteaching sessions, and classroom management training further enhance their preparedness by developing lesson design skills, receiving feedback on short teaching sessions, and learning effective behavior management strategies. Additionally, the syllabus often emphasizes peer collaboration and reflective practice, including writing journals or participating in group discussions, to help future teachers critically assess their experiences. Tasks related to assessment and evaluation, such as designing tests and providing feedback, are also integral, as are regular mentorship meetings that offer guidance and support. An especially valuable elective course, *Teaching English to Young Learners*, offers students hands-on experience in engaging with young children. This elective course provides practical insights into managing a classroom of young students, conducting their own classes, and discussing creative teaching strategies with experienced educators. It significantly contributes to their preparedness by enhancing their understanding of curriculum design and making learning enjoyable and effective for young

learners. Overall, these practical elements collectively equip pre-service teachers with the confidence and expertise needed to succeed in their future teaching careers.

### 3.3.2. Learning environment

Learning outcomes are significantly affected by the student learning process, instructional planning, social environment, and classroom arrangements, all of which influence the quality of students' achievements. Consequently, a conducive learning environment is essential for effective learning. This supportive environment fosters a productive learning process, enhancing comfort and maximizing effectiveness. An effective learning process, in turn, positively impacts learning outcomes, demonstrating the direct influence of the learning environment on student success (Astuti & Drajadi, 2022, p. 385). Hayu, female participant in the research of Astuti and Drajadi (2022, p. 385), explains how the learning environment is an external factor that influences learning outcomes. Hayu emphasized that a conducive learning environment plays a crucial role because it can transform students' learning skills and habits. Therefore, it's important to create and maintain a supportive learning environment for effective and efficient student development, ensuring optimal achievement of educational goals. Hayu's reference to "online teaching" highlights that the learning environment extends beyond the classroom to include the school, home, community, and the influence of peers. According to Hayu, a conducive learning environment leads to better learning outcomes. Furthermore, Hayu believes that such an environment fosters good relationships and communication, essential for social beings like herself. By building a supportive learning environment and interacting with students, Hayu aims to facilitate a smooth teaching and learning process, resulting in positive learning outcomes (Astuti & Drajadi, 2022, p. 385).

## 4. Key elements of effective language teaching

### 4.1. Teaching methods and techniques

Language teaching methods play a crucial role in teacher training for several reasons. Firstly, they provide insight into teachers' approaches, helping them understand the rationale behind their instructional choices. This awareness enables educators to adapt and refine their teaching strategies. Additionally, familiarity with various methods fosters a shared professional language



among educators, facilitating collaboration and mutual support in professional development. According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), a language teaching method encompasses a coherent framework aligning actions and underlying principles. Thus, teachers benefit from recognizing the theoretical underpinnings guiding their instructional decisions. Griffiths (2008) emphasizes the importance of not only identifying effective methods but also empowering students to become independent learners.

Teaching methods and techniques vary widely to suit different learning objectives. Based on the book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* by Richards and Rodgers (2014), the text explores a wide range of teaching methods, it includes current approaches like *communicative language teaching*, which emphasizes using language in context, and *content and language integrated learning*, which combines language learning with subject content. Richards and Rodgers (2014) also cover *task-based language teaching*, which centers around completing meaningful tasks, and *multiple intelligences*, which tailor instruction to different types of learners. Additionally, it addresses alternative twentieth-century methods such as *the natural approach*, focusing on language acquisition in a stress-free environment, *total physical response*, which integrates physical movement, *the silent way*, encouraging self-discovery, and *suggestopedia*, which uses positive suggestion to enhance learning. These varied methods offer a comprehensive view of how language teaching has evolved and adapted to meet diverse educational needs.

#### 4.2. Factors influencing self-efficacy

Pre-service teachers' self-efficacy is influenced by various factors, including mastery experiences (successful teaching tasks), vicarious experiences (observing peers or mentors), verbal persuasion (encouragement from others), and emotional states (stress and well-being). Additionally, the quality of the teacher education program, social support, personal beliefs, and the classroom environment also play crucial roles in shaping their confidence and effectiveness as future teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001, p. 794; Bandura, 1997, p. 80). Research on teacher self-efficacy often identifies two distinct dimensions or factors, though there has been significant confusion and debate regarding their interpretation. Although there is broad consensus that the first factor, often referred to as personal teaching efficacy, relates to a teacher's sense of their own competence, the interpretation of the second factor remains unclear. Despite being commonly termed general teaching efficacy, some have suggested alternative names for it (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001, p. 792).

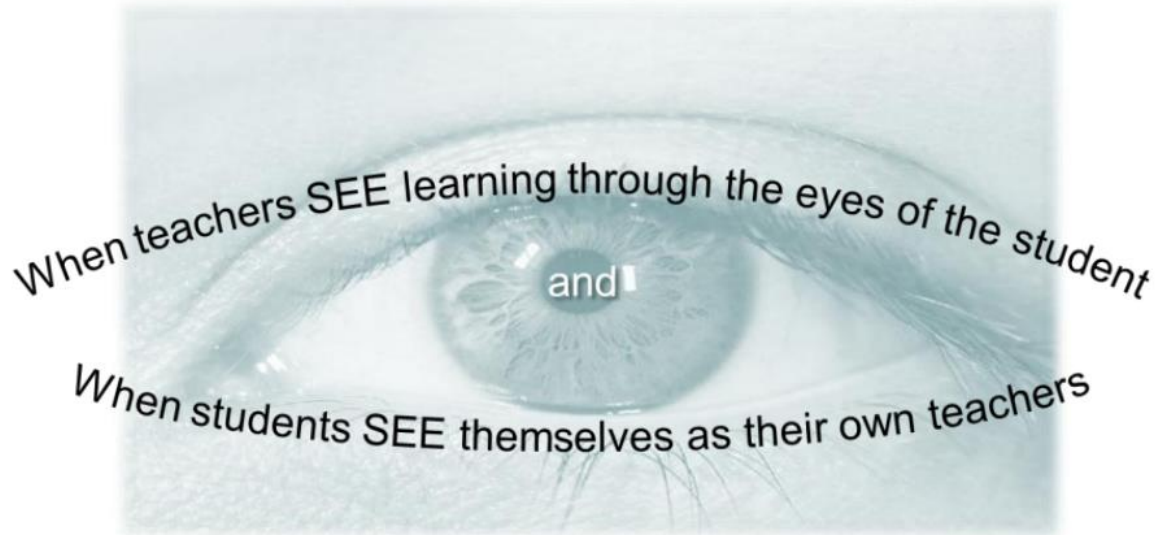
Emmer and Hickman (1990) referred to the second factor as ‘external influences’, a concept similar to Rotter’s idea of external control. In their development of the Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument, Riggs and Enochs (1990) identified this factor as outcome expectancy, which aligns with the second element of Bandura’s social cognitive theory. This component involves evaluating the potential outcomes based on the level of performance one anticipates (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001, p. 792).

Outcome expectancy contributed minimally to explaining motivation because it is based on an individual’s self-assessment of their abilities and anticipated performance, rather than on what others might achieve in similar situations. Consequently, items that assess the second component of teacher efficacy – concerning the general influence of teachers despite external challenges – should not be classified as outcome expectancy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001, p. 792).

#### 4.3. Teaching effectiveness

Teaching effectiveness is a multifaceted concept that encompasses the ability of educators to facilitate meaningful learning experiences, engage students, and achieve desired educational outcomes. Effective teaching requires a deep understanding of pedagogical strategies, subject matter expertise, and the ability to adapt to diverse student needs. Research indicates that teaching effectiveness is closely linked to the use of evidence-based practices, clear communication, and the creation of a supportive and inclusive classroom environment. Additionally, effective teachers continuously reflect on their practices and seek professional development opportunities to enhance their skills and adapt to evolving educational demands (Hattie, 2009; Marzano, 2007). The impact of teaching effectiveness extends beyond academic achievement, influencing students’ motivation, self-efficacy, and lifelong learning attitudes. According to Marzano (2007, p. 28), when addressing the instructional design question, teachers should focus on three key components. At first, they need to clearly differentiate between learning goals and learning activities, and then articulate those goals in an appropriate format. Second, monitoring student progress requires the use of formative assessments, along with a scale specifically tailored for these assessments, and charting each students’ progress toward their individual learning goal. Finally, celebrating success involves recognizing and rewarding students for the knowledge they have gained (Marzano, 2007, p. 28).

High on the priority list is the quality of teaching, but this quality is defined by teaching that clearly communicates learning intentions, sets transparent success criteria, actively engages with how students are thinking and questioning ideas, and evaluates the effectiveness of teaching from the students' perspective. In the Figure 2 we can clearly understand on what is, visible learning as a concept.



*Figure 2: Concept of Visible Learning according to John Hattie (2009, p. 11)*

Visible teaching and learning happen when the goal of learning is clear, appropriately challenging, and actively pursued by both teachers and students. This process involves setting a challenging goal, practicing deliberately to achieve mastery, and engaging in ongoing feedback and assessment. Both teachers and students play active roles: teachers view learning from the students' perspective, while students see teaching as essential to their progress. The most significant improvements in student learning happen when teachers critically reflect on their own teaching methods, and when students take responsibility for their own learning. When students become self-regulated learners – monitoring, evaluating, and teaching themselves – they exhibit desirable traits that enhance their learning experience. Ultimately, it is this visible engagement by both teachers and students that drives meaningful educational progress (Hattie, 2009, p. 271).

#### 4.3.1. Class-wide teaching practice

The concept of “class-wide teaching practices” refers to a collection of observable and evaluable strategies that teachers consistently use to support and engage all students in their

classroom. Effective educators build their approach on a foundation of these practices, which promote academic success, positive behavior, and strong bond with both students and their families. These practices are further tailored to address the varying needs of all students, ensuring that each one is effectively supported within the classroom environment (Macsuga-Gage, Simonsen, & Briere, 2012, p. 14).

To effectively plan and implement strategies for all students, teachers should approach the classroom through the lens of the response to intervention (Rtl) framework. The Rtl model is structured as a multi-tiered system, offering evidence-based supports for every student. It is commonly viewed as a continuum that organizes supports into three levels: universal, targeted group, and individualized interventions (Macsuga-Gage, Simonsen, & Briere, 2012, p. 14).

Universal practices offer comprehensive, high-quality support to all students. Targeted group supports are designed for students needing additional assistance and are usually applied to groups with similar needs. Finally, individualized assistance is provided to students who need intensive, personalized interventions to succeed.

Outstanding teachers are mindful of cultural differences, show respect, and display enthusiasm and charisma. They motivate students to reach their full potential by establishing challenging but achievable goals, promoting clear communication, and posing thought-provoking questions that encourage deeper discussion. Dedicated to their profession, they treat teaching as an evolving art that demands continuous adaptation and expertise (Paolini, 2015, p. 20).

Macsuga-Gage, Simonsen and Briere (2012) start their theory by asking you to think about the most effective teacher you have encountered and what made them stand out. They suggest that while certain behaviors or qualities might come to mind, there is usually a core set of practices that define a truly skilled teacher.

They provide an explanation that teaching involves both creativity and a solid understanding of best practices. As Macsuga-Gage, Simonsen, and Briere (2012, p. 14) all agreed on is that effective teachers have skills to integrate behavioral, social, and academic elements to make a distinctive classroom environment with a good harmony and dynamics. According to these authors, great teachers are those who can blend important factors, such as academic content, behavior management and social dynamics, into a smooth and effective classroom experience. Although the complexities of effective teaching cannot be fully covered, the authors note that research and experience have highlighted some critical practices that work well for all students, including those who are more challenging to teach.

#### 4.3.2. Student engagement

Student participation is a critical element in achieving efficient learning outcomes and fostering a positive classroom environment. It encompasses the active engagement of students in the process of learning, their motivation to learn, and their commitment to academic tasks. Engaged students are more likely to demonstrate higher levels of achievement, persistence, and enthusiasm for learning. Research highlights that when students are genuinely engaged, they not only perform better academically but also develop essential skills such as critical thinking and problem-solving. Creating an engaging classroom environment involves a combination of interactive teaching strategies, relevant and challenging content, and supportive relationships between teachers and students (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004). Student involvement has evolved into both a key strategy for enhancing learning and a measure of success in its own right (Taylor and Parsons, 2011, p. 4).

The way students engage with learning can change significantly from elementary school to high school. For instance, Fredricks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004, p. 84-85) provide an example suggesting that younger students may not fully immerse themselves in learning until they develop the ability to manage their own learning process and approach it with intention. Future studies should explore whether their engagement becomes less reliant on the surrounding environment with age, assuming that they place more personal value on education as they get older.

The research literature on engagement highlights its multifaceted nature by defining it in three distinct ways. Behavioral engagement refers to active participation in both academic and extracurricular activities, which is essential for achieving academic success and reducing dropout rates. Emotional engagement involves students' positive and negative feelings toward teachers, peers, academic content, and the school environment, which helps in forming connections with the institution and affects their motivation to engage in schoolwork. Cognitive engagement focuses on the investment of effort and thoughtfulness required to understand complex concepts and master challenging skills (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004, p. 60). Integrating behavior, cognition, and emotion under the concept of involvement is valuable because it offers a more comprehensive understanding of students than studying each component in isolation. While research often looks at behavior, emotion, and cognition separately, these elements are actually interconnected and influence each other within an individual. Although substantial research exists on each component alone, viewing engagement as a multidimensional construct suggests the need to explore how these aspects interact and

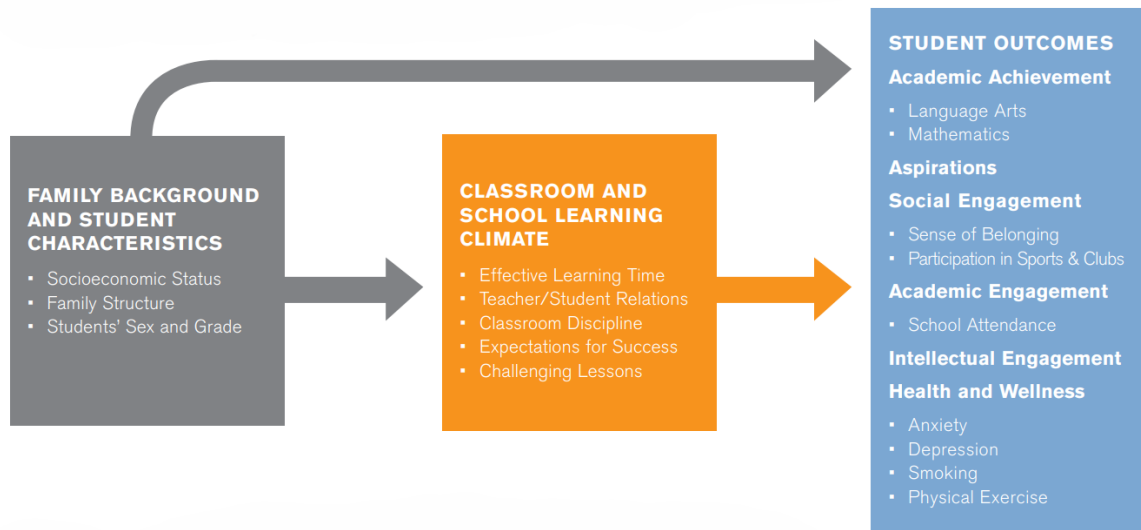
affect one another. This approach allows for examining the combined and interactive effects of behavior, emotion, and cognition, providing a more holistic view of engagement.

#### 4.3.3. Instructional strategies

Instructional methods are the techniques and strategies teachers employ to facilitate learning and enhance student participation in the class. These strategies, ranging from direct instruction to collaborative learning, play a crucial role in shaping the educational experience for both teachers and students. For teachers, effective instructional strategies enable them to address diverse learning needs, manage the classroom environment, and foster a positive comprehension, retention, and overall academic success. By employing a variety of instructional methods, teachers can create dynamic and inclusive learning environments that support all students in reaching their full potential.

Two key factors that promote student engagement are interactive teaching methods and an engaging curriculum. Research indicates that both the way we teach and the content we teach must be adapted to better engage students. This means shifting from traditional, lecture-based instruction to a constructivist approach. Constructivist teaching emphasizes the importance of fostering respectful relationships and creating a safe learning environment. It also involves a shift in teacher-student dynamics, moving from an authoritative role to a more collaborative, peer-like learning partnership (Taylor and Parsons, 2011, p. 18).

Contrary to the belief that today's students want a less demanding curriculum, research indicated that they actually prefer high expectations. Students seek a curriculum that is rigorous, meaningful, and challenging, along with ambitious academic goals (Taylor and Parsons, 2011, p. 19).



*Figure 3: Framework for studying classroom and school effects (Willms, Friesen, and Milton, 2009, p. 10)*

The model views student engagement as an outcome affected by both home and school environments. It suggests that family background can impact student results both directly and indirectly, whereas the learning atmosphere within the classroom and school environment have a direct effect on these outcomes (Willms, Friesen, and Milton, 2009, p. 10).

As we can see in the Figure 3, there are four existing dimensions of student engagement; first being social engagement that includes two dimensions – engagement and sense of belonging, then we have one aspect called academic engagement and the newest aspect is intellectual engagement. It is very important for students to have hobbies and to participate in extracurricular activities, as much as it is important for them to feel accepted by their peers, by their class and environment. Academic engagement is always in the process of the development, even though it is mostly based on the attendance of the student. Showing interest and motivation to certain subjects such as learning new language or being good at mathematics, is good sign of intellectual engagement. According to research by Willms, Friesen, and Milton (2009, p. 33-37), five effective teaching practices have the potential to enhance student engagement in learning: thoughtfully and intentionally designing learning experiences, ensuring that learning is meaningful, fostering strong relationships, refining teaching practices through collaboration with peers, and using assessment to guide teaching and enhance learning.

#### 4.3.4. Classroom management

Classroom management refers to the wide range of techniques and strategies that teachers employ to create an organized, productive, and conducive learning environment. Effective classroom management is essential for fostering academic achievement and maintaining a positive atmosphere where students feel supported and engaged. It involves setting clear expectations, establishing consistent routines, and addressing behavioral issues proactively. By creating a structured environment, teachers can minimize disruptions and maximize instructional time, which in turn helps students focus on learning and develop positive social behaviors. Ultimately, strong classroom management is a key factor in both student success and teacher satisfaction. As stated by Landrum and Kauffman (2006, p. 47), their thought on managing classroom behavior using behavioral methods continues to be prevailing and significant model within educational studies and teacher preparation.

<i>Operation</i>	<i>Stimulus Action</i>	<i>Effect on Behavior</i>
Positive reinforcement	Positive stimulus added contingent on desired behavior	Behavior increases
Negative reinforcement	Negative stimulus removed contingent on desired behavior	Behavior increases
Extinction	Reinforcing stimulus following behavior is discontinued	Behavior decreases
Response cost punishment	Portion of positive stimulus removed contingent on undesirable behavior	Behavior decreases
Punishment with aversives	Negative stimulus added contingent on undesirable behavior	Behavior decreases

*Figure 5: Five Basic Behavioral Operations, Landrum & Kauffman (2006, p. 48)*

According to Landrum and Kauffman (2006), most strategies for classroom management based on behavioral theory incorporate one or more of the following fundamental techniques: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, response cost, extinction, or the review the presentation of aversive stimuli. Figure 5 provides a summary of the core principles behind each technique.

The successful implementation of encouraging positive behavior through reinforcement in classroom management is well-documented across diverse student groups, ranging from different ages and skill levels to various educational environments. A particularly effective method is using contingent teacher attention, commonly referred to as praise, to boost student's favorable academic and social conduct. This strategy is based on a simple principle: teachers offer positive feedback when students engage in desired behaviors related to tasks or social interactions. For this approach to be effective, it must be applied with precision. Crucially, positive reinforcement must be given only when the target behavior is demonstrated. Negative



reinforcement is often misinterpreted, largely because of the negative connotations linked with the term “negative”. Unlike positive reinforcement, which involves adding a stimulus after a behavior, negative reinforcement involves the removal of an aversive stimulus in response to a behavior. The key aspect is that the stimulus removed must be something student find undesirable, so its elimination becomes the sought-after result. When a behavior is reinforced, either positively or negatively, stopping that reinforcement typically leads to a decrease in the behavior. Known as ‘planned ignoring,’ this method can be effective for managing minor disruptions like talking out of turn. However, it may not work well if the behavior is reinforced by peer attention, as ignoring it will not affect its frequency if classmates are the ones reinforcing it. For extinction to be successful, the behavior must have been initially reinforced by the teacher’s attention. Punishment, like reinforcement, aims to reduce the likelihood of a behavior through consequences. For punishment to be effective, some form of reinforcement must be present. For example, if students earn 15 minutes of recess but lose 5 minutes for not completing an assignment, this illustrates response cost. This method is best for students who fail to complete work due to lack of effort, not skill deficits. It allows teachers to address misbehavior directly by removing some of the earned rewards, rather than using aversive measures. The term ‘punishment’ often implies the use of aversive methods, which are generally last resort for severe behavior issues that do not respond to positive approaches and pose risks to the individual’s well-being. Aversive techniques involve applying an unpleasant stimulus to reduce behavior. However, physical punishments are increasingly banned and discouraged because they often fail to provide long-term behavior change, lack educational value, and can lead to more negative behavior (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006, p. 48-53).

#### 4.4. Learning styles and strategies

Learning styles vary widely among individuals, with some preferring visual methods like images and diagrams, while other learn best through auditory means such as listening to lectures. some learners excel when engaging with text through reading and writing, while introverted learners may prefer solitary study compared to extraverted learners who thrive in social settings. Additionally, open-oriented learners enjoy flexible, unstructured environments, whereas closure-oriented learners need clear structure. Global learners tend to grasp overarching concepts first, while analytic learners focus on details. Kinesthetic learners benefit

from hands-on activities, and judging learners prefer organized, planned approaches, unlike perceiving learners, who are more spontaneous.<sup>2</sup>

In language learning, various strategies can enhance effectiveness. Memory strategies aid in retaining and recalling information, while cognitive strategies involve actively manipulating material, like summarizing or inferring. Compensatory strategies help fill gaps in knowledge, and metacognitive strategies involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning process.

Since 1967, doctors Rita and Kenneth Dunn have been analyzing education research on how individuals learn. They discovered extensive evidence highlighting the unique ways students begin to focus on, process and retain challenging information. Initially, in 1972, they identified key factors that distinguished student learning styles, which expanded to 18 by 1975. By 1979, their model also included hemispheric preferences and global/analytic thinking styles. Research over the past two decades, conducted by the Dunns and their colleagues, has consistently shown that when students are taught according to their specific learning styles, they achieve higher academically, have better attitudes towards learning, and exhibit improved discipline compared to when their learning preferences are not considered. The Dunn and Dunn model conceptualizes learning style as the unique approach individuals use to focus on, understand, internalize, and remember new or challenging information. According to this model, learning styles consist of 20 to 21 elements that vary depending on age-appropriate assessments. These elements were organized by Dunn (2009, p. 136) into five key categories: the learner's immediate surroundings (including factors like sound, lighting, temperature, and seating arrangement); emotional factors (such as motivation, persistence, responsibility, and need for structure); social preferences (whether a person prefers learning alone, in pairs, with peers; in a team, with an authoritative or collegial instructor, or with a variety of social interactions); physiological tendencies (like sensory preferences such as auditory, kinesthetic, or visual, as well as preferences related to food intake, optimal time of day, and need for movement); and cognitive processing styles (such as whether someone tends to be more analytical or holistic, and whether they are impulsive or reflective).

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<sup>2</sup> 10 *Types of Learning and How to Teach Them: A Complete Guide to Learning Styles*. (n.d.).

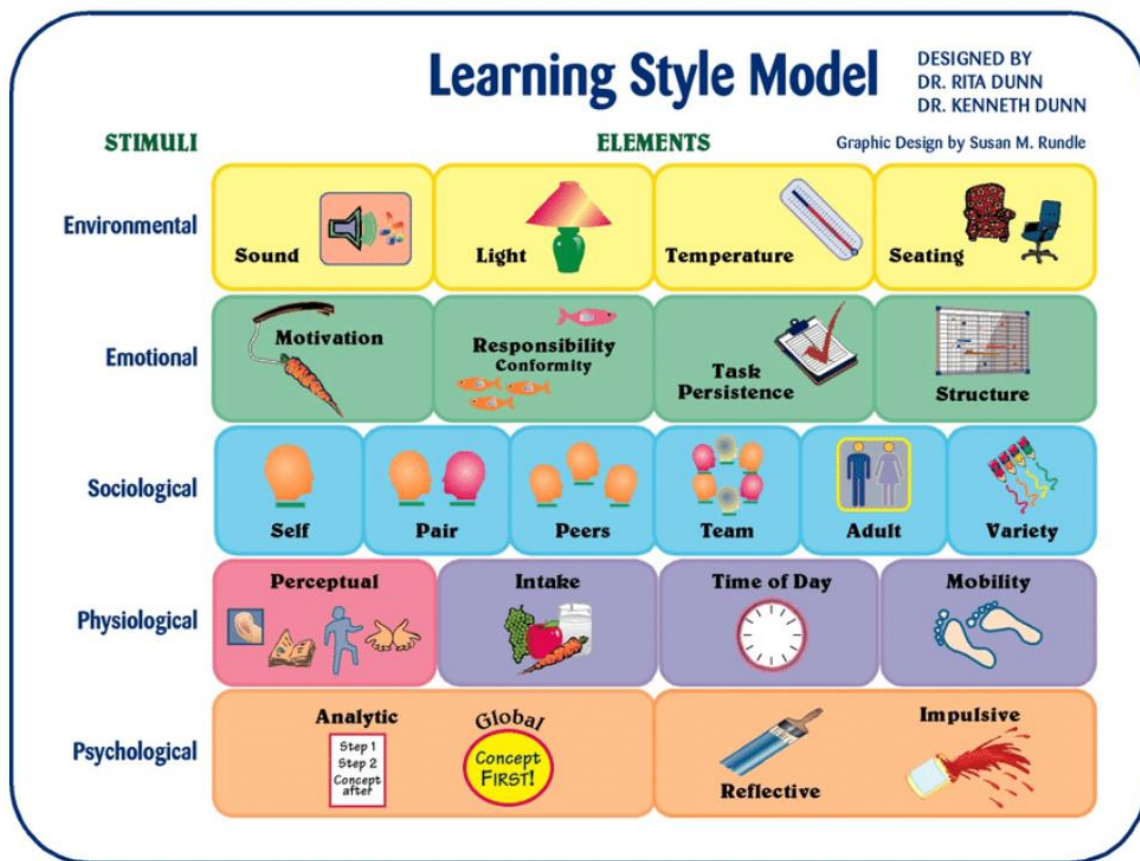


Figure 4: Learning style model designed by dr. Rita Dunn and dr. Kenneth Dunn (Dunn et al., 2009, p. 136)

According to Dunn (2009, p. 136) and this learning style model, it suggests that individuals process information in one of three ways: analytically, globally, or through a mix of both, better known as an integrated approach. The interaction of these elements varies for each individual, making it essential to identify what most effectively captures and sustains a student's attention and aligns with their natural learning process to ensure long-term memory retention. To uncover these innate preferences and learning styles, it is crucial to employ a comprehensive model that assesses a person's strengths and preferences across physiological, sociological, psychological, emotional, and environmental dimensions. The Dunn and Dunn Learning-Style Model has led to the development of several tools for diagnosing learning styles, beginning with the first instrument in 1976 and later including *Learning Style: The Clue to You! (LS:CY!)*, which underwent national testing in 1998 (Dunn & Burke, 2005, p. 3). Long before state education departments began incorporating terms like 'active' or 'engaged' learning into their instructional standards, learning-style researchers had already proven that students learn more effectively and with greater ease when they actively participate in the learning process rather than simply listening.

#### 4.5. Teaching strategies and techniques for school learners

Children's learning processes are deeply influenced by their developmental stage, making it unreasonable to expect them to perform tasks requiring skills they haven't yet acquired (Phillips, 1993). Young learners engage with language not as an abstract system, but in terms of its practical applications and what they can do with it (Phillips, 1993, p. 7).

For primary school children, activities should predominantly be oral in nature. Listening exercises, in particular, should occupy a significant portion of class time for younger children (grades 1-3) (Phillips, 1993, p. 7). Given this emphasis on oral skills, the grammar-translation method is ill-suited for primary school instruction due to its lack of interaction and focus solely on reading and writing, with the teacher serving as the sole authority.

In contrast, the direct method proves suitable for both very young learners and older primary school students (grades 4-8), fostering active participation and target language communication sans translation. Activities should be adjusted according to the students' proficiency levels, with older students engaged in writing tasks if they are proficient readers and writers, while simpler tasks are provided for younger learners still honing their literacy skills.

Total physical response activities are highly effective for young learners, leveraging their natural inclination towards physical engagement in learning. Phillips (1993, p. 7) also advocates for games, action-based songs, coloring, cutting, pasting, and repetitive speaking exercise, all of which offer tangible communicative benefits. Community Language Learning (CLL), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and other innovative methodologies align well with primary school teaching, offering engaging and effective approaches.

Similarly, the audio-lingual method may suit very young learners, facilitating the formation of new language habits and the transition from native language habits. However, as children mature, their cognitive, motor, and social skills develop, necessitating a holistic approach to language instruction that encompasses all four language skills. Methodologies like the silent way may also find application as children progress in their language learning journey.

The teaching methods and techniques employed in language instruction for young learners are crucial in shaping pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. As children's learning processes are deeply influenced by their developmental stages, pre-service teachers must adapt their teaching strategies accordingly. Understanding that young learners engage with language through practical applications rather than abstract concepts informs the teachers' confidence in their ability to select and implement appropriate methodologies. For instance, methods like the

direct method and Total Physical Response, which emphasize active participation and physical engagement, align well with younger learners' needs and can bolster pre-service teachers' confidence in their effectiveness. Conversely, recognizing the limitations of approaches like the grammar-translation method for young learners can help pre-service teachers avoid fewer effective practices, further strengthening their belief in their teaching capabilities. As these teachers gain experience with various methodologies suited to different age groups and proficiency levels, their self-efficacy in delivering effective language instruction is likely to increase, contributing to their overall professional development.

Conversely, recognizing the limitations of approaches like the *grammar-translation method* for young learners can help pre-service teachers avoid less effective practices, further strengthening their belief in their teaching capabilities. As pre-service teachers gain experience with various methodologies suited to different age groups and proficiency levels, their self-efficacy in delivering effective language instruction is likely to increase, contributing to their overall professional development. This alignment between teaching methods and developmental needs not only enhances their pedagogical skills but also fortifies their belief in their ability to positively impact student learning outcomes.

## 5. Research

This chapter presents research conducted among pre-service teachers regarding their beliefs about teaching English in primary schools. The study utilized a questionnaire on pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. It is noteworthy that none of the participants had attended any practical English courses or had had any prior teaching experience, except for a small group of students who had participated in the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners*, providing them with some firsthand experience teaching in school.

### 5.1. Aim, research questions and hypotheses

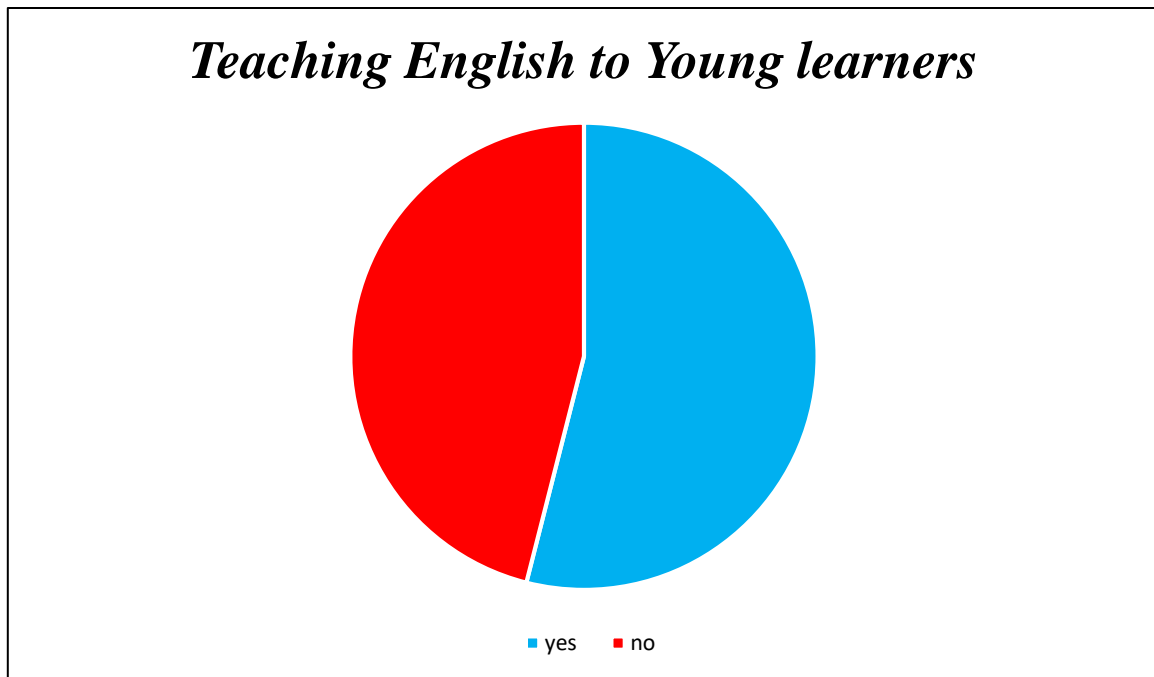
The aim of this study is to investigate the self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service English teachers regarding their abilities to teach and facilitate English learning in educational settings. The questions that will be addressed in this research are:

1. Is there a difference between female and male participants' self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management/student engagement/instructional strategies?
2. Is there a difference between the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of graduate student's self-efficacy beliefs?
3. Is there a difference in the self-efficacy beliefs between the pre-service teachers who took the course *Teaching English to Young Learners* and those who did not?
4. How much of an impact do self-efficacy beliefs have on teaching the English language and influence pre-service teachers' perceptions of the teaching tasks?
5. To what extent do self-efficacy beliefs shape pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching the English language and impact their effectiveness in the classroom?

It is to be expected that there is no difference in self-efficacy beliefs between female and male pre-service teachers. While we anticipate no significant variance in self-efficacy beliefs between male and female pre-service teachers, we do propose that the academic year may play a significant role in shaping their perceptions. We hypothesize that the academic year and the elective study course do have the influence on their perceptions. We can also assume that self-efficacy beliefs have a significant and positive impact on the teaching effectiveness and strongly influence perceptions of pre-service teachers on their teaching tasks. The hypothesis is that self-efficacy belief plays a crucial role in pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching the English language and also have a positive effect of pre-service teachers' effectiveness in the classroom.

## 5.2. Participants

A total of 63 pre-service English teachers are the subjects of this study. 28 of them are currently enrolled in the 1<sup>st</sup> year of graduate studies, while the other 35 of them are students of the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of graduate studies. 81.4% of the participants from the 1<sup>st</sup> year of graduate studies are female, and 18.6% of them are male. The situation is similar in the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of graduate studies, where 91.4% of the participants are female, while 8.6% of them are male. Figure 6 illustrates the proportion of the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 2<sup>nd</sup> year graduate students who participated in the elective study course *Teaching English to Young Learners* compared to those who did not.



*Figure 6: Participation in the elective study course Teaching English to Young Learners*

The data illustrated in Figure 6, showing the proportion of 1st and 2nd-year graduate students who participated in the elective course “Teaching English to Young Learners” versus those who did not, is critical for my research. This information directly impacts the understanding of self-efficacy beliefs regarding teaching methods and techniques, as it highlights the influence of specialized training on students’ confidence and perceived competence in teaching. Additionally, the data provides insight into the practical experience gained by students enrolled in this elective course, thereby underscoring the course's role in shaping effective teaching practices among future educators.

### 5.3. Instruments and procedure

The Questionnaire on Pre-service English Teachers’ Self-Efficacy Beliefs (developed by Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) was assessed using the TSES 24-item long form (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The items are categorized into three subscales: (1) Efficacy for student engagement (SE; 8 items), (2) Efficacy for instructional strategies (IS; 8 items), and (3) Efficacy for classroom management (CM; 8 items). The questionnaire (see Appendix) was selected based on its topic relevance and structured groups of questions. The items of the original version did not undergo any changes, but the rating system of the questionnaire did. The range of the original nine-point Likert scale was reduced to five, to make it less subject to interpretation bias and more appropriate for the respondents to choose.

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part was used to collect demographic data (gender, age, year of study). Additional two questions were asked to obtain the information on respondents' participation in one of the elective courses:

1. Did you enroll the *Teaching English to Young Learners* course?
2. Do you think the courses like *Teaching English to Young Learners* are needed as a part of formal training for future teachers?

The second part consisted of 24 items concerning pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs divided into three categories:

1. Classroom management
2. Student engagement
3. Instructional strategies.

The five-point Likert scale was used and participants were asked to show their self-efficacy beliefs by indicating the extent to which they agreed with each statement using (1) = nothing, (2) = very little, (3) = some influence, (4) = quite a bit, or (5) = a great deal. The subjects were informed about the study and all of them agreed to participate. The research was conducted during the summer semester, during March and May. The questionnaire was filled out in English because all the respondents were considered fully proficient in English and expected to have no problems understanding the questions. The Cronbach alpha test was employed to affirm the reliability and validity of the research instrument. The analysis provided an alpha value of .770, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency. All analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Statistical tests that were used are independent samples t-test. Descriptive statistics were calculated as well.

#### 5.4. Results

The instrument that was used was a questionnaire and the results are the following: Table 1 presents a descriptive analysis of items related to the pre-service English teachers' beliefs about their influence on student engagement in class. There are eight items in this part. The mean value of all the items in Table 1 is larger than three, which shows that the respondents are fairly confident in their ability to significantly enhance student engagement. The item that examined teachers' role on fostering student creativity has the highest mean value ( $M=4.13$ ,  $SD=.83$ ).



Based on the ratings, it can be concluded that the majority of the participants can effectively encourage and develop creativity in their students. However, the majority of respondents are less certain of their ability to assist families in supporting their children’s academic success. Consequently, this item has the lowest mean value ( $M=3.11$ ,  $SD=.94$ ). The lower mean value reflects a general disagreement or uncertainty among the participants about their ability to provide this type of support. Overall, the results suggest that while pre-service teachers are self-assured about promoting creativity in the classroom, they may need additional training, support or experience to feel more capable of engaging with families to enhance student academic performance.

*Table 1: Student Engagement*

<i>Student Engagement</i>	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>How much can you do to get through the most difficult students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.3492	.86432
<b>How much can you do to help your students think critically?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.0000	.69561
<b>How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.5714	.71198
<b>How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.1429	.80035
<b>How much can you do to help your students value learning?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.6032	.75219
<b>How much can you do to foster student creativity?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.1270	.83264
<b>How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.5397	.79971
<b>How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?</b>	63	1.00	5.00	3.1111	.93517

The second category was connected with classroom management. Table 2 represents the results for another eight items of the questionnaire. The mean values in Table 2 show that the second category, Classroom Management, ranged slightly higher than the first category – Student Engagement. The item with the highest value ( $M=4.37$ ,  $SD=.70$ ) assessed pre-service teachers’ perceptions of the extent to which they can make their expectations clear about student behavior. The items with highest values suggest that most participants can not only effectively make their expectations clear, but also maintain discipline in class by establishing routines and specific set of rules with each group of students. On the other hand, when asked how well they can restrain a few problem students from ruining an entire class, participants answered with the lowest mean value ( $M=3.37$ ,  $SD=.81$ ). This reflects a general uncertainty or limited confidence among the respondents about their ability to control disruptive students effectively. Pre-service teachers feel highly confident in their ability to clearly communicate their expectations regarding student behavior. Conversely, pre-service teachers seem to have less confidence in their ability to manage a few problem students and prevent them from disrupting the entire class. Overall, the results suggest that while pre-service teachers are confident in their ability to set and communicate clear expectations about student behavior, they may feel less capable or need more strategies and support to manage and mitigate the impact of problem students on the overall classroom environment.

*Table 2: Classroom Management*

<i>Classroom Management</i>	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.8254	.66088
<b>To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?</b>	63	3.00	5.00	4.3651	.70257
<b>How well can you establish routines to keep activities run smoothly?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.8889	.82523
<b>How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.7460	.80258

<b>How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?</b>	63	1.00	5.00	3.6190	.83141
<b>How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.7143	.70548
<b>How well can you keep a few problems students from ruining an entire class?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.3651	.80925
<b>How well can you respond to defiant students?</b>	63	1.00	5.00	3.4603	.81963

The third and the last category of the questionnaire discusses the instructional strategies. Table 3 shows the results for the last eight items of the questionnaire. The mean values in Table 3 point to the most agreeable responses from all the participants ( $M=3.99$ ). Pre-service teachers generally feel confident about their instructional strategies, as indicated by the highest mean value. This suggests that they are largely in agreement with their ability to effectively implement various teaching strategies in different educational contexts. The highest value ( $M=4.35$ ,  $SD=.79$ ) scored the question related to the participants' ability to provide an alternative explanation or example in cases when students are confused. This indicates that they feel particularly confident about their competence to address student lack of understanding. Even though mean values of all the items in the third category were above three and higher, the item related to *pre-service teachers' ability to adjust their lessons to the proper level for individual students* was ranked the lowest ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.92$ ). Such a result suggests that pre-service teachers feel less confident about the proper level or instructions for individual students or adjustments required to meet their needs. Overall, the results suggest that pre-service teachers are confident in their instructional strategies, particularly in their ability to clarify and explain concepts. However, they may require additional support or training to feel more capable of designing their lessons to accommodate varying levels of the individual students.

*Table 3: Instructional Strategies*

<i>Instructional Strategies</i>	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
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<b>How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.7619	.81744
<b>How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.8571	.61846
<b>To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.0794	.74707
<b>How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.7460	.91525
<b>How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	3.9365	.87755
<b>To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.3492	.78614
<b>How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.0159	.79295
<b>How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?</b>	63	2.00	5.00	4.1429	.73741

To address the specific research questions, Independent Samples t-tests were conducted. The initial question aims to determine whether there is a difference in self-efficacy beliefs between females and males. The findings assessed by the independent t-test are presented in the Table 4, Table 5, and Table 6, indicating no significant difference in means between female and male participants. A similar analysis was conducted to compare self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement, classroom management, instructional strategies between genders, with results detailed in Table 5 and Table 6. Based on these outcomes, it is evident that both female and male participants hold similar self-efficacy beliefs regarding student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies.

Table 4: Independent t-test (learners' gender and self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement)

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
self-efficacy about student engagement	Male	3.49	0.598	-1.385	61	0.204
	Female	3.71	0.429			

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

Table 5: Independent t-test (female and male self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management)

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
self-efficacy about classroom management	Male	3.65	0.510	-.658	10.306	0.953
	Female	3.76	0.462			

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

Table 6: Independent t-test (female and male self-efficacy beliefs about instructional strategies)

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
self-efficacy about instructional strategies	Male	3.61	0.654	-2.487	61	0.080
	Female	4.05	0.458			

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

This study also aimed to determine whether there was a difference in self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies between the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of graduate studies. The results of the t-tests conducted to address these questions

are presented in Table 7, Table 8, and Table 9, indicating that the students' self-efficacy beliefs are not influenced by their year of study.

*Table 7: Independent t-test (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> year students' self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement)*

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
students'						
self-efficacy	1 <sup>st</sup> year	3.77	0.433			
about	—————			1.362	61	0.739
student	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	3.61	0.472			
engagement						

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

*Table 8: Independent t-test (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> year students' self-efficacy beliefs about classroom management)*

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
students'						
self-efficacy	1 <sup>st</sup> year	3.66	0.455			
about	—————			-1.336	61	0.948
classroom	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	3.82	0.471			
management						

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

*Table 9: Independent t-test (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> year students' self-efficacy beliefs about instructional strategies)*

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
students'						

self-efficacy	1 <sup>st</sup> year	3.89	0.493			
about	—————			-1.374	61	0.193
instructional	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	4.07	0.514			
strategies						

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

Moreover, an independent t-test was also run to explore if there was a difference in self-efficacy beliefs towards classroom management, student engagement and instructional strategies between pre-service teachers who enrolled in the elective course and those who did not. As Tables 10 and 11 illustrate, there is no significant difference concerning the self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement and classroom management among pre-service teachers who participated in the elective course compared to those who did not.

*Table 10: Independent samples t-test for the (non-)participants in the elective course and their self-efficacy beliefs about the student engagement*

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
elective						
course and	yes	3.75	0.434			
self-efficacy	—————			1.381	57.127	0.538
about	no	3.59	0.479			
student						
engagement						

\* $p < 0.05$  level (2-tailed)

*Table 11: Independent samples t-test for the (non-)participants in the elective course and their self-efficacy beliefs about the classroom management*

Variable		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
elective						
course and	yes	3.84	0.491			
self-efficacy	—————			1.685	60.996	0.442
about	no	3.64	0.421			

classroom  
management

*\*p < 0.05 level (2-tailed)*

However, statistical significance was only found in the self-efficacy beliefs about the instructional strategies between the two groups of participants ( $t(63) = 2.582, p = 0.010$ ), as indicated in Table 12. The participants who took part in the elective course believed to be more competent and equipped with knowledge on how to implement instructional strategies in the EFL classroom. It is also noteworthy that all participants agreed that elective courses such as *Teaching English to Young Learners* should be mandatory for future teachers, including those who did not enroll in or attend the course. Some participants may not have enrolled due to scheduling conflicts with other required courses, a lack of awareness about the course’s long-term benefits, or limitations in course availability or capacity. Additionally, time management issues may have influenced their decision to skip the elective course despite their recognition of its value. For some participants, demanding scheduling requirements posed significant challenges, as they were required to attend and teach in schools at specific times. Coordinating these school visits with the elective course and all other courses could have been difficult, especially since teachers in the schools had their own obligations, meaning students needed to adjust to the teachers’ availability rather than having flexibility in their own schedules.

*Table 12: Independent samples t-test for the (non-)participants in the elective course and their self-efficacy beliefs about the instructional strategies*

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.
elective course and yes self-efficacy about instructional strategies	4.13	0.402	2.582	49.272	0.010*
no	3.81	0.570			

*\*p < 0.05 level (2-tailed)*



## 5.5. Discussion

This study explored the perspectives of pre-service English teachers regarding their self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. The findings reveal that gender does not affect EFL pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, as there is no significant difference found between male and female participants concerning student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Consequently, our initial research hypothesis is validated. Conversely, our second hypothesis is discarded, as the data show no significant difference in the self-efficacy beliefs between 1<sup>st</sup> year and 2<sup>nd</sup> year students on student engagement and classroom management, indicating that the year of study is not a crucial variable in this context. This lack of difference could be attributed to several factors: both groups may have had similar levels of teaching exposure or practical experience, the curriculum may not differentiate substantially between the first and the second-year students in terms of teaching practice, or individual variations in self-efficacy beliefs may be influenced more by personal traits and external teaching environments than by specific year of study. Additionally, shared learning experiences among peers across year levels could have minimized distinctions. Furthermore, the general academic environment and support from faculty might have played a stronger role in shaping self-efficacy than the progression from the first to the second year. However, when it comes to instructional strategies, hypothesis is partially supported by the research findings, which reveal a significant difference in the self-efficacy beliefs about instructional strategies between pre-service English teachers who attended the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners* and those who did not. This can be attributed to the fact that, in the elective course, pre-service English teachers visited real-life classrooms and experimented with techniques that improved their confidence in executing behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments or applying effective instructional strategies to meet their students' needs. Majority of the participants strongly agree with all the items in the category *instructional strategies* and thus express confidence in their ability to effectively apply alternative strategies while catering for their students' needs. Moreover, when asked whether elective study courses like *Teaching English to Young Learners* should be a part of a formal novice teacher training, participants expressed their agreement, suggesting that practical courses in general should be compulsory for future teachers because of their specific content, target audience and first-hand experience. Based on the overall questionnaire results, it can be concluded that the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners* has the potential to alter certain aspects of the pre-existing beliefs held by pre-service

English teachers. The contribution made by the self-efficacy component in this study might contribute to the future study of self-regulation and motivation in academic settings.

## 6. Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. Pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs play a crucial role in shaping their classroom practices. The study involved 63 pre-service English teachers, most of whom had no prior teaching experiences. Participants who enrolled in the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners* had some teaching experience with young learners (grades 1-4). The research utilized the Questionnaire on Pre-service English Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs as its instrument.

The research findings indicate that there are no differences in self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies between female and male participants, nor between 1<sup>st</sup> year and 2<sup>nd</sup> year graduate students. However, participants with some teaching experience gained from the elective course *Teaching English to Young Learners* tended to select the higher end of the Likert scale in their questionnaire responses. Interestingly enough, all the participants, even the ones that did not enroll in the elective study course *Teaching English to Young Learners*, selected the option 'yes' in the Part A of the questionnaire when asked about their opinion if elective study courses like *Teaching English to Young Learners* should be a formal part of training for future teachers. In other words, all the participants agree that there should be more mandatory courses where students can experience the teaching practicum.

The overall results indicate that the majority of pre-service English teachers share common self-efficacy beliefs about student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies, aligning with the literature on second or foreign language learning and the principles of TPR, CLT, and CLL. Furthermore, their responses reflected a high level of enthusiasm for teaching in schools, coupled with some insecurities about their readiness to teach. These findings highlight the need to design teacher-training programs that would address the complexity of academic self-efficacy beliefs and incorporate students' suggestions into future syllabus design.

Pre-service teachers' self-efficacy belief systems can be attributed to several key factors. Firstly, prior teaching experience plays a significant role, as hands-on practice allows EFL pre-service

teachers to build confidence in their abilities. Secondly, the quality and structure of teacher training programs are crucial, providing essential pedagogical knowledge and classroom management skills. Mentorship and feedback from experienced educators also contribute positively, offering guidance and reinforcement of effective teaching practices. Additionally, personal attributes such as resilience, adaptability, and a positive mindset further influence self-efficacy. Lastly, supportive learning environments that encourage collaboration and reflective practice can enhance pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in their teaching capabilities. These factors collectively shape the self-efficacy belief system of pre-service teachers, ultimately impacting their classroom performance and professional growth. Enhancing awareness of the significance of pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and integrating more practical experience into existing teacher training programs could lead to improved preparation for the future challenges and demands of real-world classroom environments.

To comprehensively understand the casual relationships between the aforementioned factors, additional experimental studies are essential. For future research, we suggest a longitudinal study examining the self-efficacy belief systems of the same participants over an extended period. This would provide invaluable insights into the flexibility or rigidity of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and enable a detailed analysis of variables such as teaching experience, modern educational paradigms, and actual classroom environments. Future research should consider addressing the following questions: (i) How have contemporary educational paradigms influenced pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching? (ii) Which factors have had the most significant impact on shaping the self-efficacy belief systems? (iii) How do these self-efficacy beliefs impact their teaching performance and their selection of teaching methods and techniques?

However, the conclusions derived from this research may not be entirely reliable due to certain limitations. The small sample size of the study restricts the generalizability of its findings and results. Additional limitation in this area is the missingness of a reliable instrument that assesses the multidimensional nature of self-efficacy in the context of an academic setting. Further adjustments to the scale may guarantee the possibility to compare students from different degree programs, different curricula and conditions. Despite these limitations, the research could provide valuable guidance for Croatian curriculum designers and policymakers in effectively incorporating the findings into the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) MA program.

Furthermore, understanding and enhancing pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are crucial, as these beliefs significantly impact their teaching performance and classroom management. Addressing these self-efficacy beliefs within curriculum could lead to more confident and competent future educators.

Lastly, we recommend that future researchers incorporate an analysis of self-efficacy belief systems in the TEFL MA program to foster greater reflective practice and stimulate inquiry into the core purpose of education. By integrating self-efficacy training, future studies can better support pre-service teacher in developing a robust belief in their teaching capabilities, ultimately leading to improved educational outcomes.

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## Appendix

### Questionnaire on Pre-Service Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

\*Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for pre-service teachers who are just starting to prepare for work in schools.

\* The aim of this research is to find out what the pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching and learning English are.

\*All the questions are about pre-service teaching of English in schools and their self-efficacy beliefs.

\*Your answers are valuable. Please be frank while answering each question. The data collected will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purposes. Your answers are confidential.

#### ***Part A: Personal Information***

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1. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Year of study:        1<sup>st</sup> year of graduate studies        2<sup>nd</sup> year of graduate studies
3. Gender:        M        F
4. Did you enroll the *Teaching English to Young Learners* course?    Yes        No
5. Do you think the courses like *Teaching English to Young Learners* are needed as a part of formal training for future teachers?    Yes        No

#### ***Part B: The Questionnaire***

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Instructions: Circle the alternative that best describes your opinion.

Scale: (1) - nothing (2) - very little (3) - some influence (4) - quite a bit (5) - a great deal

SN	<u>QUESTIONS</u>					
1	How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	1	2	3	4	5
2	How much can you do to help your students think critically?	1	2	3	4	5
3	How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
4	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	1	2	3	4	5

5	To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	1	2	3	4	5
6	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	1	2	3	4	5
7	How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	1	2	3	4	5
8	How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	1	2	3	4	5
9	How much can you do to help your students value learning?	1	2	3	4	5
10	How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	1	2	3	4	5
11	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	1	2	3	4	5
12	How much can you do to foster student creativity?	1	2	3	4	5
13	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	1	2	3	4	5
14	How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	1	2	3	4	5
15	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	1	2	3	4	5
16	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	1	2	3	4	5
17	How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	1	2	3	4	5
18	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	1	2	3	4	5
19	How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class?	1	2	3	4	5
20	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	1	2	3	4	5
21	How well can you respond to defiant students?	1	2	3	4	5

<b>22</b>	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>23</b>	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>24</b>	How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>