An Education Epidemic?:Investigating teachers' self-efficacy during emergency online teaching in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, and its impacts on instructional practice

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An Education Epidemic?: Investigating teachers' self-efficacy during emergency online teaching in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, and its impacts on instructional practice.

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Table of Contents

Table of figures

Abstract

English language teaching has experienced significant changes over the last year due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Recommendations for social distancing meant a move to online teaching for many English language teachers, prompting numerous difficulties and issues for them. This mixed methods study investigates the effect that the rapid move to online learning has had on teachers' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994), and whether their self-efficacy influences their instructional effort and teaching practice. A survey was used to collect data on the participants self-efficacy, alongside demographic information, followed by interviews which collected qualitative data focusing on the teachers' instructional practice in the online classroom. The teachers' self-efficacy was measured against Compton's (2009) online language teaching framework. The results demonstrated that across all skills the teachers reported high self-efficacy, and that they exerted a high amount of effort in their planning and instruction. The highest self-efficacy was seen in technological skills, and the lowest in pedagogical skills, specifically knowledge of online teaching theories. Additionally, issues with student engagement, classroom management and creating a classroom atmosphere were raised within the interviews, which may be related to teachers' self-efficacy. The findings within this study may provide notable information for online teacher training and administrative preparation for emergency situations such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Abbreviations

CELTA – Certificate of English Language Teaching to Adults
CLT – Communicative Language Teaching
COVID – Coronavirus
EFL – English as a foreign language
ICT – Information and Communications Technology
L2 – Second language
SCMC – Synchronous Computer Mediated Communication
TEFL – Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Introduction

At the beginning of 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic had affected all aspects of daily life, including education. At the beginning of the pandemic, the World Health Organisation recommended social distancing as a means to prevent the spread of the disease (WHO, 2020), meaning alternative teaching methods were employed in many countries. UNESCO reports that, at its height in April 2020, close to 1.5 billion students had their schools either fully or partially closed (UNESCO, 2021). In total, it was reported that the schools of 1,130,169,834 students had fully closed, and that 50,134,558 students had partially closed schools (European Data Portal, 2020). Until as recently as August 2021, disruption within education was still affecting 112 million learners (UNESCO, 2021). UNESCO Director-General, Audrey Azoulay commented that "[n]ever before have we witnessed educational disruption on such a large scale" (UNESCO, no date). In response to the social distancing guidelines presented by the WHO and governments across the world, teaching methods were adapted drastically. UNICEF reported that 83 per cent of countries opted to use online platforms for their remote learning (UNICEF, 2020). Online teaching was implemented rapidly across the world, which was a drastic change to the previous state of online teaching. Aljaraide and Bataineh published a paper in just 2019 and commented that "the use of online learning in the teaching and learning is still not being used widely" (p. 99), demonstrating just how quickly online teaching had to become a major aspect of education.

While teaching was affected across all ages and subjects, TESOL was affected in a number of specific ways. Hartshorn and McMurry (2020) found that online teaching didn't maintain the same quality for listening and speaking activities, nor were listening, speaking and grammar classes found to maintain their efficacy compared with face-to-face classes. The communicative nature of language education seems to be at odds with the technical difficulties associated with synchronous online teaching. Additionally, online classes are more suited to a lecture-style of teaching, as opposed to activity driven classes which has caused significant issues within EFL education (Richards, 2020).

The COVID pandemic was, and still is, an unprecedented situation that no one could have predicted, and the adaptations for education had to be organised rapidly. As a result of this, no one could be sure of the effects that these adaptations would have on students or teachers. For this reason, I have become greatly interested in exploring these effects, specifically the effects on teachers' self-confidence and instructional drive. As a teacher

myself, I was affected by the COVID pandemic as my teaching was disrupted significantly. I was teaching in South Korea at the time and all of our teaching was moved to online platforms. South Korea was one of the first countries with cases of COVID-19 (CSIS, 2020), and therefore one of the first countries to respond to the situation, there was little time to prepare for the move to online learning. As a result, my motivation for teaching dropped, and my stress and anxiety rose significantly. I felt pessimistic towards online learning and struggled to adapt it for my young learners. However, at the end of my time teaching online I felt far more comfortable, confident, and optimistic about the state of emergency online teaching and wondered if this was an experience had by all teachers who had this experience. I was interested to understand whether those who had more positive beliefs in their online teaching ability experienced greater success during the emergency online teaching period, and how this affected the way they taught their students, if at all.

In order to measure the teachers' confidence in their own teaching abilities, the study has drawn upon self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1994) which measures a belief in one's own abilities. Self-efficacy has been studied extensively, and a number of studies have been done into teaching self-efficacy and technology self-efficacy, but online teaching self-efficacy is a large gap in the literature. Furthermore, there have been various studies on the effects of emergency online teaching during the pandemic (*see* Hakim, 2020; Hassan et al., 2020; Noor et al., 2020; Moser et al., 2021 etc.) covering topics such as online teaching practice and the challenges facing practitioners within emergency online education. However, there is no existing literature on the effect of emergency online teaching on the self-efficacy of educators. Understanding where teachers feel more or less confident could be highly useful in the creation of successful and effective teacher training for situations such as the recent pandemic. In order to do this, the study has used an existing framework for online teaching skills by Compton (2009), which allowed me to measure teachers' self-efficacy within essential skill areas for online teaching.

Significance and contributions to the field

The recency of the COVID-19 pandemic combined with the lack of literature on the effects of emergency online teaching has provided a significant gap in the field for this study to fit and allows the study to make some potentially meaningful contributions. By investigating teachers' self-efficacy within this new teaching environment, there is potential to learn a number of things. First, there is the opportunity to monitor teacher self-efficacy and identify areas of weakness within emergency online teaching, potentially providing key data

for teacher training programs to determine what aspects of online teaching need to be included. Furthermore, this study may provide information relating to if and how self-efficacy and teaching practice are linked, which could offer insight to the teaching field as a whole, not just online teaching. Finally, there are very few online teaching frameworks (for example Hampel and Stickler, 2005; Compton, 2009), and many are out of date for modern online teaching. Therefore, the present study may help in identifying weaknesses in the existing frameworks and refining them to be more suitable for the online teaching today.

Overview

Following this introduction, this study is divided into 5 sections. In the literature review, I will analyse the existing findings within the literature about online teaching, self-efficacy and teaching during the pandemic. Next, the methodology is outlined alongside information about the participants and ethical implications of this study. Section 5 contains the results and discussion of this study, followed by the conclusion explaining the limitations of the study and the potential implications for further action within the field.

Literature review

Over recent years, more and more research has looked into the use of technology within the foreign language learning classroom. Within this research, there has been a large increase in the number of papers studying distance learning and the benefits and barriers surrounding it. However, due to the recent pandemic preventing learning from taking place, there is a gap in the literature regarding emergency plans for language teaching. Over the last year, some research has worked to cover this gap, but there is still much to be learned. Furthermore, within motivation research, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) is one of the lesser studied motivation theories compared with self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Within this chapter, I aim to present a wide array of research from the areas of online language teaching, self-efficacy, and self-efficacy's effects on teachers' behaviours within the classroom.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a motivational theory that deals with people self-reporting their own beliefs and motivations. Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (1997) as 'a belief in one's personal capabilities.' Bandura, being the most prominent academic in this field, then states that these beliefs 'determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave.' (Bandura, 1994, p. 1). He claims that high-self efficacy, where people are confident in their own abilities, allows people to 'approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided.' (Bandura, 1994, p.1) It is a concept rooted in social cognitive theory, which references the ability to intentionally influence one's 'functioning or life circumstances' (Bandura, 2002, p. 270). This translates well to the challenging transition to online learning, as Bandura also claims those with high self-efficacy maintain their efforts even when they fail. However, those with low self-efficacy 'shy away from difficult tasks' and 'dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes' (Bandura, 1994, p. 2). As with any rapid changes, moving to online teaching presents many obstacles to teachers, which could result in those teachers with low-self efficacy experiencing difficulties and decreased motivation.

Self-efficacy has a number of key aspects: its formation from personal experiences, its specificity to situations and its specificity to domains. Atay (2007) suggests that self-efficacy is formed by different categories of experience: 'personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with formal knowledge' (p. 205). This links into

the theory by Sherer et al. that proposes that self-efficacy develops from experiences of personal success (Sherer et al, 1982;). However, the experiences may not need to be successes in order to affect self-efficacy. This is demonstrated in Atay's (2007) study, which demonstrated that teachers had a lowered self-efficacy due to initial teaching failures. Therefore, if a teacher has had poor experiences of online teaching, using SCMC technology, or teaching in general (as self-efficacy affecting experiences can be more general), they may have low self-efficacy when transferring to emergency online learning. It was stated by Sherer et al (1982) that self-efficacy was considered to be mostly situation-specific, meaning that some incidents of success that teachers experience in a classroom setting may not transform into online teaching self-efficacy. However, Bandura (1997) proposed the idea that those who have more experiences of mastery may feel a more generalised self-efficacy. This means that more experienced teachers overall may feel more confident in general rather than in a way that focuses on the target behaviour, in this case online teaching. In this way, it could be possible that teachers with more general teaching experience, regardless of whether it is online or offline, may feel more confident in general and have a higher self-efficacy overall when considering teaching tasks of all types. Topkaya (2010) calls self-efficacy 'domain specific' (p.144), which demonstrates the range of self-efficacy as having a general application within a specific area.

Teacher self-efficacy theories

Firstly, it is important to distinguish between teacher efficacy and teacher self-efficacy. Teacher efficacy was a concept proposed by Rotter in 1966, however self-efficacy was proposed by Bandura (1997). Bandura's self-efficacy theory revolves around teachers' beliefs in their own abilities, and how this perceived ability can affect how people think and behave. Rotter's version of teacher efficacy solely focuses on a teacher's belief of whether their actions can have an effect on outcomes. The difference is subtle, but Bandura's theory focuses far more on how teacher's belief in themselves changes their thoughts and actions, whereas rotter's theory focuses on the teacher's locus of control. Within this study, I am focusing on Bandura's theory, and studies that built on his theories, as the basis of my teacher self-efficacy research.

Another closely linked idea is that of outcome expectancies. Proposed as an additional expectancy belief by Bandura (1997), outcome expectancies are the belief that a person's behaviour will lead to a specific outcome. Yuan and Zhang (2016) state that there is a "complex relationship between self-efficacy and outcome expectations" (p.143) and that this

relationship can influence teachers' motivations. Once again, in this study I am focusing solely on self-efficacy due to time and resource constraints, but it is important to acknowledge the strong links found between both self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancy in the literature, and to point out that it would be difficult to prove that results are fully attributed to one and to disregard the effects of the other.

Studies into EFL language teachers' self-efficacy

As stated previously, self-efficacy is domain specific, meaning there are many sub-categories of self-efficacy. A number of studies have been done researching self-efficacy within teachers, and its effect on teaching practice. Teacher self-efficacy, as studied by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) has been linked to student motivation, student achievement and student efficacy, demonstrating how essential it is for teachers to have high self-efficacy in their skills and knowledge.

There has also been specific self-efficacy research into language teachers. For example, Zakeri and Alavi (2011) discovered in their study that teachers showed the lowest self-efficacy in student engagement and instructional strategies, rather than classroom management. Their study also found a link between self-efficacy and knowledge of English, which could present potential for a study into the self-efficacy of teachers with different first languages. Zakeri and Alavi (2011) commented that "[i]t seems that English teachers' confidence about their capabilities to teach English affects their efficacy." (p. 417). In contrast, Eslami and Fatahi (2008) found that Iranian EFL teachers had higher self-efficacy in their instructional strategies than in classroom management. However, their participants also had lower self-efficacy in student engagement and motivation. Teachers' low self-efficacy in student engagement and instructional strategies may link with some issues found in online teaching studies. Lack of student engagement (Riasati et al., 2012; Srichanyachon, 2014; Fandiño et al., 2019), is regularly noted as a major issue in online language teaching, and the rapid implementation of online learning environments could mean a lack of training in instructional strategies.

Another highly studied area of EFL language teachers' self-efficacy is its effect on motivation. Sahakyan et al. (2018) noted that self-efficacy has been studied to affect teacher behaviour, which in turn can affect the motivation and achievement of learners. This finding was echoed by Zakeri and Alavi (2011) who found that teachers with lower self-efficacy in their language competence were less likely to try and engage students in language mastery

experiences. Their motivation was low and therefore their learners lost the chances to improve their abilities, potentially lowering their achievement. On the other end of the spectrum, Yuan and Zhang (2016) stated that teachers with high self-efficacy "thus are likely to gain satisfaction and foster motivations towards teaching" (p. 143).

In terms of how self-efficacy can be changed, professional development has been seen to positively impact language teachers' self-efficacy. In a study by Karimi (2011), it was found that professional development caused a positive change in EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. This included in-service training, observation, and mentoring among other things. Similarly, Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) were shown to have positive effects on both pedagogical and language self-efficacy for EFL teachers (Zonoubi et al., 2017), which involves teachers meeting and sharing experiences and challenges within a set topic. According to Bandura (1997), mastery experiences are the most important factor to improving self-efficacy. Karimi (2011) then states that professional development can provide teachers with these mastery experiences needed to improve their self-efficacy.

Studies into online language teachers' self-efficacy

Another important area of confidence for online teaching is their perceived ability to successfully use technology. Computer self-efficacy, as defined by Compeau and Higgins (1995), is "a judgement of one's capabilities to use a computer" (p. 192). In terms of measuring computer self-efficacy, many of the tools are outdated. For example, a heavily used scale is the Computer Self-efficacy Scale by Murphy et al (1989). With the rapid progression of technology, this scale is now outdated and would require significant revision to be used in any modern-day computer self-efficacy study, but it helped form a framework for studies of this kind. More modern studies such as those by Valanides and Angeli (2008), Topkaya (2010), Celik and Yesilyurt (2012) and Chen (2012) used alternative methods to ensure their studies properly represented modern technology.

Within the study by Valanides and Angeli (2008), it was determined that in order for teachers to develop computer self-efficacy, they needed to be introduced to technology effectively, and correctly taught the features of computer tools. Furthermore, the teachers must be trained in a way that gives them a positive experience and outlook, therefore encouraging them to use the technology more. This then links to the original theory that self-efficacy is built from positive and successful experiences, continuing to reinforce the teachers' computer self-efficacy.

Topkaya (2010) found that there is an expectation that teachers will be able to use teaching tools within their classrooms considering the discoveries around the effectiveness of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning). This expectation of digital literacy could add further pressure onto teachers, especially teachers who are unfamiliar with CALL and who are being asked to transition to online teaching with little adjustment time. The stress of these expectations could affect self-efficacy for some teachers. Additionally, it is important to remember that the focus of this study is not the implementation of CALL within the classroom, it is of CALL as an alternative classroom itself. Therefore, the expectation that teachers can use teaching tools is far heavier and could affect self-efficacy even more than previously.

In a study focused on EFL teachers in Taiwan, Chen (2012) found that over 96% of teachers were either "confident" or "very confident" using technology, meaning their computer self-efficacy was high. Chen's questionnaire was developed using the computer anxiety rating scale and computer thoughts survey by Rosen and Weil (1992, cited in Chen 2012) and the computer self-efficacy scale by Durndell, Haag and Laithwaite (2000). As mentioned previously, technology is advancing rapidly, and the rating scales and surveys used previously are becoming more outdated every year. Items such as '11. Moving the cursor around the monitor screen' (Durndell, Haag and Laithwaite, 2000, p. 1041) are now included under the expected digital literacies of a teacher, as discussed by Topkaya (2010). It may be beneficial to adapt and modernise these scales to include commonly used teaching tools such as cloud technology, switching between multiple programmes and using Microsoft Office. Moreover, with rapidly changing CALL technology and an increasing demand for what teachers should be able to do, the percentage of teachers who feel confident or very confident in using computers may have changed since Chen's study in 2012.

It is also important to acknowledge the concept of computer anxiety. Maurer and Simonson (1984) define computer anxiety as 'the fear or apprehension felt by an individual when using computers, or when considering the possibility of computer utilization.' (p. 321). This definition is relatively outdated now, however, as computers are unavoidable in our daily lives and computer anxiety appears relatively uncommon. However, Celik and Yesilyurt (2012) studied the link between computer anxiety and computer self-efficacy and found that "[t]eacher candidates' attitude to technology significantly explains computer anxiety" (p. 155). For this specific study, I will not be focusing on it explicitly, but it should be noted as being linked to self-efficacy regarding technology.

Investigating online teachers' self-efficacy is highly important, especially during the unprecedented teaching situation that the pandemic presented, as many of the areas in which teachers have low self-efficacy overlap with the issues discovered during online emergency learning, as will be covered later. This overlap could uncover a link between low self-efficacy and the problems that arose, which could further assist with creating a solution.

Effect of self-efficacy on teaching practice.

With regards to the effect of self-efficacy, it is commonly linked with motivation and teacher behaviour. Khorrami-Arani (2001) noted that, among other things, 'self-efficacy influenced … their amount of effort in conducting a task, and the length of time they would persevere through obstacles and difficulties' (p. 18) demonstrating the effect of self-efficacy on teacher motivation. This idea was reinforced by Schunk et al. (2008) who found that self-efficacy can indicate the effort exerted and persistence to overcome issues that people will experience (cited in Yuan and Zhang, 2016). This idea may also be true for the reverse, as Bandura (1997) states that '[i]nsidious self-doubts can overrule even the best of skills' (p.35), and Zakeri and Alavi (2011) found that teachers with low self-efficacy in teaching English could affect teachers drive to motivate learners. Low self-efficacy may indeed have a negative effect on the motivation and behaviour of teachers.

As shown by these studies, self-efficacy has a clear effect on motivation. In turn, teacher motivation has a number of effects on teaching practice. Dolton and Marcenaro-Gutierrez (2011) found that countries with poor teacher motivation experienced poor teacher performance, which could be linked to the teachers' practices within the classroom. Similarly, Ololube (2006) found that teachers' motivation from their job satisfaction highly impacts job performance. More specifically, "teaching related sources of job satisfaction seem to have a greater impact on job performance" (p. 14). There is potential that self-efficacy could be a teaching related source of job satisfaction considering its effect on motivation.

Unfortunately, however, there is only a small number of studies surrounding self-efficacy's effect on motivation and teaching practice. There is a distinct lack of studies surrounding teacher self-efficacy beliefs regarding online teaching and the effect of computer self-efficacy beliefs on teacher practice. Therefore, this study will provide important insight regarding how teachers teach depending on their self-efficacy beliefs about target skills. In Bandura (1977), it was suggested that self-efficacy is a more successful predictor of

behaviour than past performance or outcome expectancies. Additionally, Atay (2007) found that there was a strong link between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their instructional behaviours in teaching. Schunk's (1991) study agreed with this concept, stating that self-efficacy beliefs can successfully predict performance across ability levels, however this study took place with students as opposed to teachers. This evidence increasingly suggests that self-efficacy, motivation, and teaching practice are linked, and that is providing the basis for this studies legitimacy.

Online teaching guidance and frameworks

For face-to-face teaching, there are many existing frameworks against which we can measure a teacher's ability. For example, CLT has been one of the leading frameworks in English teaching since the 1970's (Littlewood et al., 1981). However, as online teaching and learning has become more popular, a need for a more specific online teaching framework has grown. Hampel and Stickler (2005) note that online teachers require different skills to teachers working in a face-to-face environment, however there is not enough online teacher training to teach these skills. This poses the need for a dedicated online teaching framework against which teachers can be trained and assessed as online language teachers.

Hampel and Stickler (2005) proposed their own online EFL teaching framework, a pyramid that labels the skills required by online EFL tutors and the order in which they should be acquired. The pyramid includes 8 layers, scaling from "basic ICT competence" up to a teacher's "own style". This framework appears to deal with roughly two topics – technology skills and pedagogy skills, however it combines them within the pyramid in a way that presents them as skills to be acquired sequentially. This was acknowledged as an issue by Compton (2009), who commented that a number of these skills no not need to be acquired in sequence, such as facilitating communicative competence and specific technical competence for the software.

A further criticism of this framework is that L2 acquisition may not actually require socialisation online (Compton, 2009). While sociocultural theory states that L2 acquisition requires interaction and communication, it does not require any sort of social aspect. Although, a study by Lee (2004) showed that L2 speakers were anxious to communicate in an environment where no effort was made to form a community and help people socialise. Additionally, Hampel and Stickler (2005) define their version of socialisation as "netiquette" (p. 318), focusing more heavily on the behaviour and discipline involved in online teaching,

and less so the social aspect. Classroom control and management are essential parts of running any classroom, especially an online one, therefore I would argue that online socialisation is a necessary trait for any online language teacher to have.

One of the main critics of the Hampel and Stickler framework is Compton, who developed a newer online language teaching framework in 2009. In a similar but more distinct way to Hampel and Sticklers pyramid, Compton divides up the skills of online language teachers into three categories: technological skills, pedagogical skills, and evaluation skills. Each of the categories of skills is then divided up into mastery levels of novice, proficient and expert. There are specific abilities linked to each level, and this can help teachers to self-assess and determine where they may need to improve. Linking back to self-efficacy, this framework compliments the motivational theory well as it allows for teachers to clearly see where their own skills lie.

A major way in which Compton (2009) improves upon Hampel and Sticklers (2005) framework is the inclusion of basic technological skills as a prerequisite for online English teachers. As digital literacy improves, more technological skills are being expected from teachers, and those skill requirements are constantly changing with technology advances. By being purposefully vague, Compton has stopped the framework from becoming outdated quickly. Furthermore, in an earlier paper by Bennett and Marsh (2002) they state that knowing how to send an email or insert an image is not enough to be a successful online teacher, demonstrating that as far back as the early 2000's there were digital literacy pre-requisites in place for online teachers. This inclusion in the framework is extremely necessary.

One criticism I have for this framework is that it still assumes a sequential acquisition of skills on the teacher's part, although with this formatting the skills are linked together by type. For example, technology skills are no longer tied to pedagogy skills in terms of sequence, but different areas of technology are listed sequentially when it is not necessarily the case. For example, the "ability to troubleshoot basic browser problems" and "creativity when using and adapting technology for online language learning tasks" are things that can be learned out of sequence or separately from one another. Unfortunately, technology and pedagogy are such broad topics that, without narrowing them down to an unreasonable amount, there will most likely be some level of mismatch when looking at skill acquisition in

a sequential manner, especially when trying to cover a broad range of skills for training and assessment purposes.

Additionally, Bennett and Marsh (2002) note 3 areas of skills that must be developed for successful online teaching, which are technological skills, being able to ‘‘identify the significant differences and similarities between face-to-face and online learning and teaching contexts’’ (p.16) and the ability to ‘‘identify strategies and techniques to facilitate online learning and help students exploit the advantages in relation to both independent and collaborative learning’’ (p. 16). Both Hampel and Stickler’s and Compton’s frameworks sufficiently cover technical online skills, acknowledging the difference between offline and online learning and how to facilitate collaborative learning, but neither mention how teachers should facilitate independent learning within the online classroom. Considering the context of this study is emergency online learning and the translation of classroom materials to an online environment, independent study will still make up a significant amount of teaching time. Were this framework to be used for teacher training, the facilitation of independent learning and study would be an amendment I would recommend strongly.

With regards to how Compton’s (2009) framework fits the context of this study, it provides a solid basis for the evaluation of teachers’ self-efficacy in terms of their technical ability, pedagogical skills and knowledge and their evaluation skills. However, there are a number of areas which, while perfectly suitable for a regular online language teacher, are not suited to a situation of last-minute, emergency online teaching. In both Hampel and Stickler’s (2005) and Compton’s (2009) studies, references are made to online material, both finding and evaluating them. During the COVID-19 pandemic, many schools were forced to adapt already prepared face-to-face classroom materials for the online classroom due to curriculum or examination restrictions.

Teacher self-efficacy research has already provided us with some findings that can be linked to Compton’s framework for online teaching. Zakeri and Alavi (2011) found that teacher self-efficacy was lower when concerning student engagement and instructional strategies. In the novice teacher category of pedagogical skills, teachers are required to have knowledge of strategies and theories to facilitate student interaction and language learning. Both of these skills are important to have as a novice, in the words of Compton, therefore not having developed these skills could lead to low self-efficacy in that area. Furthermore, Atay (2007) found that teachers who were confident in their ability to teach English, and who

worked on their English teaching skills, had a higher self-efficacy than those who were not. This can be reflected in the pedagogical section of the framework where high emphasis is placed on knowledge of teaching techniques and theories.

It is important to note the speed of technology development when discussing online teaching guidance. Technology is progressing faster than ever, and this means that frameworks for online teaching may age and become outdated faster than those for face-to-face teaching such as CLT or CLIL. Creating a framework that can keep up to date with tech progression is highly challenging as they will most likely need to be updated and adapted regularly. Both frameworks discussed were created in 2005 and 2009, and they already show signs of their age. For example, Compton (2009) cites Chapelle and Hegelheimer (2004) who they mention that familiarity with basic computer applications are skills that even face-to-face teachers require nowadays. This demonstrates the ever-increasing requirements for online teachers, and therefore the ever-changing requirements to be featured within an online teaching framework.

Online learning issues

Emergency online learning is a relatively new concept that found use around the world during the COVID-19 pandemic. It differs from regular online learning in that it is used as a replacement for in-person teaching, as opposed to classes that are planned to be online. Emergency, or non-volitional, online teaching was often implemented rapidly, with little time for teachers to adjust or adapt their offline materials for the online classroom. Furthermore, because this is seen as a temporary solution, many teachers were working with syllabuses or curriculums intended for face-to-face teaching and adapting them for online teaching, whereas planned online courses have materials optimised for the online classroom.

Within this study, I aim to find out the effect of online teaching issues on teachers' self-efficacy. As found in many studies regarding the effects of online learning, the barriers to learning far outnumber the benefits. These issues can be divided into two categories – technical issues and human issues. Frequently mentioned technical issues within online teaching studies included a lack of access or poor access to technology e.g. slow internet, internet cutting out, lagging etc (Riasati et al., 2012; Srichanyachon, 2014). There were a number of human issues that were encountered too Riasati et al. (2012) found that teachers being ill prepared for online teaching, through both lack of training and lack of preparation time, was a major issue within online teaching. Isolation of students was found to be an issue

within online learning (Srichanyachon, 2014; Fandiño et al., 2019), which could cause students to become uninvolved and disengaged. Teachers' and students' attitudes towards technology (Riasati et al., 2012) was also raised as an issue within online teaching, as this can cause anxiety amongst teachers or resistance to change from both parties. A final issue that has been mentioned is the lack of non-verbal cues within the online classroom (Hampel and Stickler, 2005) which are essential for discipline, checking understanding and establishing rapport (Zeki, 2009).

Emergency online teaching during the COVID pandemic

A number of recent studies have explored the impact of alternative teaching methods during the covid pandemic. Moser Wei and Brenner (2021) made the important distinction that not all emergency remote teaching takes place online or uses technology. Some schools may avoid using technology for various reasons, but the British Council (2020) found that the majority of EFL teachers used asynchronous or synchronous online teaching in response to social distancing measures to continue their teaching. The present study will focus on the impact of emergency online learning, and therefore will explore the literature discussing online learning. Its also important to recognise that much of the literature discussing online learning pertains to situations of planned online learning. However, the students engaged in the emergency online learning taking place during the COVID-19 pandemic were not online by choice, nor were the teachers involved in educating them (Moser et al., 2021).

In terms of the online teaching situation, the British Council (2020) carried out a study which found that the majority of EFL teachers were using a mix of asynchronous and synchronous online teaching, with the most common platforms being group video and audio calls, and virtual classrooms and learning management systems (LMS) such as Moodle. Furthermore, the overall confidence rating from the teachers was 6.90/10, which seems relatively high considering that this is an emergency alternative to in-person teaching.

The studies into emergency online teaching found similar issues to those that studied planned online teaching. Technology issues were frequently mentioned, such as poor internet connection, lack of e-resources, high cost of internet (Demuyakor, 2020; Hassan et al., 2020; Noor et al., 2020). In terms of pedagogical issues, the main problems were poor knowledge of online teaching techniques and strategies, lack of experience of online teaching, low student engagement and a significant increase in time and effort used on planning lessons (Hassan et al., 2020; Noor et al., 2020; Moser et al., 2021). A frequently mentioned issue that

arose in studies about emergency teaching was the lack of classroom community, human interaction, adapting face-to-face content and a lack of body language/gestures (Wang, 2004; Dekumayor, 2020; Hassan et al., 2020; Moser et al., 2021) with the latter being a problem specifically mentioned within CMC in language teaching.

Studies have already began presenting possible solutions to these problems, with the most common recommendation being to improve teacher training. Mahmood (2020), Bao (2020) and the British Council made similar suggestions for improvement, such as training in voice and pitch management due to a lack of body language. Online teaching strategies were included in these suggestions, alongside training teachers how to combine synchronous and asynchronous studies for students. Outside of teacher training suggestions, Mahmood (2020) and Bao (2020) both recommend the inclusion of teaching assistants to provide effective support during online teaching and working on the students' ability to learn in an online setting. Finally, and potentially the most important recommendation to administrators, was that there needs to be a contingency plan should an emergency of this scale happen again (Bao, 2020; Mahmood, 2020), and that "solutions for those who don't have internet access need to be found" (British Council, 2020, p. 20).

Aims and research questions

The main aims of this study are to understand the problems presented by emergency online teaching and how they impact teachers' self-efficacy. Furthermore, I aim to investigate how self-efficacy affects teachers' actions and then understand how these findings can be used to create effective teacher training in preparation for similar situations in the future.

RQ1: How has emergency online teaching affected teachers' self-efficacy?

RQ2: How do teachers' self-efficacy beliefs affect their instructional effort or teaching practice, if at all?

Methodology

In carrying out this study, I opted for a mixed methods approach. This was due to the variety of benefits a mixed methods approach brings, such as the ability to work with the strengths of multiple methods and offset their weaknesses (Greene, 2007). Furthermore, Schunk (1991) states that while quantitative methods are the most commonly employed when studying self-efficacy, it is essential that qualitative data is collected too. This way, 'rich data sources' (Schunk, 1991, p. 226) can be collected for deeper analysis. While this required more work and planning, which are in short supply during a study of this time scale, it was important that I collected a wide range of data due to this being such a new and understudied area. In order to collect both data types, I opted to distribute a survey, and carry out follow up interviews with selected participants.

Participants

The criteria for participants were relatively minimal for this study. Any EFL teachers with experience of non-volitional online teaching due to COVID-19 were eligible to take part. This was to broaden the scope of the study and include as many teachers from as many different teaching backgrounds and nationalities as possible. For this study, native language, type of teaching establishment and years of experience were irrelevant, as I am studying the impact of emergency online teaching only. I had considered limiting the study to teachers who had taught for a certain amount of time online due to COVID, so that I could affectively measure the effects of online teaching over a longer amount of time. However, this could have significantly affected the number of teachers who could participate. Therefore, the study remained open for all EFL teachers with online teaching experience due to the recent pandemic.

The teachers that took part in the study ranged from 24 to 56 years of age. The vast majority of participants had a bachelors (46.2%) or master's degree (42.3%), with only 1 participant having a PhD. Of all the participants, 12 (46.1%) had degrees unrelated to education, English language or ELT. 77% of respondents had an additional TESOL qualification, such as a CELTA, Trinity Certifications or TEFL certifications, but it is unknown how many participants had both ELT related university education and additional qualifications. In terms of EFL teaching experience, there was a mean of 7.7 years of experience, with the minimum amount being just 1 year, and the maximum being 35 years. 25% of participants had online teaching experience, but no teachers had experience of emergency online teaching similar to that in response to the COVID pandemic. 34.6% of

participants received some form of online teaching training prior to beginning emergency online teaching. In terms of work environment, half of the participants worked from home, and half of the participants continued to work in their regular workplace. All participants worked for an organisation, including schools, after school academies, or universities. 19 of the 26 participants had an English teaching qualification such as a CELTA or a TEFL certification, but half of the participants did not study a degree related with education or English language.

Survey

The aim of the survey was to collect data about the issues stemming from online teaching and self-efficacy information about the participants. It included 30 questions, not including consent questions. Prior to the first full set of questions, participants had to read the full information sheet and confirm their consent to participate in the study. This was done in order to ensure that all participants understood the nature of the study and how the data would be stored, processed and used within the final paper.

The first set of questions were demographically focused questions, looking at age, gender, qualifications and teaching experience. The participants highest level of education, degree title and extra TESOL qualifications were requested.

The next set of questions covered the participants teaching experience. First, I asked how many years of EFL teaching they had in general, followed by questions about whether they had experience teaching online, and, more specifically, experience teaching online due to emergency measures. I then included a multiple-choice question about the main issues encountered when teaching online. The issues listed within the question were sourced from two areas: the initial pilot study, and previous online teaching studies' findings (Riasati et al., 2012; Srichanyachon, 2014; Fandiño et al., 2019). I also allowed for teachers to submit their own issues they may have had.

Next were questions focused one the participants self-perception. These investigated the participants self-efficacy and followed a similar format to other self-efficacy studies by asking participants to report on their own perceived ability to do certain tasks. Additionally, I used a set of scale questions which further matches the format of the previous studies within this field (*see* Atay, 2007; Topkaya, 2010; Zakeri and Alavi, 2011; Celik and Yesilyurt, 2012). Self-efficacy studies often use self-reporting surveys to determine a teacher's confidence in their abilities, and that is the method I adopted too. Within this section, I asked the participants if they received any online teaching or technology training before they began

teaching online and asked about the participants main motivations towards EFL teaching. The next two questions in the self-perception portion covered teachers' opinions towards emergency online teaching. I wanted to investigate the teachers' opinions prior to their first class, and then whether their opinion changed throughout their experience with online teaching.

The final set of questions within the self-perception section were based on Compton's online teaching framework (2009). I used the framework as a basis for what EFL teachers should be able to do, and then converted the requirements in each category into a 'I am confident…' phrase. This way, I can clearly and concisely measure which aspects of teaching the participants have high or low self-efficacy in.

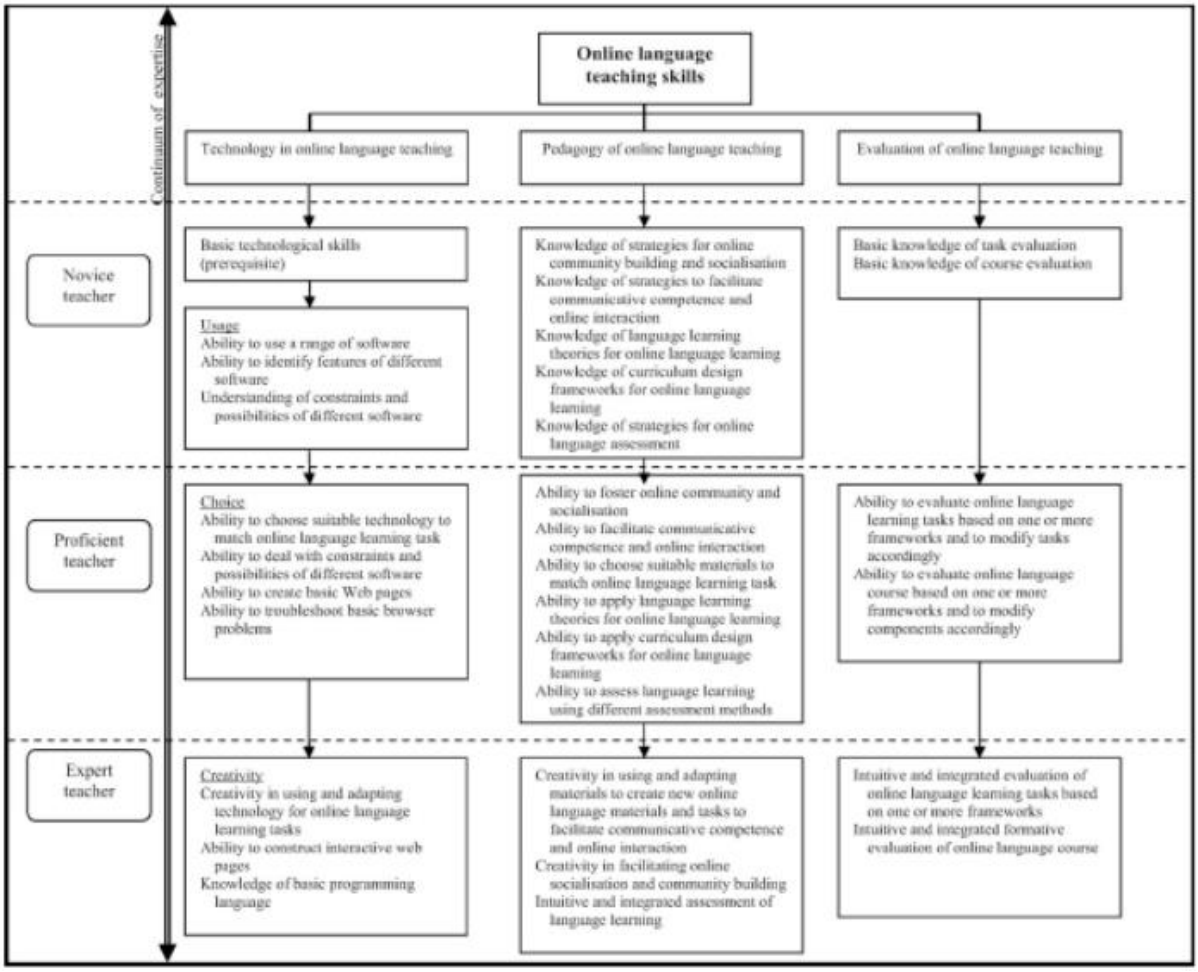

Figure 1: Compton's Online Teaching Framework (2009)

I chose to use Compton's framework for the basis of my questions as it provides concise skill requirements for teachers, and groups them clearly into types of ability

(technical, pedagogical and evaluative) and level (novice, proficient and expert). It also words its skills in a way that lends itself well to conversion into confidence statements such as the ones used in this survey. While I have used statements to represent each category and level, I have chosen not to convert every skill listed as this would make the survey too lengthy, which could result in low completion rates. Each requirement was chosen based on its originality, so if a trait was repeated but adapted for a higher level, it was omitted from the survey. I chose to use Likert-scale questions with a five-answer scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Originally, I used a mixture of closed questions and agree-disagree statements but opted to use only agree-disagree statements after the pilot study. The pilot study raised the issue that it was confusing to swap back and forth between question types and that it would be easier and clearer to maintain one question type for all of the Likert scale questions. Additionally, the participants of the pilot study raised the issue of difficult to understand wording within some of the questions. As a result, some of the statements have been reworded from the original framework to aid easier understanding. Participant comprehension was an essential part of the survey design as participants may not be familiar with specific EFL and technology related jargon.

The survey was created and distributed online. There were a number of reasons for this including reduced costs, ability to reach a broader audience and instant return of surveys, all of which can be an issue when distributing physical surveys. It also seemed fitting to distribute this survey online considering it is focusing on online learning, which in turn negated the concern that certain participants may not have access to the internet or a computer. One of the only issues with distributing an online survey is that the researcher cannot be completely sure that the person taking the survey is who they say they are, or that they are completely compatible. Considering the scope of this survey, I deemed this risk extremely low, and continued with the online survey.

Interviews

Interviews were carried out to explore the possible effect that teacher self-efficacy has on teaching practice within the non-volitional online classroom. I chose to explore this topic through more in-depth interviews so as to gain a more detailed insight into the personal experiences of individual teachers and have a wider range of qualitative data to draw upon when comparing it against the mixed data from the survey. As previously mentioned, collecting both qualitative and quantitative data is important within the topic of self-efficacy studies (Schunk, 1991) and by conducting interviews I am ensuring that this happens.

The interview questions were focused on the link between online teaching self-efficacy and teaching practice within the online classroom in emergency situations. I analysed the qualitative data from the survey regarding the issues with online learning and teachers' opinions of teaching online and used these findings to create a set of interview questions. In general, the survey responses contained a mix of positive and negative opinions towards online teaching, therefore I chose to keep a neutral tone within my interview questions. I also decided to keep the number of interview questions quite small, to allow time within the interview for participants to discuss any matters they felt were important but were not covered by the interview questions.

I created 5 interview questions based on the responses within the survey. First, I asked interviewees about a typical online class for them. This way, I could gauge how much freedom they had in planning, the age and level of the students they taught, and the type of teaching they were carrying out. This could then be compared with other interviewees for analysis with their answers. Next, I asked how much effort they felt they put into a) planning their classes online and b) teaching their classes online compared with their face-to-face classes. This then continues with the theme of self-efficacy and how confident the participants are in their work, and also builds on some of the responses from the survey that mentioned a lack of focus, feeling drained, and added pressure from being online. I separated the questions into planning and teaching sections as lack of preparation time was selected as an issue when teaching online within the survey, and some participants mentioned difficulty adapting materials. Therefore, I felt it was important to acknowledge the distinction between the two tasks. Finally, I asked participants how they felt their teaching changed when online compared with face-to-face teaching, and how effective their online classes were when compared with face-to-face teaching. By asking about teachers' perceived changes in their teaching I can compare it with the self-efficacy findings and analyse whether these changes correlate to a high or low self-efficacy rating and understand whether self-efficacy has an effect on teaching practice. Furthermore, by asking how effective teachers perceived their classes to be, I can gain more detailed insight into teachers' self-efficacy changes when moving to an online classroom and how confident they are in their ability to teach online effectively compared with their abilities to teach effectively face-to-face.

The interviews, in the same way as the surveys, were carried our online. I used the software Zoom and Microsoft Teams as these are widely accessible and free. This was due to many participants living overseas and to reduce personal contact due to COVID still being of concern for many people. The interviews were recorded, at the permission of the participants,

and then the contents of the interview were transcribed for analysis. Within the interview, participants were given the opportunity to add any information they felt may be useful to the study and were also able to ask questions regarding the topic and the study itself.

Potential issues

There were a number of potential issues regarding both the survey and the interview techniques being used. First, there is the concern that the survey would not receive an appropriate number of responses. At first, this was an issue. However, the response criteria were broadened from solely EFL teachers who had worked in Asia, to EFL teachers worldwide. Furthermore, with such a broad criterion for responders, I was able to share the survey within many groups and gain as many responses as possible.

Unfortunately, when sharing surveys of this kind online, it is impossible to monitor the people participating and the truthfulness behind their responses. This is a risk associated with any survey that is being freely distributed without monitoring participants during the response process. Considering the scale of this study and its topic, I believe that any incompatible participation or misleading responses are very unlikely. Therefore, the benefits of distributing the survey online far outweigh any risks associated with the method.

Regarding issues within the data, one of the main concerns is regarding the nature of self-reporting and its reliability. Schacter (1999) researched the human memory, and identified a number of flaws within it, which could suggest that self-report data is less reliable than other information as it relies solely on the memory of the participant. However, the reliability of self-report data within the field of education has not been researched thoroughly enough to draw this conclusion. Therefore, the benefits of using this method, alongside the fact that this is the most common method of measuring self-efficacy as seen in other studies of this kind (Atay, 2007; Topkaya, 2010; Zakeri and Alavi, 2011; Celik and Yesilyurt, 2012) outweigh the risk that the self-reported data may be somewhat unreliable.

The final potential issue is one of conflict of interests. Some of the participants of this study are co-workers and peers. Therefore, there is a small chance that this would affect the answers given within this study, particularly as it is dealing with sensitive topics such as teaching ability and self-confidence. In order to recruit a significant number of participants, co-workers and peers have been included in the study, but it is important to acknowledge that my personal relationship with some of them could have an effect on their responses.

Analysis methods

The data collected from this survey will be processed through 2 types of software. Any quantitative data will be processed through SPSS. The mean of the Likert scale questions will be calculated, and any other numerical data will be processed by finding an average or percentage. The qualitative data will be processed through NVivo software and analysed using thematic analysis (The University of Auckland, no date). Furthermore, the quantitative and qualitative data triangulated against each other to find any link between self-efficacy scores and teaching practices.

Results and Discussion

Research question 1: What are EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about online teaching?

Overall, the survey results showed that the teachers had a relatively high self-efficacy across all skills (mean of all skills: 3.65). Statements that teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with were uncommon. This matches with the study done by the British council (2020) where the teachers had a confidence rating of a 6.9/10. The British Council's study surveyed teachers from all over the globe and included teachers who had taught online both synchronously and asynchronously from all kinds of institutions, which matches the participant data from the present study.

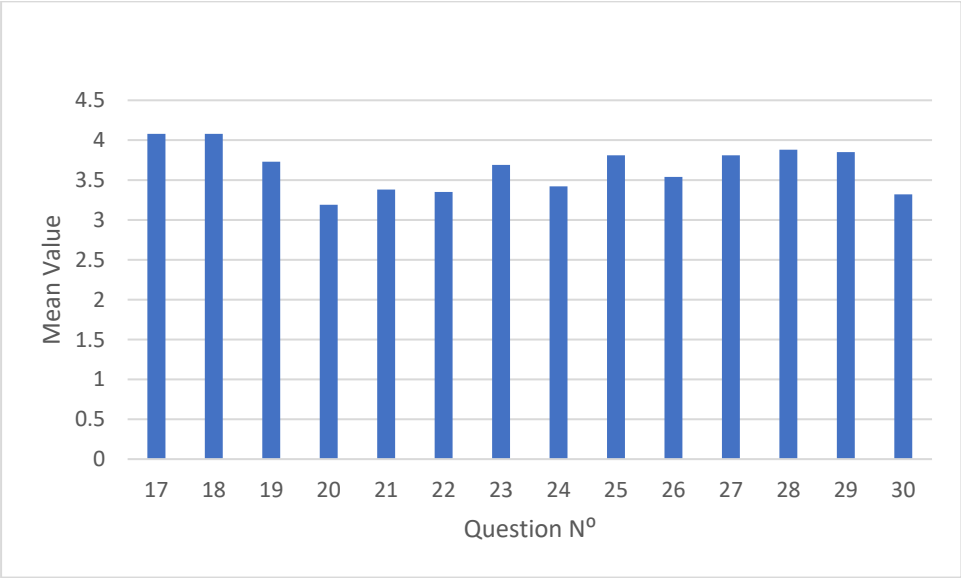

Figure 2: Mean values from Questions 17-30

Technology skills

Quantitative results

The highest self-efficacy ratings were in technology skills, which were 4.08 for questions 17 and 18 and 3.73 for question 19. Question 17 was about choosing suitable online tasks, and the high mean aligns with the findings that the issue of least concern was 'Software issues on the teacher's side' when being asked about online teaching issues within the survey. The teachers appeared confident in their ability to use, choose, and evaluate technology, as demonstrated by the high mean for question 18. Question 19 focused on the teachers' knowledge of the constraints and possibilities of the software they used and reported a slightly lower mean than question 17 and 18, but still one that demonstrated a relatively high self-efficacy. These findings of high computer self-efficacy are further supported by findings

in Chen's (2012) study that demonstrated that teachers were confident in their ability to use computers. Although Chen's study focused only on Taiwanese elementary EFL teachers, so computer self-efficacy data may be different on a global scale or when considering teachers within different contexts. Furthermore, Chen investigated computer use within the classroom, not online teaching, so data for computer self-efficacy could differ across contexts.

However, there have been a number of studies during the pandemic that have demonstrated issues with the use of technology, for example Noor et al (2020) and Hassan and Hussain (2020), who reported that a lack of technological skills were significant issues for teachers. These studies focus exclusively on teachers who were not prepared for online teaching, and therefore may be more accurate to the current situation. Although, the reason for this contrast could be that these studies are localised to Pakistan and India respectively, whereas the present study is delocalised and has participants from all over the world.

Qualitative results

The self-efficacy ratings are supported by the responses given within the interviews. The participants spoke about their ability to choose and creatively use and adapt technology, which were the first two self-efficacy rating statements. Interviewee 1 discussed using breakout rooms and "allowing students to connect in small groups, then popping in and out yourself.". They also discussed that they used technology as a way to engage and connect with the students.

It was an opportunity to let the students explain to me how it all works and let them get on with it, making them more or less autonomous on the platform… They could organise themselves, they could upload documents, share stuff that they wanted to show others which made them feel pretty good.

Interviewees 2 and 4 discussed using PowerPoints to visually engage learners, alongside mentioning the use of whiteboard features within the software. Interviewee 3 commented that they used a Facebook call function because it has "video and also sharing the screen", and interviewee 1 mentioned sharing clips with the students. None of the interviewees explicitly mentioned having issues finding or choosing software to teach with. All participants clearly explained the ways in which they used the software, and this supports the high means for the technology self-efficacy questions. The teachers' basic knowledge and use of software doesn't appear to be a major issue for online teaching.

A further demonstration of technological competence was the participants' ability to adapt their materials and teaching techniques for online learning which was another main theme during the interview. Success in this area demonstrates the third self-efficacy measure which was understanding the constraints and possibilities of the software. Interviewee 1 commented that

"[I]t was an experiment, you know, and as the year progressed, I became more and more clear about making sure they knew my expectations".

By experimenting with their teaching, this participant demonstrates that they were learning the limitations of the software, and by the end of the online teaching period they understood this well. Interviewee 2 discussed that there were numerous limitations to using the video call software with their young students, and this resulted in the incorporation of physical objects that were present in the student's space as teaching tools. This demonstrated their ability to recognise the barriers to learning caused by the software and showed the adaptations the teacher made to their classes in order to bypass these barriers. Interviewee 3 commented that online presentations can be difficult to read or distracting to students. To resolve this, they ensured that their presentations were easy to read, engaging and well balanced between text, images and dead space, further exhibiting a clear understanding of the constraints of technology. In terms of the possibilities of the software, interviewee 1 shared that they encouraged their students to use technology freely while they taught, such as using online dictionaries.

It was an opportunity to let the students explain to me how it all works and let them get on with it, making them more or less autonomous on the platform, you know, making them co-hosts and stuff so that they could, they could move around the groups. They could organize themselves, they could upload documents, share stuff that they wanted to show others, which made them feel pretty good.

These accounts present the participants knowledge of the constraints and possibilities associated with the various software that they were working with and align with the self-efficacy information that teachers feel relatively confident in their knowledge of and ability to use the software appropriately for online teaching. However, it is important to remember that these accounts were taken after the online teaching process, therefore the teachers may have gained these skills over the course of their time teaching online. One survey response stated that "[o]nce I got the hang of it, it became easier technology wise.", alongside

comments that “it was a learning curve” and “it did get slightly easier as time went on.” It seems that teachers may have learned how to navigate and effectively use the software throughout their time teaching.

Pedagogy skills

Quantitative results

The lowest self-efficacy rating across all of the confidence statements was in response to question 20 (mean: 3.19), which asked participants about their confidence in their knowledge of online language learning theories. In addition, the responses to question 21 and 22 were amongst the questions with the lowest self-efficacies (mean: Q21-3.38, Q22-3.35), showing a generalised lack of confidence regarding teaching theories and strategies for online language teaching. While these means were low in comparison to the others, they were still generally positive, demonstrating that teachers still had some belief in their own abilities to use online language teaching theories and strategies, but that this is the area they were the least comfortable in comparison to their technological and evaluative skills.

Qualitative results

Within the interviews, teaching theories were not mentioned at all. There were numerous mentions of experimentation and trialling new techniques, as previously mentioned, which could show an uncertainty around the most effective ways to teach online. Once again, this could be linked with the lack of training that teachers received prior to the move to online teaching. Only 34.6% of teachers received training before starting online teaching. Moreover, no data was collected regarding the format and contents of this training, therefore it is unknown whether the training was more technologically focused or pedagogically focused. The lack of teacher training prior to moving teachers online has been identified in a number of papers (Hakim, 2020; Moser, Wei and Brenner, 2021), but a study by the British Council (2020) specifically identified a need for teacher training around techniques specifically for online learning. Considering the findings from previous research, it could be assumed that a lack of teacher training covering teaching techniques, or a lack of teacher training at all, had an effect on teachers’ self-efficacy in online teaching techniques and theories.

Evaluative skills

Quantitative results

The survey results for the evaluative skills had similar means to the technological and pedagogical skills. Question 27 received a mean of 3.81 and dealt with teachers' confidence in their abilities to assess students' language learning. This was the only statement regarding the assessment of actual learning as opposed to assessing tasks. Questions 28, 29 and 30 focused on teachers' abilities to assess, adapt, and evaluate online learning tasks. The means for these questions were 3.88.3.85 and 3.22 respectively. The lowest mean from this set was in relation to evaluating online learning tasks based on the principles of language teaching. This is similar to the pedagogy results, in which it seems that teachers have a lower self-efficacy in terms of their knowledge of online language learning theories. The mean for question 29 is markedly higher than that of question 30, and the only difference is the inclusion of online language learning theories. Therefore, it seems that teachers' knowledge of online language learning theories could be an area of lower self-efficacy.

Qualitative results

Similarly, to the pedagogical skills, evaluative skills were not directly mentioned much within the interviews. However, there were references made to the materials that were used in the participants online classes. Interviewee 2 decided that online tasks were not suited to their student at all and forewent them entirely. Instead, they chose to adapt face-to-face tasks for distance use. There were also references within the qualitative survey data that participants were having to adapt textbooks within their classes, or that they were "transplanting" work from their face-to-face classes for their online classes. This could show that some teachers either found online tasks unsuitable for their students after evaluating them, or that they did not have the option to use online tasks as they were required to continue with the materials used in their face-to-face classes.

Self-efficacy within alternative skills

A number of additional self-efficacy findings presented themselves within the study outside of the self-efficacy beliefs collected through the survey. Many teachers expressed their frustration at a number of additional issues, explaining that they found difficulty in these areas, which could be perceived as low self-efficacy. These areas of difficulty were student engagement and motivation, classroom management and creating a positive classroom atmosphere. These issues within online teaching have been raised throughout previous papers

on online teaching (Zakeri and Alavi, 2011; Riasati et al., 2012; Srichanyachon, 2014; Fandiño et al., 2019; British Council, 2020).

In terms of student engagement, the participants stated that it was easy for students to lose concentration and become distracted by things surrounding them on the desk. One participant in particular mentioned that it was harder to gauge student engagement when teaching online as many students would turn their cameras off for the classes. A couple of participants also mentioned that trying to engage and motivate students during online classes was far more mentally exhausting as a teacher than in face-to-face classes. One participant noted that "[I]t would be much more exhausting as I would need extra energy to motivate them to participate". This could be linked to the lack of spontaneity that teachers had in online classes which was mentioned in the previous section.

Classroom management was also raised as an issue for online teaching, but less so than student engagement. It was mostly considered an issue as students would turn off their cameras and microphones or play with their computer and surrounding objects. One point raised within the survey is that parents would often sit in and watch the classes but would allow their children to behave as they wished, which caused complaints from other parents. However, interviewee 3 claimed that classroom management was easier due to a parental presence, but this was not a common opinion across the data. Unlike the previous areas of high self-efficacy discussed, the teachers found difficulty with classroom management but did not suggest any experimentation or trialling that they did to combat this issue, more that they accepted it as an ongoing issue with online teaching as a whole.

The final prevalent issue that teachers included in their responses was the lack of classroom atmosphere. Interviewee 1 commented that "it's hard to keep… to get that kind of connection online," and listed eye contact and feedback from students as essential parts of the classroom atmosphere. In the second interview, the participant claimed that, in online classes, students don't get the same level of interaction that they would have in face-to-face lessons. Within the survey, one teacher commented that students were not able to build relationships in the same way as during in person classes, and that a lack of non-verbal communication was an issue for them. Another participant presented the lack of "non-verbal communication" as a problem when maintaining a friendly classroom atmosphere also. Once again, this was presented as fact and not as something that the teacher could combat with their own skills.

Teachers also mentioned that both classroom management and student engagement were more difficult when teaching larger classes and younger students. Interviewee 2 even stated that some large classes were cancelled instead of moving online because of the number of students in attendance and whether that would be successful online, demonstrating that not only are teachers less confident at teaching large groups and young students, but that the administrators organising the classes may be lacking confidence in their teachers' abilities.

It appears that teachers have difficulty in, and potentially lack confidence in, 3 main areas – classroom management, student engagement, and maintaining classroom atmosphere in online classes. It could be suggested that the difficulty in these areas and the reduced perseverance in these areas could be due to low teacher self-efficacy. This idea is supported by a study by Zakeri and Alavi (2011) that discovered that teachers had the lowest self-efficacy in student engagement. This study took place with teachers working in face-to-face classes and following the feedback from this study that teachers found student engagement harder online, it could be assumed that teachers have low self-efficacy when dealing with the additional obstacles that online learning has. Similarly, the British Council's (2020) study noted 'classroom management' and 'student engagement' as themes that were regularly complained about by EFL teachers (p.15).

Online teaching issues and their effects on self-efficacy

In general, self-efficacy scores were high, demonstrating that teachers had some level of confidence across all areas of the framework used. However, there were many issues raised by the teachers within the survey and the interviews with regard to online teaching.

Quantitative responses

Within the multiple-choice question, the most commonly chosen issues were lack of student engagement and poor connectivity issues, with 76.9% and 69.2% of the responses respectively. After that, there was a significant drop in responses, with background noise, improper teaching/learning environment and software issues on the students' side all receiving 38.5% of the responses. Decreasing student attendance received 30.8% of the responses and lack of preparation time received 26.9%. Students attitude towards technology received 23.1% of the responses, but by far the item of lowest concern for the participants was software issues on the teacher's side (11.5%).

Qualitative responses

Similarly, to the survey data, the main issues mentioned within the interviews were technology issues and environmental issues. The main technology barriers to learning were poor internet connectivity and software limitations. For example, interviewee 2 talked about ending her classes early due to internet connectivity being so poor that she was unable to teach. Furthermore, interviewees 3 and 4 discussed the limitations of the video conferencing software that they used, stating that they had to choose between looking at their teaching material or the students, and that they could not see all students at the same time, leading to issues with classroom management and engagement. In terms of environmental issues, interviewee 2 mentioned the difficulties students had with both living and working in the same space, and how this was distracting to students. Additionally, multiple participants mentioned parental presence as an issue when teaching as it could intimidate students and teachers or distract the students further from the teaching that was taking place.

Participant 1: "Many parents also let their child do whatever they wanted during online classes, resulting in other parents to complain about said child."

Participant 2: "For the most part I still didn't enjoy the experience, mostly because of the added pressures of parents watching everything that I was teaching."

Participant 3: "You also have to take into account parental interference and distractions in the child's home."

These are issues that are out of the control of the teachers themselves, and these make up the majority of the issues mentioned. The teachers seemed confidence about their online teaching skills despite a range of contextual and external challenges, which may be linked to their high self-efficacy in their technological, pedagogical, and evaluative skills.

During the interview, participants were asked whether they perceived their online lessons to be as effective as their in-person classes. In general, the participants stated that their online lessons were less effective than their face-to-face teaching, or that it was difficult to judge. However, rarely did they perceive the decrease in effectiveness to be caused by them. Participants frequently listed similar issues as before when discussing the effectiveness of their lessons, such as technical issues or student engagement, but they also acknowledge that the effectiveness of online teaching could be down to learner preference and learning style, alongside the benefits of online teaching for certain learning difficulties. The lack of

blame on their own teaching ability further reinforces the idea that teachers have a relatively high self-efficacy for online teaching.

Research question 2: How do EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs affect their instructional effort and teaching practice?

In terms of instructional effort, the responses collected were mostly positive, demonstrating a high amount of effort exerted in both lesson planning and teaching. The clearest way to understand the effort made by participants is by looking at two main themes within the data. The first is planning time and effort, and the second is lesson structure.

In terms of planning, teachers frequently mentioned that, compared with face-to-face teaching, online teaching required far more planning and said planning took far more time and effort, a sentiment that was echoed within the British Council's 2020 study. Interviewee 1 stated that "a lot of work has to be done in advance of the actual teaching". The same participant then went on to explain that the preparation, for them, included making sure the materials were organised and that they understood the software they would use that day. Interviewees 3 and 4 both discussed using PowerPoints for every class, compared with writing on the board and printing out handouts. This was in contrast to regular classes where they would prepare a rough plan but allow the students far more freedom in guiding where the lesson went and allowing themselves as teachers more freedom in what the class did. Interviewee 3 estimated that it took "200% of the time" to prepare an online class compared to a face-to-face class. Alternatively, interviewee 2 discussed preparing something physical to keep her student entertained, but that planning speaking and interactive activities was far harder online. The participants also discussed the lack of spontaneity that is afforded by online teaching. Online class plans were labelled as "pre-processed", "deliberate" and more "intentional". Losing the ability to spontaneous and read the students faces and body language to direct the lesson was brought up regularly within the interviews and seemed to add to the level of planning required from the teachers. These accounts from participants shows that they were exerting high amounts of effort in planning and preparing their online classes, which may be linked with the teachers' high self-efficacy in technological and pedagogical skills.

The teachers also demonstrated their willingness to experiment and persevere with new techniques in the classroom. As previously mentioned, interviewee 2 discussed their attempts to maintain their young student's attention in class and experimented with bringing items to the class and creating "more chances for him to interact with me, or his mom, or with

another friend". In the first interview, the participant described using the technology to help teach their students, keep them entertained and encourage them to learn how to use the tools themselves by making them co-hosts and allowing them to share their own things, leading to more enjoyment within the class.

[I]t was an opportunity to let the students explain to me hot it all works and let them get on with it, making them more or less autonomous on the platform, you know, making them co-hosts and stuff so that they could… move around the groups. They could organise themselves, they could upload documents, share stuff that they wanted to show others, which made them feel pretty good.

The teacher from the interview was ensuring that their students were receiving a high level of teaching and being prepared appropriately for the future, however they acknowledged that many of these techniques work only for older students. For interviewee 3, they demonstrated their instructional effort by ensuring that they were accommodating all learning styles within their online classes. There is importance in this, as they stated that "I guess you didn't have to… but I was trying to cater to different styles of learning". Similarly, in interview 1, the teacher recounted adapting their assessment style. While this was partially because learners could cheat, the teacher expressed that the main motivation behind this was that "I think that we're doing them a disservice by saying you can't use online things because we're living in a world where we have our phones, where we're constantly online*".* Both participants acknowledged that they were not required to put in this kind of effort but continued to do so regardless for the overall benefit of their students. This may be linked to the high self-efficacy across all areas that has been present throughout the data.

The way in which these reports link to self-efficacy in in the way that self-efficacy affects perseverance. Self-efficacy research has already found that high self-efficacy leads to perseverance and maintaining efforts (Bandura, 1994). Therefore, it could be possible that the participants generally high self-efficacy in online language teaching could be positively affecting their instructional effort. It is important to note that the participants had mixed opinions of online teaching both prior to the classes and after having experienced online teaching. Therefore, positive opinions cannot be the only driving factor behind teacher's instructional effort. However, the vast majority of teachers responded to the self-efficacy statements with "neither agree nor disagree", "agree" or "strongly agree", suggesting that their confidence in their skills may be affecting their effort within the classroom and in class

preparation. Furthermore, many teachers, both within the interviews and the survey responses, reported that aspects of online teaching were difficult, or harder than in-person teaching. However, when compared to their comments on how they taught and planned, this seems to have had little effect on the teachers' effort and perseverance. Returning to Bandura's (1994) comments, high self-efficacy leads to perseverance and maintaining efforts even when facing obstacles. There is also an example of the reverse within the survey data. One teacher commented that "Teaching online makes me lazy and inattentive, just like my students. I have a tendency to lose focus and get distracted." This comment both demonstrates a low self-efficacy in online teaching by stating that they tend to become distracted, and by stating the effect it has on their teaching effort which is that it makes them lazy and inattentive. Bandura, in the same 1994 paper, acknowledges that low self-efficacy does indeed have the opposite effect of high self-efficacy in which people will "dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter." While the link within this study is more anecdotal (this was the only clear demonstration of low self-efficacy and its possible effects), it is still interesting to acknowledge in contrast to the high self-efficacy data collected overall.

Looking at that data as a whole, it appears there may be a link between teachers' high self-efficacy in online teaching overall and a high amount of instructional effort and perseverance in the face of obstacles, as demonstrated by the self-report data and the teachers own reports on their teaching experience through interviews.

Newly presented issues within online teaching

The participants raised a number of issues within online teaching that have not been seen in previous similar studies. These issues could have been a result of, or contributed to, the teachers' self-efficacy. It seems that these newer issues in online teaching can be split into issues with self-efficacy, and issues with administrative organisation.

Self-efficacy related issues

One of the issues that has already been mentioned is the presence of parents within the classes, who then cause distractions to students or cause additional pressure for teachers. This issue was surprising as it was not mentioned in any papers that were consulted for this study. This is possibly because most online learning studies use older children or adults as their student base and therefore parents would not be present. They also typically focus on planned online learning not emergency online learning. As there are many unknown elements

to emergency online learning, it is understandable that parents would wish to oversee their child and monitor the situation closely. Some issues surrounding parental presence were related to student engagement, as the parents could distract some students. However, parental presence was described as an "added pressure" by one participant, suggesting that they felt low self-confidence when teaching in front of their students' parents.

Another area of online teaching that was problematic for the teachers was the lack of classroom atmosphere and the inability to be spontaneous when teaching their students online. Spontaneity has been mentioned previously within the study, but it is important to explore why these seemed to be such problem areas for the participants. They noted that they "can't be as spontaneous", and that there was a "lot less like natural flow in the classroom." In terms of classroom atmosphere, teachers stated that they "can't get a read" from the students and that "there's nothing like being in front of people". The focus seems to be that a lot is lost when teaching online, specifically non-verbal communication and the ability to adapt ones teaching style according to the class' understanding of the content and reaction to the tasks. When discussing creating an atmosphere or attempting to be spontaneous, the teachers made no references to experimenting or trying techniques but stated it as though it were an inherent part of online teaching. This could suggest that they were unaware of any techniques or strategies to form classroom rapport between students or be spontaneous in their teaching.

Administrative issues

Another issue that was mentioned occasionally by participants was the adaptation of class materials for online teaching. A few participants noted that they had to adapt materials from their face-to-face classes for the online classroom, and that this was difficult for them. This issue has not been discussed much within online teaching research, most likely because online teaching research typically focuses on planned online teaching as noted before. I suspect that adaptation of materials would be a significant issue for teachers if emergency online learning were to be studied further. Adaptation of materials appears to be less of an issue with teachers' abilities to teach, as has already been established by the high self-efficacy ratings within pedagogy and technology, but more to do with what the teachers are expected to teach. If there is an expectation from the administrators that teachers must continue with the regular syllabus and materials, they will continue to face issues when translating the materials for online use.

Homework collection and checking asynchronous work was also noted as a difficulty. Teachers found it hard to check students work if it was written as they often had no way to access the work once it was completed. Specifically, one participant noted that they had to assign homework, but that there was no way to check the homework effectively or efficiently.

"Children need to be monitored more closely as you do not have access to their work with writing tasks."

"I did find it with the online a bit harder to check homework, cause there was nothing formally that they handed in and because of the age range I was teaching, they never sent it in by email or anything for me to review."

Assessment methods were also found to be a problem for online teaching by the British Council (2020) but this is not a frequently raised issue, leading me to believe that this too is related to emergency online learning in particular.

Homework collection and assessment issues appeared as there were no methods by which teachers could collect said work. The administrators should either require that no homework be set for the period of online teaching or set up a way in which teachers can set and review asynchronous work that students have completed. This way the students are receiving the useful feedback that is expected from completing homework or asynchronous tasks.

Impacts on instructional effort and teaching success

Overall, it appears that high self-efficacy in areas of teaching leads teachers to exert more instructional effort within that area. As can be seen in the results, the teachers had the highest self-efficacy in their technological skills and then reported that they used the technology creatively and with ease. They also exerted huge effort in planning and preparing the lessons which required at least basic technological skills. The lowest means were seen within the teachers' pedagogical skills, which is reflected by the fact that teaching and learning theories and strategies for online learning were rarely mentioned, if at all. Lower pedagogical self-efficacy could also be linked to the issues incurred with classroom management and student engagement skills.

Regarding teaching success, there were mixed results within the survey and interviews. In the survey, one participant felt they were less effective when teaching online, but two noted that success could be had in online teaching, but it was highly conditional. One

teacher stated that “the conversational or spoken aspect of the language are just as effective online as they are in a classroom”. This links with previous complaints that teaching writing and other asynchronous skills is a significant issue. Another teacher commented that “[i]f students are motivated and the teacher is qualified, there can really be effective and efficient learning”. Student engagement and motivation have already been raised as issues by other participants in this study, demonstrating the difficulties teachers may endure in order to achieve that success.

Within the interviews, the teachers gave very mixed responses to how effective they perceived their teaching to be. All of the participants listed conditions, usually outside of their locus of control, that successful online teaching was dependent on. The first interviewee noted that the age of the students and the class size were significant factors in the effectiveness of online teaching, stating that it is a “mixed bag”. Interviewee 2 mentioned technology issues as a significant factor, alongside the previously mentioned problems of student interaction, and spontaneity and proactivity within their teaching. Next, interviewee 3 noted that the learner was the main variable for them when gauging the effectiveness of online teaching, stating that it depends on their learning style and preference between online and face-to-face study. Finally, the lack of external review or observation was raised as an issue for interviewee 4 as they couldn’t gauge how effective their learning was as it was entirely down to their self-perception. Overall, the teachers seemed to acknowledge that emergency online teaching was not totally ineffective, but that certain criteria needed to be met in order for emergency online teaching to reach the same effectiveness levels as traditional instruction.

Conclusion

Throughout this study, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, their effect on instructional effort and teaching practice, and external issues in online English language teaching and teacher training have been explored. The survey demonstrated that teachers had high self-efficacy across all areas; the highest self-efficacy was in technology, and the lowest in online teaching theories and strategies. Three areas of low self-efficacy were identified that do not feature in the framework: student engagement, classroom management and creating a classroom atmosphere. The interview data when compared with the survey data suggested a link between high self-efficacy and high instructional effort. In general, there was high self-efficacy across all areas, and there was significant data from the interviews and qualitative survey data that demonstrated high instructional effort. Additionally, the study has identified areas in which teachers have consistent problems in online teaching, and in this conclusion chapter recommendations for solving these will be presented.

Implications for teacher training

There are a number of significant implications that can be drawn from this study, for both further study and prepare for similar emergency situations. First, there are the implications for teacher preparation in emergency situations requiring a move to online learning. As stated within this paper multiple times, training is essential to prepare teachers for any change to their regular teaching environment. This recommendation is reflected in various studies focusing on teaching during the pandemic (British Council, 2020; Hakin, 2020; Moser, Wei and Brenner, 2021). Once again, the survey reported that only 34.6% of teachers received training prior to online teaching, but there is no way of knowing if this was prior to teaching during COVID or prior to other online teaching. Regardless, all teachers should have received some form of formal online teaching training before being required to move to an online teaching environment so quickly. However, as this is not regular online teaching, but adapted face-to-face teaching that has been moved to an online environment, it is difficult to know what exactly the teachers would require from the training to prepare them properly.

The important themes to include in online teacher training have become clear through the results of this study and results of similar recent studies. From this paper, student engagement, classroom management and creating a classroom atmosphere were determined to be the most important areas to include within online teacher training. Student engagement

and classroom management are also common themes within the British Councils (2020) recommendation for future teacher training, and were included as issues within Noor, Isa and Mazhar's (2020) study under "uncooperative learner attitudes" (p179). Regarding the results of the survey and interviews, it seems that teachers have little knowledge of online teaching theories or strategies, and this would be the first place to start when putting together a teacher training syllabus as a good knowledge of strategies for online teaching may help to reduce these issues.

Additionally, Moser, Wei and Brenner (2021) noted the usefulness of encouraging teachers to practice using and creating online and technology-based instruction when teaching face-to-face classes as well to be "more prepared for a sudden shift to remote instruction" (p. 12). This suggestion seems appropriate because of the rapid growth and progression of technology. It is important that teachers stay up to date with the latest technological advances in communication and education to be sufficiently prepared for a situation such as the one in 2020. By encouraging the use of technology within the classroom, the teachers are not having to dedicate more of their time to extra training sessions solely to practice using new software. Additionally, it is important to note that training cannot be a one-time event. As previously stated, technology is advancing rapidly and technology training for teachers will become outdated quickly. This form of training must be regular and continuous in order for teachers to see the full benefits.

Implications for organisations and administrations

In addition, there are implications for school administrators. Primarily, there must be a contingency plan in place for teachers should an event of this scale occur again. Teachers within this study have mentioned that the move online felt "ineffective", "disorganised", "rushed" and "inadequate", demonstrating their feelings towards how their administration handled the move to online learning. As previously mentioned, Bao (2020) and Mahmood (2020) both recommended that schools have an effective contingency plan in place for future preparation. On a smaller scale, a further complaint from teachers was the adaptation of materials and the amount of planning. This could be avoided or alleviated if school organisations had online copies of face-to-face materials, and if they had an adapted syllabus to allow for longer preparation times and reduced productive time in class due to technical issues. Finally, the teachers noted that they had no way of collecting and grading homework or written pieces, which was an issue echoed in the British Council's study (2020). I recommend that schools find an online submission system so that both teachers and students

can have the most effective teaching and learning experience and to reduce disruption when moving to online learning.

Limitations

As with all studies, there were a number of limitations within this study that may have affected its overall outcome. The first limitation I identified was the sample size. Both the survey sample size and the interview sample size were relatively small (26 participants for the survey and 4 for the interviews). This could be due to the short recruitment period that was allotted for the study, leading to potential participants to miss the deadline. Additionally, the sample was very broad in terms of the participants information and experiences. The students' ages and group size, where they taught English, and their teaching experience were all vastly different. The small sample size combined with the vast array of teachers and teaching experiences reduces the generalisability of the results.

In terms of the data collected, a major limitation was the lack of time to complete further rounds of qualitative research. Preferably, I would have carried out a second round of interviews or focus groups to link together more strongly the findings from the survey and the first round of interviews. After the first set of interviews, there were areas which I wish I had the chance to explore more with the participants, but these connections only arose once I had analysed the survey and interviews. As this is a short study, I did not have the time available to conduct further interviews with the participants. Furthermore, self-reported data can be limiting in itself, as mentioned in the methodology chapter. All the data collected within this interview was self-reported by the participants, and self-reporting can fall victim to a number of biases such as selective memory and exaggeration (USC, 2021). Without an external source of data to verify the participants contributions, such as observations or pre- and post-testing for students, this study is limited by the issues associated with self-reported data.

The final limitation I have recognised within this study is that there is no data to show whether or not a firm link lies between teachers' self-efficacy and their teaching practice or instructional effort. While I can hypothesise that there is a link between the two from the data collected, there is no way to show this. Similarly to counteracting the limitations of the self-reported data, demonstrating the link between self-efficacy and instructional effort would require data collection such as ongoing observation or pre- and post-testing of students. Not only would this be difficult to carry out due to the timescale of this study, but due to the rapidly changing situation in response to COVID-19, many teachers are no longer teaching

online, or have been switching between online and offline learning as and when the government requires it. Therefore, observations or testing may not have provided consistent data or would have been highly difficult to organise with participants.

Suggestions for further research

In reflection of the limitations of this study, the first recommendation is to repeat a similar study with more specific populations. For example, focusing solely on young learner teachers, solely on teachers working in one country, or solely on teachers with no prior online teaching experience. This way the data will be more generalisable across groups and could provide interesting comparisons between different types of teachers.

Additionally, it would be interesting to explore the link between teachers self-reported self-efficacy, and their actual ability by carrying out observations and student testing, as stated before in the limitations. This way self-efficacy reports can be verified across evidence of teacher success, and the accuracy of self-efficacy can be measured more accurately.

Finally, when creating the survey, I used Compton's (2009) framework to assess teachers' self-efficacy in online teaching. While this was an appropriate and highly useful tool, some gaps were found within the framework in terms of skills that teachers required for successful online teaching. There are no references within the framework to classroom management or student engagement, and creation of a classroom atmosphere is only somewhat included by way of the statements about online socialisation and interaction. By analysing the responses of teachers within this study and comparing the discussed themes with those of other studies, I would suggest modifying Compton's framework to include these additional skills that are seemingly highly important for online teachers. My suggestion would be to include these statements within the 'novice' section of the framework, most likely within the 'pedagogy' column. While these skills do not fit neatly into any one section, they fit most suitably within the pedagogy column. With these additions, I believe that Compton's framework for online language teaching could provide a suitable basis for online teacher training courses in the future.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 - Rationale for survey questions

Question 4,5 and 11 are related to the participants teaching qualifications. Many English teaching positions do not require an English focused degree title in order to work as an English teacher, nor a TEFL certificate as can be seen in several job listings online. For this reason, I asked what degree title and further English teaching certificates people had in order to compare the responses from those with formal TESOL training and those without. This then links back to my critique of Compton's framework - that it seems to be tailored to the ideal EFL tutor with a wealth of formal training, which could be determined as unrealistic depending on the results of this study.

Within questions 9 and 10, it was specified that neither of these questions include the experience they gained during online teaching due to COVID. I asked these questions to sort those who do have online teaching experience from those who do not, and to see what kinds of alternative emergency situations may cause a move to online learning. For those who did have experience teaching online, it may have an impact on their self-efficacy for teaching online and finding that link could raise some interesting discussions. Following the experience question, I added question 13 to check whether teachers had received training prior to moving online as teacher training is regularly mentioned in online teaching and teacher self-efficacy studies.

Question 16 was formed from a combination of the pilot study responses and the most frequent responses within similar studies about online teaching issues. This way, I avoided projecting my own issues during online teaching into my study and avoided accidental bias within the survey. I also opted to add an 'other' option for participants to enter their own responses, so as not to miss any potential issues that were not a part of the original question.

Question 12 was included to to see if anyone suggested their own abilities, and therefore their high self-efficacy, as their main motivation. It could also provide insight into whether there is any correlation between their motivations and their self-efficacy. Originally, this was supposed to be a ranking question, but it was determined that this question style would both narrow down the participants choices significantly and be a question more suited to a broader motivation study focusing on a theory like self-determination. By allowing participants to freely answer, any responses mentioning concepts of self-efficacy and confidence can be easily identified.

For question 14 and 15, I wanted to gain insight into teachers' opinions of online teaching. It has been investigated that teachers attitudes towards online teaching can impact the quality of online teaching (Riasati et al., 2012). Furthermore, it is not sufficient to know whether teachers' opinions of online teaching are positive or negative, but to understand why. Atmojo and Nugroho (2020) found that most of the challenges came from the technology itself, or from the student's behaviour online. However, Rahimi and Yadollahi (2010) investigated the anxiety that teachers experience when working with ICT in the EFL classroom. Therefore, it was important to include a more open question regarding teachers' initial opinions of online teaching. Additionally, I wanted to understand whether teachers' perceptions of online teaching changed as their experience with it grew. This way I could better understand their self-perception reports because they are reporting on their current self-efficacy, not their self-efficacy at the beginning of their online teaching experience. The different teaching

experiences that were had could also be compared with one another and be used to determine what aspects of online teaching may be contributing to any differences in self-efficacy.

Appendix 2 - Survey

Online teaching and teacher self-efficacy survey

Page 1: Information for participants

Participant Information Sheet

An Education Epidemic? A study of the rapid implementation of emergency online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic and its effects on teachers' motivation.

1. Invitation to research

I would like to invite you to take part in a study regarding online teaching in the pandemic and its effects on teachers' motivation. My name is Jessica Garrity and I am a Master's student at Manchester Metropolitan University. This research project forms part of my degree studies.

2. Why have I been invited?

You have been invited to take part in this study as you have experience teaching English online as a response to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. This group is the focus of my study as little research has been done into this area due to its recency.

3. Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide. We will describe the study and go through the information sheet, which we will give to you. We will then ask you to sign a consent form to show you agreed to take part. You are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

4. What will I be asked to do?

You will be asked to take part in an online survey to answer questions about your experience teaching English online and your motivations before and during this time. The survey should last no longer than 15 minutes. You will then be able to opt-in to take part in short follow up interviews should you wish. This is not mandatory. The interview

1 / 15

will be recorded and transcribed but your data will remain anonymous after transcription and the original recording deleted. All data collected, recordings included, will be stored on a password protected hard drive and deleted after completion of this study. You will be asked for your consent before beginning the survey or interview.

5. Are there any risks if I participate?

There are no risks associated with participation in this study.

6. Are there any advantages if I participate?

There are no rewards for participating in this study.

7. What will happen with the data I provide?

When you agree to participate in this research, we will collect from you personally-identifiable information.

The Manchester Metropolitan University ('the University') is the Data Controller in respect of this research and any personal data that you provide as a research participant.

The University is registered with the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO), and manages personal data in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the University's Data Protection Policy.

We collect personal data as part of this research (such as name, telephone numbers or age). As a public authority acting in the public interest we rely upon the 'public task' lawful basis. When we collect special category data (such as medical information or ethnicity) we rely upon the research and archiving purposes in the public interest lawful basis.

Your rights to access, change or move your information are limited, as we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. If you withdraw from the study, we will keep the information about you that we have already obtained.

We will not share your personal data collected in this form with any third parties.

If your data is shared this will be under the terms of a Research Collaboration Agreement which defines use, and agrees confidentiality and information security provisions. It is the University's policy to only publish anonymised data unless you have given your explicit written consent to be identified in the research. **The University never sells personal data to third parties.**

We will only retain your personal data for as long as is necessary to achieve the research purpose. Data will be held on a password protected hard drive and handled by one person. All data will be anonymised and deleted fully on completion of the project.

For further information about use of your personal data and your data protection rights please see the University's Data Protection Pages.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

Data will be deleted from the password protected hard drive on completion of the project. Interview recordings will be deleted upon completion of transcription.

Who has reviewed this research project?

My supervisor, Dr Mai Nguyen, and EthOS have reviewed this research project.

Who do I contact if I have concerns about this study or I wish to complain?

The researcher, Jessica Garrity, can be contacted with questions regarding this study via e-mail at 15117558@stu.mmu.ac.uk.

Questions regarding the supervision of this project can be directed to Dr Mai Nguyen at m.nguyen@mmu.ac.uk

For ethics concerns, please contact artsandhumanitiesethics@mmu.ac.uk

If you have any concerns regarding the personal data collected from you, our Data Protection Officer can be contacted using the legal@mmu.ac.uk e-mail address, by calling 0161 247 3331 or in writing to: Data Protection Officer, Legal Services, All Saints Building, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, M15 6BH. You also have a right to lodge a complaint in respect of the processing of your personal data with the Information Commissioner's Office as the supervisory authority. Please see: https://ico.org.uk/global/contact-us/

THANK YOU FOR CONSIDERING PARTICIPATING IN THIS PROJECT

Page 2: Consent to participate

1. Please select the relevant answers to confirm your consent to participate. Questions 7 and 8 are optional.

- [ ] I confirm that I have read the participant information sheet for the above study.
- [ ] I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
- [ ] I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my legal rights being affected.
- [ ] I agree to participate in the project to the extent of the activities described to me in the above participant information sheet.
- [ ] I understand and agree that the personal information I provide will be transferred to the UK for research purposes.
- [ ] I understand and agree that my words may be quoted anonymously in research outputs.
- [ ] I wish to be informed of the outcomes of this research.
- [ ] I give permission for the researchers named in the participant information sheet to contact me in the future about this research or other research opportunities.

Page 3: Demographic Questions

2. Age:

3. Gender:

- Male (including transgender men)
- Female (including transgender women)
- Non-binary
- Prefer not to say
- Other

3.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

4. What is your highest level of Education?

- Degree
- Masters
- Professional qualification (e.g DELTA, TrinityCERT)
- PhD

5. What degree(s) did you study?

5 / 15

6. Did you work independently or for a school/business?

- Independently
- School
- After-school academy
- Other

6.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

7. What were your working conditions when teaching online?

- Working from home
- Working at your regular workplace
- Other

7.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

8. How many years of EFL teaching experience do you have?

6 / 15

9. Do you have previous experience of EFL teaching online not including the COVID-19 pandemic and if so, how much experience do you have?

10. Do you have previous experience of emergency online EFL teaching, not including the COVID-19 pandemic? (i.e due to pandemic, natural disaster, school closure). If so, how much experience do you have?

11. Do you have any further English teaching qualifications?

Page 4: Self-perception questions

12. What are your main motivations towards EFL teaching?

13. Did you receive online teaching training or technology training prior to teaching online?

- Yes
- No

14. What was your opinion towards online language teaching prior to your first class?

15. Did your opinions towards online language teaching change throughout your experience and, if so, how?

8 / 15

16. What were the main issues that you encountered when teaching online? Check all that apply.

- ☐ Poor internet connection/connectivity issues
- ☐ Software issues on teacher's side
- ☐ Lack of student engagement
- ☐ Students numbers dropping
- ☐ Background noise
- ☐ Improper teaching/learning environment
- ☐ Software issues on student's side
- ☐ Lack of student engagement
- ☐ Students attitudes towards tech
- ☐ Lack of preparation time
- ☐ Other

16.a. If you selected Other, please specify:

17. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident that I can choose suitable technology for online learning tasks."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 17	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident that I can creatively use and adapt technology for online learning activities."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 18	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. To what extent do you agree with the following statement; "I am capable of using a range of software and understanding the constraints and possibilities of said software."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 19	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

20. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I have a good knowledge of language learning theories for online learning."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 20	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my knowledge of strategies to facilitate online learning and communication." (Online interaction being communication between students and their peers, and students and their teacher in the target language.)

10 / 15

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 21	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my knowledge of strategies for online socialisation/community building." (Online socialisation being the creation of a friendly classroom community.)

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 22	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

23. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to creatively use and adapt materials to create new online materials that facilitate online interaction." (Online interaction being communication between students and their peers, and students and their teacher in the target language.)

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 23	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to creatively use and adapt materials to create new online materials that facilitate online socialisation." (Online socialisation being the creation of a friendly classroom community.)

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 24	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to choose suitable materials to match online learning tasks."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 25	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

26. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to apply language learning theories to an online learning environment."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 26	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

27. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to assess language learning using different methods."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

12 / 15

Q 27	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

28. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am confident in my ability to assess online language learning tasks and adapt them accordingly."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 28	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

29. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I have a basic knowledge of how to evaluate the effectiveness of online language learning tasks."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 29	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

30. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: "I am able to carry out evaluations of online learning tasks based on one or more principles of language teaching."

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q 30	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Page 5: Interviews

31. Follow up interviews will be conducted after this survey. If you wish to take part, please leave your email address below, and you will be contacted shortly.

Page 6: Final page

This is the end of the survey. Thank you very much for your participation.

15 / 15

Appendix 3 – Semi-structured Interview Question Template

1. Describe to me a typical online class.
2. How easy/difficult was it to prepare for online classes compared to in person classes?
3. How easy/difficult was it to teach online classes compared to in person classes?
4. Compared with in-person teaching, how would you say your teaching changed when you started online?
5. Compared with teaching in-person, how effective would you say your online classes were?