ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Teachers' Classroom Practices and Sense of Self-Efficacy towards Using Instructional Strategies in Teaching Speaking Skills: A Case Study

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Abstract

This paper is a qualitative case study exploring seven English language teachers' classroom practices and self-efficacy beliefs towards using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills. The research site, 'Hidar' 11 secondary school, was selected using a convenient sampling technique, and the participants were selected using purposive sampling. I collected the data over classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. I observed each of the four participants seven times, and I had six observations for each of the rest. I managed a stimulated-recall interview after each couple of observations; then, I had the final interview following the last stimulated recall one. All interviews engrossed on teacher participants' sense of self-efficacy beliefs. Most participants said they were inefficacious in using teaching speaking instructional strategies, while others said they were effective. The speaking lessons showed that participants who said they were effective in using speaking instructional approaches performed better than those who believed ineffective. In addition, participants' self-efficacy beliefs influence teachers' expectations and actions. Teachers can develop good practices of teaching speaking skills with self-confidence if regular long-term and short-term training programs are prepared and conducted. Teachers' Training Institutions need to prepare or give teachers to deal with teaching difficulties and related issues.

Keywords: *case study, interview, self-efficacy, speaking, participant*

1. Introduction

Bandura (1997) proposed that it is fruitful for teachers to overemphasize their teaching skills. Teachers' enthusiasm to exert effort on hindrances they face will assist them to have the skills and competencies they owe (Bandura, 1977; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teacher self-efficacy is recurring. The information concerning one's efficacy results from four sources: mastery experiences/ performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal or social persuasions, and

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physiological or emotional arousals (Bandura, 1997). Mastery experiences/performance accomplishments are the most influential of all the self-efficacy sources results from prior experiences of success or failure on the state of affairs related to the current actions. The other self-efficacy sources for teachers, vicarious experiences, are developed by noticing other teachers who became proficient at related challenges. Verbal persuasion is the result of social support from colleagues and the school administration, and physiological or emotional arousal depends upon a teacher noticing the important feature when facing a challenge (Bandura, 1997).

Teachers analyze their teaching tasks and consider their teaching efficacy. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can help them accomplish teaching goals and decide on the effort they spend on them. The enactment and consequences of their work deal with new mastery experiences/ performance accomplishments that cause upcoming efficacy decisions. Teacher self-efficacy is context-specific like other self-efficacy judgments (Bandura, 1997). In the meantime, Language proficiency set up the underpinning of the professional confidence of English as FL teachers. As Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) indicated, poor command of the English language challenges a teacher's self-confidence in the classroom. It disturbs the confidence and professional prestige of the teacher and hinders teaching processes. In addition, the poor command of the English language obstructs the teacher from using a communicative approach to language teaching. Perceived proficiency impacts EFL teachers' language teaching and professional confidence.

Researches indicate that teachers with resilient self-efficacy are more committed to their students and teaching (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). They renovate and improve their teaching methods when needed and consider students with different learning needs. On the contrary, teachers with low self-efficacy worry about their jobs and encounter problems in teaching. Teachers do not use various teaching methods, strategies, and materials that influence the changing aspects of their classes. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) contended that teachers' performances impact their sense of self-efficacy. Teachers having a sense of self-efficacy show high efficacy in using teaching strategies. They engage students with daily lessons and manage the classroom (Alemayehu, 2019; Girma, 2014).

Most Ethiopian English teachers have lacked the self-confidence to teach English in a method that indorses their students' learning. The ability to teach the English language counts on the self-confidence and beliefs of Ethiopian EFL teachers in their ability to teach English efficiently. Their sense of self-efficacy possibly inspires the teaching atmosphere they generate and the instructional strategies they practice in the classroom (Girma, 2014). Furthermore, teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy increase their students' success (Alemayehu, 2019; Ayalew, 2016). On the other hand, research by Abiy (2002) at Bahir Dar University indicated that there was inconsistency among graduating students' self-efficacy beliefs and actual classroom practice. The consequence of the research pointed out the graduating students had a high perception regarding their teaching ability and professional preparation, but their teaching practice was found low.

However, Ethiopian researchers did not conduct studies on EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their actual classroom practices in teaching speaking skills. Therefore, there is a need to explore Ethiopian EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their capability to teach speaking skills successfully. To sum up, as described above, my rationale for my research entitled, secondary school English teachers' classroom practices and sense of self-efficacy beliefs in using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills were summarized as follows.

I had occasions to conduct classroom observations on secondary school English language teachers. I realized that some English teachers skip speaking lessons; others use a teacher-centered methodology. Even though speaking is one of the language skills, it has not gotten the required attention in the classroom (Clarvie & Hassan, 2013). Of course, students need to participate actively in the classes, especially, in speaking because they do not speak English unless they practice speaking in the classroom with the guidance of their teachers. In addition, from my experience of teaching different courses in the University, I observed students unable to express themselves. Most of them were reluctant to speak even a word in speaking classes. They blamed their previous English teachers because they did not provide opportunities to practice, especially in secondary schools. It always struck my mind that I was in need to research in this area. Then, I understood that there was a gap in the area. I was also motivated to explore secondary English teachers' actual classroom practices and self-efficacy beliefs towards using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills.

Objectives Study

I used the following specific research objectives to frame the study.

1.   to explore English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills
2.   to examine the relations among English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and class room practices in using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills

Significance Study

Teachers' beliefs are areas of investigation in language teacher education. There is a need to understand their beliefs to identify what they do in the classroom because their efficacy is a prerequisite for their actions. The motive to research secondary school EFL teachers' beliefs in teaching speaking skills about their actual practices in the classroom had several significances. Researchers conducted studies on English language skills in Ethiopia, but they did not focus on teachers' practices and self-efficacy beliefs. So, this study concerned self-efficacy beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills. Thus, this research wishes to bridge the breach in the literature. Secondly, though speaking seems to be the vital skill required for communication, it is a forgotten skill in EFL education and accepted as complex to acquire (Ur, 1996). When we come to the Ethiopian context, the problem becomes so hard. Hence, the research will inspire other researchers to conduct related studies. Thirdly, it is significant for improving the EFL teacher education program. The outcome of this study enlightens thinking about the quality of the EFL teacher education in teaching English speaking skills. Finally, the result of this study will afford significant enlightenment for policymakers in enhancing the quality of teachers in Ethiopia.

Review of Related Literature

Speaking is a shared process of building meaning and delivering information (Brown, 2001; Burns & Joyce, 1997, Luoma, 2004). Speaking is a complex system because it consists of the grammar, sound, vocabulary, and even cultural knowledge of the language (Ur, 1996). Spratt and others (2005) state that "teaching speaking means developing learners' speaking skills by focusing on particular aspects of speaking: fluency, pronun-

ciation, grammatical accuracy, and body language" (p.35). In teaching speaking, there is a reputation for directing both the forms and the functions of language. In this regard, teachers' self-efficacy is significant in teaching, and researchers proved its importance.

Effective teachers use many speaking teaching strategies utilized in the speaking classrooms for various situations (Harmer, 2001; Thornbury, 2005). Teachers who believe in their use of instructional strategy efficacy demonstrate such positive teacher behaviors, rather than authoritarian, and support students to become self-directed learners who follow their academic interests (Bandura, 1997). When looking at the theoretical background of self-efficacy and teaching, Bandura was the first to deal with this issue four decades before. Bandura has developed social learning theory, and self-efficacy beliefs on psychological construct originated from this theory. He mentioned in his study, "Beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" is known as perceived self-efficacy (1997, p.3). Effective teaching needs skills and self-efficacy; however, its level is less important than what one believes they can accomplish under the conditions. Moreover, perceived self-efficacy depends on the context and will change as the context perform a task (Bandura, 1997). Bandura mentions the behavior based on two factors; outcome expectancy and self-efficacy. Firstly, he defined outcome expectancy as a generalized expectancy about action-outcome possibilities based on life experiences. Secondly, he defined self-efficacy as people's developing specific beliefs about their ability. Hence, those with well-built efficacy beliefs are approaching tasks as challenges to be overcome by setting goals and persisting with efforts to achieve them.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) identified two strands of research. The first is grounded in Rotter's social learning theory of internal vs. external control (Rotter, 1966). Teachers who believe that they are efficient in teaching difficult or unmotivated students have internal control; others who think that the environment has more effect on student learning than their teaching abilities have external control.

Students learn more from teachers with high self-efficacy than those whose self-efficacy is low (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Teachers' beliefs in their teaching efficacy are the strong interpreter of academic success in students (Saklofske et al., 1988). In other words, teachers who believe in their instructional ability demonstrate such positive teacher behaviors as being lenient rather than authoritarian and supporting students to become self-directed learners who follow their academic interests (Alemayehu, 2019; Ayalew, 2016; Bandura, 1997). Quite the opposite, teachers with low self-efficacy held detrimental characteristics. They show a weak commitment to the profession (Evans & Tribble, 1986), dictatorial behavior in the classroom (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990), and a tendency to spend less total time on academic matters than other teachers do (Dembo & Gibson, 1985).

Research Methodology

Design Study

In this study, I espoused the constructivist paradigm (Cohen et al., 2013) for the following reasons: (1) I coped with the considerations, interpretations, and experiences of the participants; (2) I undertook that progression and meaning were ultimate in considering participants' performance (Bryman, 2008); (3) It was an inductive as it did not begin with a theory. In the constructivist paradigm, investigators begin from the respondents' experience and understanding of the world to construct the theory. The data, as a consequence, generated the values that participants used as the source of information (Cohen et al.,

2013); (4) targets to surge consideration of the subject investigated (5) I also benefited from the assets of qualitative case study methods, sample size (Bryman, 2008).

I chose the qualitative research method. This method allowed me to analyze the data, answer the research questions, and discuss the findings to understand teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teaching practice. I used an inductive approach for this research (Creswell, 2012; Merriam, 2009). As the study is qualitative, the inductive approach was appropriate to answer the specific research questions (Trochim, 2005). According to Trochim, qualitative research is always exploratory and inductive. This approach lets me realize participants' self-efficacy and actual classroom practice (Merriam, 2009) regarding teaching speaking skills.

Data Source

Sampling Techniques

In this study, I selected 'Hidar' 11 Secondary School using a convenient sampling technique (Creswell, 2012; Dornyei, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994). I chose this technique to select the school for the following two reasons. Firstly, I had classes at the university. Secondly, as my research was a case study and the data collection process stayed for seven months, I needed to have regular contact with the participants for classroom observations and interviews for each teacher participant. I selected the participants in the purposive sampling technique from all grade levels (9–12) in the selected secondary school (Creswell, 2012; Dornyei, 2007). This technique helps select knowledgeable participants about or experienced with a wonder of concern (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Therefore, accessibility, willingness, the ability to transfer experiences and thoughts were the reasons for choosing the purposive sampling technique

The Participants

I invited seven English language teachers to better understand their educational experiences as students and how their experiences influenced their personal beliefs, their actual classroom practices in teaching speaking skills as teachers. The number of participants was not too large because it was a problem to generalize case studies to a larger context and even to the sample itself (Cohen et al., 2013) and not too small as it was challenging to realize data saturation (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). I used pseudonyms for this study (T1-T7). Four of the participants were females (T2, T4, T5, & T7), and the rest three were males (T1, T3, & T6) from the seven participants. Five of the participants were forty years or above except the two, one aged 28 and the other 32. All the participants speak Amharic as their first language and have at least a first degree in English except for T4, whose first degree is in teaching the Amharic Language. Each of them had at least five years of teaching experience.

Data Collection Instruments of the Research

Recording and Data Transformation

I used the audio and video recordings for this study (kasunic, 2010). I used the video recorder for the observations and the audio recorder for the interviews. The video recorder helped me take the videos for the recall interviews, and the audio recorder helped me collect the relevant information during the interviewing process. Then, I transcribed the data

from audio and video recordings for the study.

Classroom Observations

I used classroom observations as one of the data collection instruments (Borg, 2006). I was a non-participant observer during the speaking lessons observations. Accordingly, I sat at the back of the classroom, taking field notes without any intervention. The purpose of the observation was to see the instruction conducted in the usual EFL classroom setting. I compared and contrasted the data collected from the classroom observations with teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in using instructional strategies regarding teaching speaking skills via interviews. The number of observations that researchers need depends upon the practical issues concerned (Borg, 2006). I had seven classroom observations for each of the four participants and six for the other. I did this to check if there were tensions or relations between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in using instructional strategies and their actual classroom practices in teaching speaking skills. I conducted the classroom observations from November 11, 2019, to March 11, 2020.

Interviews

I used semi-structured interviews for the current study to get in-depth information, and I had seven participants. I adapted the questions from Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). There were two types of interviews conducted— stimulated-recall and final interviews.

 I managed a stimulated-recall interview (Basturkmen et al., 2004) after a couple of classroom observations. I conducted these interviews to justify the reasons behind the link between EFL secondary school teachers' sense of self-efficacy beliefs in teaching English speaking skills and their actual classroom practices. Thus, I gave a chance for the participants to express their feelings because the objective of the study was to investigate what they reflected as a cornerstone for the result of the study (Basturkmen et al., 2004). To remember what happened during the classroom observation, I made the participants watch video records and invited them to give reflective responses for the stimulated-recall interview questions. In these interviews, my focus was on participants' beliefs on the classes observed. Each stimulated-recall interview took 15-20 min. All the stimulated-recall interviews were conducted face-to-face from November 14, 2019, to March 11, 2020. Finally, I had teachers' final semi-structured interviews; I prepared these interviews to collect data on the participants' confidence in using instructional strategies to teach speaking skills. Then, I gave all verbatim transcriptions of interviews back to the participants for verification. These interviews took 50 min to 1hr, and they were conducted in May 2020 over the telephone as I could not meet them face-to-face in case of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Data Analysis Process

I transcribed data from classroom observations and interviews (stimulated-recall and final) on my personal computer. I transcribed all the data manually. I listened to the audio (interviews) and video (observations) and wrote the notes on my personal computer. I corrected some linguistic features of the collected data with its original message when I found it incorrect and missed (Dornyei, 2007). Next, I labeled the transcribed data. In this stage, I built up each participants' profile and developed new questions for the subsequent interview sessions.

I condensed the data by emphasizing the key concepts and linking the broader ones in

the coding stage (Silverman, 2005). I categorized the coding stage into three phases: preliminary, instant, and ultimate coding. I started the preliminary coding in November 2019 by manually emphasizing the fascinating transcription of the data and relating it with my research questions designed. Then, by revising these interesting extracts, I labeled and organized them about the research questions. I used the preliminary phase of the coding stage as a gate valve to the instant phase of the coding stage in May 2020. The instant phase of the coding stage of the data analysis process consisted of combining the data and sorting out the relevant data from the irrelevant ones. The final stage includes interpreting and drawing a conclusion (Dornyei, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Trustworthiness

In this research, I used various techniques to increase the trustworthiness of the research—collecting data for seven months, quarrying intense responses from the entire participants for the interview questions, and having persistent classroom observations. Inviting the participants to read and comment on their transcribed interviews (member checks) and having data triangulation (the classroom observations and interviews) increased the trustworthiness of the results. Confirmability in this study guaranteed that the result was from the participants but not from the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Besides, I used the audit trail to confirm the findings. The audit trail consisted of correct procedures to the study, the data collection to the findings/discussion, and the conclusion (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Ethical Consideration

I informed the participants that their participation in this research was entirely voluntary-based, and I told them that their choice to participate or not had no consequence to their teaching career, and I would not report to any third party (APA, 2020; Wiles, 2013). For this reason, I tried to set the nature of the research visibly to participants in the case study. Thus, only volunteer teachers were encouraged to participate in the data collection process, and I was lucky that all English teachers in the selected school participated in this study.

Findings and Discussion

The participants believed that they were ineffective in using a variety of speaking activities except for T4. Regarding this, T2 said she did not use a variety of speaking activities. She added that she used a similar style of teaching in her classes. Regarding this, T6 said, "I don't use different speaking activities because of my lack of interest; I am not interested in this respect and am not operative" (T6). In addition, he said that he did not use appropriate strategies to teach speaking because the students did not have the willingness to participate. T7 explained that she did not give opportunities to the students to participate. In addition, she said she did not commonly use speaking activities like roleplays and dramas in her speaking classes. Then, she explained her efficacy in providing challenging speaking activities for capable students. She said that she prepared difficult questions. For instance, in a lesson on HIV/AIDS, she prepared questions about preventing HIV/AIDS from spreading. However, she did not trust she was efficacious in asking challenging speaking activities.

On the other hand, T4 said she selected speaking activities based on the textbook. She sometimes encouraged the students to bring their activities and effectively taught story-

telling, picture description, and debating. I followed a string of questions; T4 said, "I make the capable students describe complex pictures. I make them bring stories and tell for the classroom. However, it is not enough" (T4). This participant believed she was efficacious in teaching storytelling, picture description, and debating. However, she said she had a gap in providing challenging speaking activities for capable students.

I asked the participants to report their effectiveness in using various explanations and examples in teaching speaking skills. Four of the participants said that they were not effective in this regard. T1 thought he was not operative in giving explanations and examples when the students were confused in speaking lessons. He said that he taught speaking for formality. In the self-efficacy interview, she said, "I don't ask a variety of speaking questions except rushing to cover the textbook, but I ask them to read though they [students] are reluctant to speak. I make them work in pairs" (T2). T5 believed that she gave explanations and examples when students got confusion even though that was not satisfactory. Students' behavior and lack of willingness to learn speaking restricted her from explaining and giving sufficient examples to them. On the other hand, the other three participants believed they effectively gave examples and explanations when students were confused in speaking classes. T3 reflected:

> First, I explain about the daily speaking lesson supporting with examples. If possible, I ask them to give their examples; then, I go through the details. More or less, I am effective in doing so. Of course, not all the students participated actively in the speaking lessons.

T6 and T7 also said that their students were not interested in speaking lessons. Their trend before was teaching grammar because the students were reluctant to speak. They added that they were teaching speaking by explanations, providing examples, and writing on the board. Then, students discussed on it that they were doing well. Regarding asking a variety of speaking questions and responding to students' challenging questions, only two of the participants (T6 & T7) believed that they did well. T6 believed that his students were not ready to ask questions, but he said he was good at responding to the difficult questions if they asked him. Similarly, he trusted himself that he was capable of asking a variety of questions though students were reluctant. T7 also said, "When students ask me questions, I give them positive respond. In addition, I am capable of asking different types of questions". She believed she was efficacious in responding to questions and asking varieties of questions to develop speaking competence. On the other hand, five of the participants said they were not good at asking varieties of speaking questions. For example, T4 said:

> Students ask me how they can say some Amharic expressions in English. I tell them the Amharic expressions in English. But most of the time, they ask me words, for example, "What English word expresses this Amharic word (. . .)?" Then, I infer the word in a dictionary installed on my mobile phone. However, I am not efficient in asking a variety of questions. Sometimes, I ask them to repeat what they had. I think this is one way to make them speak.

T3 and T5 stated that they approached students' questions smoothly, but they labeled they were ineffective in asking various questions because of the large class size. The participants except T1and T2 believed they effectively responded appropriately to the difficult questions. However, I did not observe students asking questions during the classroom observations. For example, T3 said that some students were active in speaking classes. These students had their needs that they wanted to talk about in English. They domi-

nate the classroom. These exceptional students asked him some more questions, and he thought he was effective regarding this. T5 also responded that she could do two things towards this. Firstly, if it was easier, she could do it immediately. Secondly, if it was difficult, she made students do it as a home take activity and prepared herself for the next lesson; she believed she was effective.

None of the participants believed that they effectively used teaching aids and materials during speaking lessons as they did not use them other than the textbooks. T3 responded: "Our [the participant himself and his colleagues] teaching trend is chalk and talk. We are not using teaching aids in the classroom". T7 also stated that she was not efficient enough in using different teaching materials except the textbook. Regarding using speaking assessment, all participants believed that they were not effective. For instance, T5 said:

> It was difficult to assess students orally because of the large class size, and the students themselves did not want to speak in the class. As a rule, I need to assess students orally. However, even if you tell them that the assessment had a score, only a few students can participate. Those students do not worry about the results.

T3 also said that though it did not have credit, he asked students to express themselves, and he could say good, very good, and excellent for their speech. He said he incorporated speaking in the tests and final examination in conversation form. But there was no oral assessment for evaluation purposes. In a similar vein, T6 said that students' lack of willingness and participation restricted him from assessing speaking competence.

Six of the participants except T3 labeled themselves ineffective in correcting students' oral errors. For example, T6 said, "I am not efficient in giving oral feedback and error correction as students are not willing to speak." T5 said that she was not competent in correcting oral errors as the time allotted was insufficient to give oral feedback for every student as the class size was so large. However, T3 considered himself ineffective in correcting students' oral errors; he said, "I give sufficient specific oral corrective feedback for the students." All the speaking lessons observed revealed that participants who believed they were efficacious in using speaking instructional strategies did better. On the other hand, those who expressed their ineffectiveness showed low performance in using instructional strategies in speaking classes.

The findings disclose that one of the prevalent problems in teaching speaking English skills is participants' low self-efficacy. Most of the participants who took part in this study addressed the problem. Even though the participants believed that they were teaching English grammar, reading, and writing, they were not self-confident with their abilities about teaching speaking skills. As EFL teachers, all the participants were not acquainted with the realistic, natural spoken English that native speakers use in real-world discussions. According to their reactions from the interviews, their sentiment of inadequacy inhibits them from teaching English speaking skills properly in their classrooms. Studies on teachers' self-efficacy (Chacon, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy 2001) indicated that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence their instructional performances in various ways. Some of the influences consist of the strength they spend in teaching and the objectives they build for themselves and their students. The participants said they were confident in teaching grammar and reading. But, they explained that they did not feel comfortable teaching speaking skills. Some related the problem to the students' lack of willingness to speak English. These feelings of English teachers' low self-efficacy associated with students' lack of willingness in speaking lessons are noticeably a concern for most teachers.

Of the seven participants, only three (T3, T6, & T7) believed they were efficacious in providing relevant explanations and examples for confused students. All the rest said that they were not effective in this regard; they realized that the students were confused in the speaking lessons, but participants thought they did not give explanations and more examples for more clarity of the daily speaking lessons. Regarding this, a study points out, "people engage in tasks in which they feel competent and confident, and avoid those in which they do not" (Pajares 1996, p.544). Of course, I observed that some students were confused in doing some activities; those teachers used Amharic to explain instead of using the target language with different expressions, or they skipped to the next without avoiding students' confusion. However, teachers need to owe the knowledge of the language and the capability of applying it into practice. In addition, teachers need to have declarative knowledge to give explanations and examples to students (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). As researches indicate, language students require more explanations and examples from their EFL teachers than their previous learning preferences (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Mackey & Oliver, 2002).

The participants except for T2 and T1 stated they were efficacious in responding appropriately to the difficult questions posed by their students. Both T2's and T1's speaking lessons were teacher-dominated. Their speaking lessons showed that they taught speaking skills in traditional—the teacher-centered method. They also expressed themselves as they were unable to teach speaking skills efficiently. All but T6 and T7 believed they were ineffective in asking questions in speaking lessons. When they asked questions, they did not give time for the students to think and respond. In other words, when a non-efficacious teacher probes a student to answer a question and if that student cannot answer as fast as possible, the teacher answers the question themselves or pass to another student rather than giving time for the first student to respond (Dembo & Gibson, 1985). Teaching speaking using appropriate instructional strategies inspires the students that English teachers need to direct their students to understand and participate actively in daily speaking lessons (Brown et al., 1983). The speaking activities like dramas, conversations, roleplays, debates, presentations, and dialogues are significant in the EFL classrooms for enhancing oral communication and preparing students for actual life context (Celce-Murcia et al., 2014). However, in the current study, only T4 believed she was efficacious in using a variety of speaking activities in the classroom. For instance, she used roleplay activities in her speaking lessons. She made her students prepare themselves to be patients, first-aid workers, and doctors. Then, the students were very active in the simulation process. In this period, I observed students' active participation. T4's lesson indicated that roleplay activities show students' participation (Richards, 2003).

Likewise, all believed they were not self-efficacious in providing challenging speaking activities for capable students. The lessons observed indicated no challenging speaking activities given for students. Almost all of the participants did not work much on this aspect. Archambault and others (1993) stated that suitable challenging activities are adequate in the classrooms, mainly for clever students. They indicated that students with discrete skills chose teachers who provide varieties of teaching strategies to satisfy their necessities in the learning process. In addition, teachers need to challenge high-achieving students in the classroom. Students preferred teachers who provided teaching amendments matching their competency levels. Consequently, for talented students to achieve at ideal levels, the teaching environment needs to offer challenging scenarios that give situations for students to resolve problems on their own. In addition, they become imaginative, visionary, and possess high-quality competence.

Even though the participants in this research did not use a sufficient amount of speaking activities, it was significant for them to focus on the state of affairs that make the lesson effective with speaking practice activities (Shumin, 2002). Teaching speaking is vital as it supports students to develop EFL speaking skills to communicate with native speakers. Besides, if EFL teachers practice the relevant speaking activities in English classes, the lesson will trigger students' active learning (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Nunan, 1999). As indicated, all the participants believed in giving oral error corrections. T1 and T6 believed in delayed oral correction. Others said on-the-spot oral error correction was their choice. However, only four of them (T3, T4, T5, & T6) attempted on-the-spot oral error correction; however, all the rest did not give any oral error correction in their speaking classrooms. Thus, all except T3 believed they did not provide sufficient oral corrective feedback about students' learning speaking. They said that they were not confident in giving an appropriate type of corrective feedback.

Even if a few participants applied some error correction in the speaking classrooms, they did not identify the strategy. For instance, T4 applied recast, repetition, clarification, and elicitation; however, she did not know if she had used such strategies. Similarly, T6 applied recast and clarification strategies; nonetheless, he did not identify the type of error correction he applied. The speaking lessons showed that even though all participants believed in correcting students' oral errors, some gave insufficient error corrections, and others did not apply any oral error correction. Similarly, all participants said they were ineffective in using teaching aids/ materials other than the textbooks that provide students' differences. Some of them said that they did not like teaching speaking; they said they started teaching speaking skills after I had asked them to do so. During the classroom observations, they lacked pedagogical knowledge and confidence that depresses them from teaching speaking skills. Hence, they seemed unprepared to use video and audio materials in teaching speaking skills. Madhuri (2013) stated that using teaching aids can support students in improving their speaking skills. He said teaching aids support the sound and sight in teaching by assisting more than one sensory organ to endorse student learning speaking. In addition, he suggested that it is inevitable to use teaching aids to teach speaking skills. The teachers may not make students proficient in the English language without using the teaching aids effectively in the speaking classrooms. Of course, I observed no pedagogical center in this school. However, I believe it would be better for teachers to develop teaching aids using methods. So, they can teach speaking skills well. Even though all the participants believed in assessing students' speaking competence, they did not give a speaking assessment. They explained that they did not know how to assess speaking. In line with the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002), one's beliefs concerning their capability to carry out a duty are significant. This point has been long-established in teacher education on teachers self-efficacy research that as an influential factor on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding various facets of the teaching-learning process (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2006).

Most of the participants related the problems with their teachers when they were students. They said they did not have learning speaking experience at school. They did not learn speaking skills at schools. It influenced them for their teaching. Most of the participants except T7 and T3 stated that they did not get the required methods to teach speaking skills in the university. Two participants (T1 & T6) said English was not their preferred subject. T1's favorite subject was Geography, and T6's choice was Library science. It means assigning students to departments without their preference harms their teaching sense of self-efficacy beliefs. Speaking has been a problem of EFL English teachers (Chacon, 2005; Li, 1998; Liu & Dai, 2003). As a result, regular training programs

afford EFL teachers all language skills and provide attention to teaching speaking skills. Thus, teachers can improve a resilient sense of self-efficacy in assisting their students to develop English speaking proficiency.

To increase their self-efficacy, teachers need to practice active methods of teaching speaking skills. Participants (T1 & T2) reported inefficacious in all semi-structured interview items following the teacher-centered teaching method. When one chooses the teacher-centered, students will become passive listeners of the teacher. Then, they gradually lose their confidence in teaching. Therefore, making students active participants will maximize teachers' self-confidence. In this epoch of globalization, teachers need to attend teaching speaking skills as it is receiving the least in various language curricula (Goh, 2007). Hence, curriculum designers must develop an operational syllabus for speaking instruction.

Conclusions and Implications

This study shows participants' self-efficacy is related to their teaching practice. Findings from the classroom observations and interviews confirmed that they encountered several challenges in the classroom in using teaching speaking instructional strategies. The self-efficacy interviews indicated that most participants were not productive in using instructional strategies in teaching speaking skills; however, in some cases, only a few teachers said they were effective. The lessons observed show that participants who supposed they were effective were somewhat better; on the other hand, those who assumed they were not effective taught speaking skills poorly. It indicates uniformity between participants' sense of self-efficacy beliefs and their classroom practices in using teaching speaking instructional strategies.

The participants believed their students were poor background in speaking. According to Kaymakamoglu (2018), it has been claimed that teachers have low beliefs about students' ability to organize low-quality materials and apply low quality of teaching. Thus, they might have low self-efficacy. The research recognized that speaking is a problem for English teachers in Ethiopia. As a result, training programs afford them the strategies of teaching speaking skills and their teaching speaking efficacy. Thus, teachers can improve a resilient sense of self-efficacy in assisting their students to develop English speaking proficiency. Teachers need to practice active methods of teaching speaking skills to increase their self-efficacy because participants (T1 & T2) who reported themselves as they were not inefficacious in all semi-structured interview items followed the teacher-centered teaching method. When one chooses teacher-centered methods, students will become passive listeners of the teacher; then, they gradually lose their confidence in teaching. Therefore, making students active participants will maximize the teacher's self-confidence. In this epoch of globalization, teachers should give due attention to teaching speaking skills. It receives the least attention compared to other skills in various language curricula (Goh, 2007). Hence, curriculum designers must develop an operational syllabus for speaking instruction. As Ethiopia is designing a new educational policy, designers need to give sufficient instructional time to teaching speaking skills. There is also a need to have relevant resources like audio-video laboratories, multimedia equipment, and personal electronic devices if it is required to improve the teaching-learning of speaking skills. By using those materials, English Teachers can develop their self-efficacy in teaching speaking skills, and it is possible to improve students' speaking competence.

Stakeholders need to assist English teachers in improving their English teaching efficacy levels. In addition, this study has found teachers' self-efficacy in using instructional

strategies in teaching speaking skills is an indicator of the efficacy for teaching English speaking skills. This finding implies that it is possible to enhance teachers' self-confidence in using instructional strategies to teach speaking skills by improving their efficacy and promoting their insights regarding how to teach speaking skills.

Acknowledgments

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