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DIPLOMAMUNKA

MA THESIS

A motiváció, az önhatékonyság és az idegennyelvi-szorongás kapcsolata: nem anyanyelvű tanárok vizsgálata

The relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety: An investigation of non-native English teachers

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Abstract

Whilst there is a considerable volume of research related to motivated language learning behaviour, little is known about the motivation to teach. However, it is accepted that motivated teachers contribute to student motivation, which is known to enhance the potential for successful learning. A sample of one hundred Hungarian teachers from the state school system agreed to participate in this quantitative study which aimed to 1) validate the L2 motivational self-system for non-native teachers; 2) examine the links between motivation, foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy; and 3) test the theoretical new element of pronunciation anxiety. The results show that the L2 motivational self-system does not apply to the respondents and that the teachers' motivational profile is directly influenced by their foreign language anxiety. The results offer the potential for further research in this area and may have implications for the future development of teacher training programmes.

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Introduction

When viewed in comparison with its sister field of language learning motivation, the domain of teacher motivation has seen a paucity of research in its history thus far. Whilst competing theories abound regarding the motivation to learn, such as Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model or Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system, there is little which has been formulated regarding the motivation to teach. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) recently highlight this by categorically stating that "literature on teacher motivation remains scarce" (p.176). This omission might be construed as something of an oversight in some quarters given the accepted wisdom that motivated teachers often have the most significant and lasting effect on their students (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). As Nikolov (2001) points out, "Scholarly discussions often concern students' attitudes and motivation, but they rarely touch upon the same areas of their teachers, it would be important to see the other side of the coin as well" (p.165). Given this consensus of opinion, it may be argued that it is time for a closer inspection of motivated teaching behaviour in order that we may gain a fuller understanding of the classroom learning environment.

As with language learning motivation, foreign language anxiety research has offered fertile ground for applied linguists, with notable advances made by luminaries such as Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1987) with their theory of foreign language classroom anxiety. As a result of this body of work, the position of language anxiety as a significant influence in language learning success has become generally acknowledged (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). However, there has been a lack of research documenting the effects of foreign language anxiety of the non-native language teacher (Horwitz, 1996; Heitzmann, Tóth & Sheorey, 2007). In addition to this, arguments have been made as to the need for research

into the existence of the connections between motivation and language anxiety from the perspective of the teacher (Yan & Horwitz, 2008).

The third dimension of this study, self-efficacy, has been the subject of fundamental work by Bandura (1977, 1986) both in the explication of its reality and the development of hypotheses as to its importance for the language learner. In addition to the learner, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) identify "the teacher's sense of efficacy" as an important facet of their "psychological needs" (p.162). Despite this, little work has focussed specifically on identifying levels of the teacher's self-efficacy and even less exists which attempts to consider these levels as part of the larger reality which is comprised of a variety of interlinking individual variables.

In an attempt to address these identified deficiencies in the current body of empirical research, this study aims to investigate the relationships which may exist between the tripartite dimensions of motivation, language anxiety and self-efficacy. The non-native English teacher is the focus of study, as represented here by a sample of Hungarian English teachers, and it is hoped that as a result of this work, a greater understanding of the reality of the non-native teacher may be gained.

In order to achieve these aims, it is first necessary to identify the major developments in the fields of language anxiety, self-efficacy and motivation. Each of these is addressed individually and the links between them highlighted. Following this, the research methodology is outlined with the aim of identifying each of the steps taken in obtaining and analysing the data utilised in this investigation. Next the results are presented and a discussion of their interpretation is provided. Finally, conclusions are drawn regarding the quality of the study itself before recommendations for future research are offered.

Literature Review

It is intended that the following section serve as a review of research in the fields of foreign language anxiety, self-efficacy and motivation which may be viewed as relevant to this study. The first section takes the theme of anxiety research, beginning with its psychological roots and continuing on to the specific area of foreign language classroom anxiety. This is followed by an overview of self-efficacy, including mention of its roots in social cognitive theory. Finally, the major historical developments in the field of language learning motivation will be outlined. This will be divided into four stages, each reflecting an important developmental era and in which the most salient areas of research are outlined. These three individual difference variables have been chosen as they have been proven to exert a high degree of influence on the experience of the language learner (Dörnyei, 2005). The aim of this study is to investigate whether they may also affect the motivated teaching behaviour of non-native language teachers and therefore, have the potential to impact on the reality of the classroom experience for both the teacher and language learner.

Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety can be defined as "a state of anticipatory apprehension over possible deleterious happenings" (Bandura, 1997, p.137). Richards (2009), in an attempt to sum up the psychological reality of anxiety, views it as a "general term roughly meaning worry and concern of a fairly intense kind" (Richards, 2009, p.21). However, these are definitions of general, non-situation specific anxiety and as such, were not formulated with the specialised context of the language learner in mind. For this, it is necessary to refer to the work of

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) whose seminal research conceptualised a unique form of anxiety connected with the language learning environment: foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA). They define FLCA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). However, before it is possible to contextualise and appreciate the work of Horwitz et al. (1986), it is first necessary to examine the earlier developments in the field, beginning with the decade of the 1960s.

The roots of anxiety research lie in the field of psychology where early investigations were centred on the degradation in quality of life that was being experienced by its sufferers. One of the more significant early developments came from Alpert and Haber (1960) who conceptualised anxiety as including positive and negative forms: facilitating anxiety, seen to be helpful; and debilitating anxiety, which was viewed as obstructive. Further important developments arrived by the end of the decade in the recognition of additional forms named state and trait anxiety. These two constructs were next operationalized in the influential state-trait anxiety inventory (STAI) by Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene (1970). The STAI went through a number of developmental revisions in the coming years, resulting in Spielberger, Gorusch, Lushene, Vagg and Jacobs' (1983) publication of the current form, which has been considered to be a valid instrument ever since. At the time of its initial inception, state and trait anxiety were widely accepted as able to account for the majority of anxious behaviour which was under psychological investigation. In their original work, Spielberger et al. (1970) define state anxiety as a fluid and dynamic response to a particular environment or scenario, whilst trait anxiety is an inherent part of an individual's personality which describes their general potential to exhibit anxious behaviour. MacIntyre (1995, p.93) adds to this and comments that whereas trait anxiety is "the tendency to react in an anxious manner", state

anxiety is “the reaction” itself. It is noteworthy that conceptualisations of these two dimensions have remained relatively stable since 1970 and both the STAI and its core definitions are still utilised in psychological research today.

In addition to the work of Spielberger et al. (1970) in the field of psychology, the 1970s also saw important changes in the realm of second language acquisition research where focus was shifting towards the learner. As a result of this, researchers now began to consider specific language related facets of the anxiety construct: a move which brought two approaches which proved to be divisive in the field. The first of these was termed anxiety transfer, a theory which conceptualises language related anxiety as an existing condition which is simply transferred to the L2 environment (Horwitz & Young, 1991). The second was called the unique anxiety approach, a conceptualisation which states there may be numerous forms of anxiety and that language anxiety is simply one of them (Horwitz & Young, 1991). As such it should be seen as a separate and defined construct in its own right and not be conceptualised as merely a manifestation of some other form of anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) refer to this phenomenon as situation specific anxiety. However, whilst both the concept of anxiety transfer and the unique anxiety approach were important achievements of the 1970s, it is the unique anxiety approach which has gained greater credence and garnered more interest in the intervening years, resulting in important developments such as foreign language classroom anxiety.

Whilst the results of research following the unique anxiety approach provided a strong basis for its support during the 1980s, it is the work of Horwitz et al. (1986) which stands out as one of the defining moments in the field of language anxiety research. Through extensive research they not only provided evidence to strengthen the argument for the unique anxiety approach but also went one stage further by conceptualising the construct of foreign language

classroom anxiety. Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCA is comprised of three essential components: communication apprehension; fear of negative evaluation; and test anxiety. Communication anxiety in a foreign language context should be seen as distinct from general communication anxiety as unlike L1 speakers, who equally may also experience communication anxiety, language learners must also contend with additional pressures such as feelings of exposure and increased cognitive loading which are inherent in second language oral production (Foss and Reitzel, 1988). As such, the two constructs should not be seen as two representations of a singular entity. The second construct, test anxiety, refers to pressure which may inhibit performance as a result of the undue demands learners may place on themselves or "anxiety stemming from a fear of failure" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.128). The final dimension is fear of negative evaluation and it is appropriate to reproduce Watson and Friend's (1969) prototypical definition of fear of negative evaluation is employed here, given its acceptance in the field as comprehensive. They define it as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p.449). It was believed that these three dimensions would be able to account for a much truer understanding of the anxiety experienced by the language learner. Through the creation of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), Horwitz et al. (1986) were able to operationalize each of the three facets of foreign language anxiety and as a result, provide evidence of its existence.

As a result of extensive research, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) were able to categorically state that foreign language anxiety as a whole has been proven to be a reliable predictor of second language learning success. However, despite this support, questions were raised regarding the validity of the test anxiety construct, with arguments being made that it may simply be a manifestation of general anxiety and not a separate entity (MacIntyre &

Gardner, 1989). In spite of this, the work of Tóth (2008) explicitly refutes these allegations and offers further validation for use of the FLCAS in its original form. In addition to this, Dörnyei (2005) states that the FLCAS was fundamental in validating the model of foreign language anxiety as being distinct from the earlier concept of trait anxiety. The work of Piniel (2006) reinforces this claim and provides evidence that it is possible for foreign language anxiety to be evident even when trait anxiety levels are low. As a result, the original three dimensions of foreign language anxiety may still be seen as having scientific relevance. Moreover, it is also noteworthy that despite over twenty five years of testing in a multiplicity of second language learning contexts, the FLCAS is still considered to be a valued instrument for identifying levels of foreign language anxiety.

Having accounted for the theoretical underpinnings, it is to now valid to adopt a wider perspective and attempt to envision exactly what kinds of behaviour may be a result of heightened levels of foreign language anxiety. Price (1991) conducted research on this from the perspective of those experiencing its negative effects. She notes that the learners expressed real fears with regard to speaking and the potential that others may ridicule their efforts. Moreover, genuine concerns were evident in connection with pronunciation and the negative effect that strong accents may have on the interlocutor. Furthermore, the participants highlighted feelings of annoyance as a result of an inability to express themselves efficiently and effectively. As a result of these negative experiences, the participants found they were less able to function in the second language and became preoccupied with their intensifying dissatisfaction. It is interesting to note that each of these elements is concerned with productive skills, specifically speaking, and that test anxiety was not mentioned. The results indicate that the added pressure of oral communication increases the potential for anxiety and

this is consistent with Horwitz et al. (1986) who identified the productive skill of speaking as that most likely to result in heightened levels of foreign language anxiety.

Further questions have been raised as to whether foreign language anxiety may be a root cause or a direct result of unsuccessful language learning experiences (Sparks & Ganschow, 2007, Yan & Horwitz, 2008). It has been posited that the line of causation is as yet unproven and that further research into this area needs to be carried out in order to confirm the direction of influence. One resultant theory of this line of reasoning is that foreign language anxiety may be more prevalent among lower level learners since those that achieve more advanced levels of study are likely to be individuals that do not suffer from high levels of anxiety. Tóth (2010) argues that there is not a convincing body of evidence to prove this. Her work with advanced Hungarian learners resulted in varying degrees of anxiety and suggests that the learning situation is of greater importance than level of ability in terms of anxiety inducement. Furthermore, the fact that advanced learners also have the potential to experience high levels of anxiety may call into question the strength of a link between anxiety and achievement. Further research in this area may be necessary.

Furthermore, Horwitz (1996) offers the theory that it is not only language learners who may be susceptible to foreign language anxiety and that non-native teachers also have the potential to experience its effects. The author goes further and posits that high levels of anxiety may result in language avoidance tactics in the classroom which could result in a reduction in L2 input for their learners both in terms of quality and quantity. If this is true, it could have potentially far reaching ramifications for the learners in terms of their potential for successful language learning and the model of language use which the teachers present to them. Heitzmann, Tóth and Sheorey (2007) conducted an investigation into levels of foreign language anxiety in Hungarian teachers of English in an attempt to answer this question. In

order to do this, they developed an instrument, the foreign language anxiety scale for teachers (FLAST). Unlike the FLCAS model which conceptualises foreign language anxiety in three domains, the FLAST incorporates seven: oral communication anxiety; stage fright; receiver anxiety; self-perception of proficiency; disparity between the 'true' self and a more limited self; fear of negative evaluation; and harmful beliefs. The theory behind such an expanded list of facets was that the authors were attempting to measure elements of both state and trait anxiety in their study and additionally they felt that the new context might demand alternate dimensions. Although the results of their study indicated generally low levels of anxiety among the teachers, it is worth noting that patterns of behaviour began to emerge regarding anxiety inducing elements of teaching. It seems that a large proportion of the reported anxiety could be collated into three main areas: fear of negative evaluation; oral communication anxiety; and self-perception of proficiency, which indicates that the teachers identify themselves as lower than average in terms of proficiency in the target language. The first two of these provide a match with the findings of Horwitz et al. (1986) however; it is the inclusion of the last into future studies of foreign language anxiety which may offer interesting results as it offers potential insight into how a disparity between the true self and a more, or even less, limited self may affect anxiety. Furthermore, despite focussing on both receptive and productive oral anxiety, there seems to be no clear reference to pronunciation in the FLAST. In contexts such as Hungary where the teacher may form the only potential model for acceptable pronunciation, it may be theorised that this may result in additional pressure, and therefore anxiety, as the teacher cannot fail to be aware that their pronunciation is under constant scrutiny in the classroom and a failure to provide an appropriate model may result in long lasting effects for their learners.

Despite the work of Horwitz (1996) and Heitzmann et al. (2007), research into the foreign language anxiety of non-native teachers has so far been minimal. However, this may still be seen as a viable area for further investigation since, as mentioned above, previous findings have been far from conclusive and many unanswered questions remain as to what the effects of high levels of anxiety may mean for both the teacher, and ultimately, the learner. Heitzmann et al. (2007) state that anxiety can lead to teachers employing avoidance tactics, the results of which can negatively affect both the style of teaching and the linguistic content of lessons. In addition to this, Tóth (2010) recommends further research into foreign language anxiety and other characteristics in order to garner a deeper understanding of the construct. Moreover, Dörnyei (2005) argues that foreign language anxiety "is likely to remain an indispensable background variable component of L2 studies focusing on language performance" (p.201). Additionally, Yan and Horwitz (2008) argue that research needs to be carried out on the relationship between motivation and foreign language anxiety. Finally, Pappamihiel (2002) claims the existence of strong links between anxiety and self-efficacy. The three dimensions of self-efficacy, motivation and foreign language anxiety may prove to offer a deeper understanding not only of anxiety itself but also what happens in the classroom from the perspective of the non-native English teacher and therefore, the relationships between these three will form the basis of this investigation.

Self-efficacy

Many attempts have been made to explicate exactly what self-efficacy beliefs are. However, all subsequent efforts may be viewed as characterised by their paraphrasing of Bandura's (1986) seminal definition of self-efficacy beliefs: "people's judgments of their

capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p.391). Huang and Shanmoao (1996) attempt to add to Bandura's earlier work by stating them as "the beliefs about one's ability to perform a given task or behaviour successfully" (p.3), whilst Mills, Pajares and Herron (2007) offer an academic refinement by defining an individual's self-efficacy beliefs as "the judgements they hold about their capability to organise and execute the courses of action required to master academic tasks" (p.417). Each of these views fundamentally describes an individual's self-perception of their own efficacy within a specific domain.

It was in his earlier work on social cognitive theory that Bandura (1977) initially highlights the importance of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) argues that in the absence of adequate levels of self-efficacy, individuals may elect to avoid problematic scenarios whereas those in possession of higher levels may believe in their ability to overcome such obstacles. Gahungu (2007) states that, in essence, social cognitive theory aims to explain "human cognition, action, motivation, and emotion" (p.70). In effect, the theory claims that people are capable of not only responding to their environment but also ruminating upon it and making proactive decisions and adaptations to their actions in order to mould said environment to their wishes. To be more precise, Bandura (2012) states that social cognitive theory consists of the interactions between three key dimensions: "personal determinants"; "behavioural determinants"; and "environmental determinants", in a relationship he terms "triadic reciprocal causation" (pp.11–12). Personal determinants refer to elements within the individual; behavioural determinants are the actions of the individual and the results of said actions; and finally, environmental determinants refer to any element specific to the surroundings which may affect the individual. Thus, in Bandura's (2012) theory, "human functioning" (p.11) is influenced by each of these three dimensions which additionally possess

equal power in exerting influence on each other. Self-efficacy is seen as a facet of the personal, or 'intrapersonal', dimension, through which its influence may be realised. As a result, an individual's self-efficacy beliefs can affect, and be affected by, both their behaviour and their environment.

Whilst it is true that self-efficacy is an influential predictor of successful performance in general, it is in the field of academic success that much of the work has been carried out (Bandura, 1997; Mills et al., 2007; Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991; Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Usher & Pajares, 2006; Zimmerman, 1989). Bandura (1997) categorically states that self-efficacy has a critical function in both achieving and predicting academic success. Mills et al. (2007) go further and stipulate that individuals who exhibit high levels of self-efficacy in the domain of study will:

> Willingly undertake challenging tasks, expend greater effort, show increased persistence in the presence of obstacles, demonstrate lower anxiety levels, display flexibility in the use of learning strategies, demonstrate accurate self-evaluation of their academic performance and greater intrinsic interest in scholastic matters, and self-regulate better than other students (pp. 417–418).

This goes some way to explaining the potential for importance that self-efficacy may have in achieving academic success. Moving the focus from the general academic domain to the specific context of second language learning, Dörnyei (2005) identifies self-efficacy as an important individual variable in predicting language learning success. Furthermore, Raoofi, Tan and Chan (2012) state that based on their meta-analysis of recent research into self-efficacy and second language learning success, there is strong evidence to suggest that self-efficacy can be utilised to predict quality of performance. As a result of over thirty years of research, it can be seen that there is clear evidence for the relevance of self-efficacy to the

domain of second language learning and its potential to influence the individual learner's success.

However, there has been some debate regarding the degree of separation between self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence. Maddux and Meier (1995) are categorical and state that self-esteem is a personality trait whilst self-efficacy is behavioural and therefore, they should not be considered as two facets of a singular element. With regard to the difference between self-confidence and self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) is unambiguous in pointing out that whereas self-efficacy refers to a belief regarding a specific domain; self-confidence pertains to a more general conviction concerning an individual's self-assessment of their potential for success or failure. In spite of this, Dörnyei (2005) argues for similarities between self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence, citing empirical evidence of correlations between the three. Gahungu (2007) refutes this claim and states that an individual may exhibit low self-esteem despite possessing high levels of self-efficacy. As yet, there is no definitive answer to this question however, these conceptual differences may be as a result of previous research design as opposed to genuine ambiguity and careful operationalisation of these constructs in future studies may offer clearer answers.

Raoofi et al. (2012) claim that whilst a significant body of evidence exists with regard to the existence of links between self-efficacy and motivation to learn in general, a limited number of studies have focussed specifically on the language learning context (Mills et al. 2007). Furthermore, it should be noted that even fewer investigations have been conducted in the field of motivation to teach. Moreover, whilst empirical evidence points to a link between self-efficacy and anxiety (Erkan & Saban, 2011; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006), this research has focussed on the skills of reading, writing and listening, with little work on the skill of speaking. Gahungu (2007) states that, in contrast to those in possession of lower levels,

individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are able to moderate their anxiety levels through considered responses to the environment. Once again, much of the previous research has been directed at the language learner as opposed to the language teacher. Given the widely accepted belief of the importance of anxiety, self-efficacy and motivation not only for language learning success, but also in performance, it could be argued that there is a case for further research into the language learning context from the perspective of the non-native teacher. As a result, this study will investigate the relationships between foreign language anxiety, motivation and self-efficacy in non-native English teachers.

Motivation

Motivation has been of primary interest to researchers for many years, not only in the fields of psychology and education, but particularly in second language acquisition studies. Dörnyei (2005) indicates that language aptitude and motivation can be seen as the two most influential individual difference variables in second language acquisition. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) emphasise the importance of motivation in second language acquisition by stating that high levels of motivation can enable the most challenged of learners to attain some measure of success whilst more gifted students who are lacking motivation are likely to struggle. Motivation can be seen as being of fundamental importance in the quest to fully understand the intricacies of second language acquisition and this has resulted in over half a century of investigation into the field of motivation research.

Despite this extensive period of research, a clear definition of exactly what motivation is has proven to be elusive. From a psychological perspective, McDonough (1981), characterised motivation as a superordinate term which includes “a number of possibly distinct

components, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment" (p.143), thus underlining the problematic nature of any attempt to pin down an exact definition. Richards (2009) adopts a broader approach, terming it as "whatever drives people to behave in a certain way" (p.146). However, it is perhaps Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010), who offer the most comprehensive definition for the purposes of this study. They define motivation as "what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action" (p.3). It is perhaps only when the domain of motivation is viewed in such explicit terms that it may be possible to understand why it has proven to be such an important area for research in the field of second language acquisition.

The history of motivation research can largely be divided into four main phases: the social-psychological period; the cognitive-situated approach; the process-oriented period; and the socio-dynamic period, each of which will be briefly outlined below. The social-psychological period, which can be seen as originating in the 1960s (Lambert, 1963), was embodied by the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972). The central theme of the socio-psychological period was that "the social and cultural environment in which learners grow up influence *(sic)* their attitudes and motivation, which in return influence *(sic)* their achievement" (Xie, 2011, p.25). In short, if the individual does not possess a positive attitude towards the second language and its community, they are more likely to struggle in their quest to successfully acquire said language. At the time, language learning motivation was seen as consisting of two forms of motivational orientation: integrative and instrumental (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Gardner (1985) defines these as the following: integrative orientation is the desire to interact with, or even assimilate into, the target language community through the use of the second language, whereas instrumental orientation is driven by the achievement of a reward or advantage as a result of successful language learning e.g. a promotion. In Gardner's

(1985) socio-educational model, the former of these two is awarded a greater degree of influence on motivation. It is widely acknowledged that these were ground-breaking insights into second language learning as previously, the study of languages had been viewed as no different from any other field of academic endeavour (Dörnyei, 2005). The result was that motivation began to be viewed as a critical determinant in language learning success and the importance of the learner's orientation to the second language culture took a more central role. However, the work of Gardner, and in particular his socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985), has not been without its critics (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei, 1990, 2005; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Pavlenko, 2002) and whilst its influence and importance to the field has been recognised, questions as to the continued relevance of the socio-educational model have been posed. Criticisms include accusations that the model is poorly defined and its taxonomy has been the source of confusion. Dörnyei (2005) argues that not only does the socio-educational model contain three instances of the term integrative, each at a different level, but also that integrative motivation contains something called motivation. The result of this is that it has been problematic to correlate studies by different researchers since they may conceptualise these elements differently. Furthermore, Coetzee-Van Rooy (2006) states that "the notion of integrativeness is untenable for second-language learners in world Englishes contexts" (p.447). Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) offer further insight into this and point out that whilst the integrative orientation may be of direct relevance to language learners in bilingual communities; the majority of English language learners have little or no direct contact with the target language community. As a result, it is unclear with whom they might wish to integrate. Although Gardner is still at work, attempting to refine and re-establish his work at the centre of motivation research, it was side-lined in the 1990s by the emergence of the cognitive-situated period.

The cognitive-situated period offered a conceptual broadening of motivational theory in response to the approach which had dominated the 1980s. Dörnyei (2005) states that in addition to this, there was also a feeling that previous theories such as the socio-educational model were lacking in relevance as they conceptualised motivation from a larger perspective i.e. societies, whereas what was required was a model which could reflect smaller scale realities such as the classroom situation. Mills et al. (2007) add that at this time it began to be "argued that one's perceptions of one's abilities, possibilities, and past performances were crucial aspects of motivation" (p.418), thereby reflecting the new cognitive perspective of the period.

Dörnyei (2009a) states that "the best-known concepts associated with this period were intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, attributions, self-confidence/efficacy and situation-specific motives related to the learning environment" (p.16). Self-efficacy and its links with motivation have already been discussed (see above) and will not be revisited here but further details will be provided regarding self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1992).

Self-determination theory is comprised of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as "resulting from an interest in the subject/activity itself" whilst extrinsic motivation is described as "resulting from external factors of reward or punishment" (Littlejohn, 2008, p.215). External motivation is then further broken down into four types of regulation: integrated, identified, introjected, and external. Finally, Noels (2001) defines amotivation as a feeling of helplessness and that the learner has little or no control over what happens. Noels (2001) argues that self-determination theory views each of these facets as being placed on a cline, with amotivation at one end, followed by each of the four elements of external motivation, and then intrinsic motivation being housed at

the opposite end. One of the important elements of this theory is that of amotivation which appears for the first time and acknowledges the potential for a lack of motivation. It is interesting to note that intrinsic motivation and identified regulation have been seen to correlate with integrative motivation, whilst external regulation has been correlated with instrumental motivation (Noels, 2001).

Attribution theory (Weiner, 1992) is characterised by its attempt to connect "people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing *causal attributions* as the mediating link" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.79). The theory claims that whilst successful experiences are attributed by the learner to their own ability; unsuccessful experiences are attributed to temporary influences which may be neutralised; and demotivating experiences are attributed to the learning environment and not the learner (Ushioda, 2001). The degree of effort that an individual is willing to expend on a task is directly related to their perception of future success or failure based on previous experiences. Furthermore, the individual attributes causes of previous success or failure in such a way that they are able to maintain a sense of positive self-image. Despite the subsequent shifts in focus which occurred in the field of second language motivation as a whole, it is noteworthy that the influence of the above-mentioned theories from the cognitive-situated period can still be seen in empirical and theoretical research today.

The turn of the century brought further changes in the world of second language motivation research, one of which was the inception of the process-oriented approach. Dörnyei (2009a) describes this period as being "characterised by an interest in motivational change and in the relationship between motivation and identity" (p.17). Although Oxford and Shearin (1994) had earlier called for the recognition of "a prominent temporal dimension" (p.16) to motivation, it is within this current period that construct of motivation fully came to be viewed as dynamic. Dörnyei & Ottó (1998) were among the first to conceptualise this new fluid

reality with their process model of L2 motivation. This model conceptualises the motivation to complete a task as being comprised of three stages, before, during and after. These three stages are termed the pre-actional, actional, and post-actional and each can be viewed as connected with "different motives" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.86). The importance of this model was that it allowed researchers to identify different degrees of motivation at each stage of task completion and therefore it could be argued that it offered a view which was closer to reality.

The last of the four phases of motivation research is the current socio-dynamic period which Dörnyei and Ushioda (2012) state is "characterized by a concern with dynamic systems and contextual interactions" (p.396). One of the most significant breakthroughs of this period has been the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2005). Whilst incorporating elements of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986); self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987); and Gardner's work (2001), Dörnyei also drew on empirical research by the likes of Ushioda (2001) and Noels (2003). The resulting theory utilises three dimensions as the basis for both conceptualising and operationalising the construct of L2 motivation: the ideal L2 Self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. Dörnyei (2005) defines the ideal L2 self as "the L2 specific aspect of one's ideal self" (p.105) which embodies the type of L2 user the individual wishes to become (Csizér and Kormos, 2009). Dörnyei (2005) provides the theoretical underpinning by linking the ideal L2 self to "Noels' integrative category and the third of Ushioda's motivational facets" (p.105). Csizér and Kormos (2009) additionally state that it incorporates the dimension of integrativeness, which was fundamental to Gardner's socio-educational model and much previous motivation research. The ought-to L2 self is defined by Dörnyei (2005) as "the attributes that one believes one 'ought to' possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to 'avoid' possible negative outcomes" (p.105–106). In contrast with this limiting of the ought-to L2 self to solely negative

experiences, Csizér and Kormos (2009) additionally found evidence of positive links between the ought-to L2 self and parental encouragement. Dörnyei (2005) highlights the correspondence with Higgins' (1987) ought-to self and also extrinsic forms of instrumental motivation, thus offering further links to Gardner's earlier work. In addition to this, Papi (2010) argues for theoretical links between this dimension and the "extrinsic constituents in Noels (2003) and Ushioda's (2001) taxonomies" (p.469). The final dimension of the L2 motivational self-system is the L2 learning experience which Dörnyei (2009b) characterises as being concerned with "situated 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success)" (p.29). Csizér and Kormos (2009) and Shahbaz and Liu (2012) found stronger evidential links between this dimension and motivated learning behaviour than either of the other two dimensions. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009b) argues that successful language learning experiences often provide a greater degree of initial motivation than that which is inspired by internal or external self-perception. Dörnyei (2005) offers theoretical links with "Noels' intrinsic category and the first cluster formed of Ushioda's motivational facets" (p.106) and in addition to this, Papi (2010) highlights connections with Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) actional phase. The L2 motivational self-system provides an empirically tested framework for the dynamic reality of motivation in settings where there may be little or no direct contact with the L2 community. As such it offers potential answers to some of the criticisms of Gardner's earlier work. Furthermore, it provides strong theoretical links with previous theories and models of second language motivation research and, therefore, may be viewed as an evolution as opposed to revolution which may help to answer further questions about the reality of L2 motivation.

Despite extensive research into motivated learning behaviour, there has been little or no research in the field of teacher motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). Menyhárt (2008) utilised self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) in his research with university English teachers, finding that teachers tended to be intrinsically motivated whilst lecturers were more influenced by extrinsic influences (the study categorised respondents as teacher or lecturer depending on their teaching style). Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) argue that teacher motivation need not require a new conceptualisation of motivation and that previous models should apply since it is simply a type of "human behaviour" (p.160) however, they do theorise that teaching may correlate strongly with the dimension of intrinsic motivation. I believe it is time to explore the motivational profile of non-native English teachers using the L2 motivational self-system as the basis for investigation. Given its ability to account for a lack of integration into a specific L2 community, it has the potential to reflect the reality of the situation in which non-native teachers often find themselves. As a result, I feel that this approach may offer the potential to shed new light on an under-researched area. In addition to this, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) hypothesise not only the importance of self-efficacy for teachers but also a potential link between high levels of self-efficacy and motivation. Finally, Papi (2010) points out that there has been little research carried out to establish the influence of the L2 motivational self-system on variables such as anxiety, with even less work having been done into the area of the non-native teacher. As a result, this study will adopt the L2 motivational self-system in order to investigate the relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety in non-native English teachers.

Research Methods

The aim of this study was to investigate the inter-relationships between motivation, foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy focussing on the non-native English language teacher. In order to facilitate this, a quantitative research design was decided upon and then relevant research questions and hypotheses were formulated as quantitative studies offer the capability to confirm or reject clear hypotheses. As previously stated, Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system was chosen for its focus on the teacher *selves* and its proven ability to accurately measure levels of motivated learning behaviour in contexts with no discernible target language community. It was felt that this might offer a counterpoint to previous research, which had utilised self-determination theory, and that the resulting data might offer an increased level of detail. However, it is acknowledged that it is first necessary to confirm whether the L2 motivation self-system applies to this context and as a result, the following research questions were to be investigated:

- **Research question 1** – Can the L2 motivational self-system be applied to the non-native English language teacher in a Hungarian context?
    - **Hypothesis 1**: The items intended to measure each construct of the L2 motivational self-system will provide internally reliable scales.
    - **Hypothesis 2**: Each of the constituent facets will contribute to motivated language teaching behaviour.

The next level of enquiry was to focus on the connection between each of the three individual difference variables under investigation in this study. In order to examine each of the potential relationships, the following were formulated:

- **Research question 2** – What are the relationships between motivation, foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy?
    - **Hypothesis 1**: There will be evidence of a positive correlation between motivation and self-efficacy.
    - **Hypothesis 2**: There will be a negative correlation between motivation and foreign language anxiety.
    - **Hypothesis 3**: The results will show a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy.

Finally, as stated in the literature review, it was theorised that non-native teachers may experience a heightened degree of pressure, and resultant anxiety, related to their L2 pronunciation. In order to learn more, the following were devised:

- **Research question 3** – Does the reality of the non-native teacher require a specific new facet of foreign language anxiety related solely to pronunciation issues?
    - **Hypothesis**: There will be evidence of a positive correlation between pronunciation anxiety and foreign language anxiety.

Participants

The investigation was conducted in the city of Budapest, in Hungary. Its status as a non-English speaking country situated in the heart of Europe and a member of the EU offers the potential that results from the Hungarian context may be of value to other member states with similar conditions. Furthermore, in the interests of greater generalizability, only teachers employed by state owned schools with pupils of primary or secondary age were considered for

participation. This was decided as although Budapest has a large quantity of private language schools and freelance English teachers, the majority of Hungarians receive their English language tuition from their school as a part of the curriculum.

The majority of the one hundred teachers who participated in the study were female (78%) with 16% male and a further 6% who elected not to state their gender. This is representative of the distribution of gender diversity in many of the schools in Budapest where the majority of language teachers tend to be female. The ages of the respondents displayed a wide variety ranging from twenty to above sixty; however, the two most frequent age groups were 30-39 (33%) and 40-49 (28%). Once again, this is felt to be representative of the city and it should also be highlighted that all of the sample were native Hungarians whose mother tongue is also the official language of the country. The teachers display a large range in terms of language learning success other than with English and almost all of the participants reported the ability to speak at least one other language. German and Russian were the most popular and self-reports assessed proficiency levels at anywhere from A1 to C2 using the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). In terms of teaching qualifications, a master's diploma was the highest reported certification (78%) with less than 10% mentioning any other form. This is likely to be as a result of Hungary having utilised a system of combined BA and MA programme for many years, a process which has only recently changed. As is to be expected given the range in terms of age, the number of years teaching experience varied, started at one year and ended with forty two years, though the majority reporting something between ten and thirty years in total. In addition to this, 78% of the teachers currently work for either a state primary school (18%) or a state secondary school (62%). Finally, 40% of the teachers have never taught above B2 level and a further 32% have never tutored students higher than C1 on the CEFR. Furthermore, only 6% of the sample has so far gained any

experience of C2 level pupils, something which is commensurate with my own experience of the level English language ability in Budapest.

Instrument

The final instrument is comprised of a total of seventy one items with sixty two five point Likert type items and nine further biographical questions (see Appendix 1). Nine scales were represented which comprise the three individual difference variables of motivation, foreign language anxiety and self-efficacy. Csizér and Kormos's (2009) adaptations to Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system were utilised and adapted in order to focus on motivation to teach as opposed to the original's motivated learning behaviour. The resulting construct is represented by the scales of motivated language teaching behaviour (6 items) e.g. I am willing to work hard at teaching English; the ideal L2 self (total 7 items) e.g. If my dreams come true, I will be able to teach English even more effectively in the future; the ought-to L2 self (total 7 items) e.g. It is important to teach English well; and present teaching experience (6 items) e.g. I like working with my students. It should be noted here that traditionally, the ideal and ought-to selves refer only to the L2 specific aspect of the individual. Given that the focus of this study is the non-native teacher whose L2 selves and teaching selves may be inextricably intertwined as a direct consequence of their chosen career, this study will treat the two entities as one. In short, for the remainder of this investigation, the terms ideal self and ought-to self will be used to refer to both the language specific and pedagogical selves combined.

The foreign language anxiety dimension is comprised of three elements from Heitzmann et al.'s (2007) FLAST; oral communication anxiety (6 items) e.g. I feel inhibited

when I speak in English, fear of negative evaluation (6 items) e.g. I am afraid to make mistakes in the classroom; and self-perception of proficiency (8 items) e.g. I think I speak English better than the average Hungarian English teacher. In addition to these, the experimental scale of pronunciation anxiety was devised (8 items) e.g. I worry that my English pronunciation is negatively influenced by my mother tongue. Finally, the scale of self-efficacy, which utilises Bandura's (2006) outlines for constructing self-efficacy scales, is comprised of 8 items e.g. I am sure that I can teach English to students of all levels of ability (from A1-C2).

It was decided that as the researcher is not able to speak Hungarian and that all of the respondents are experienced English teachers that the instrument would be completed in English. It is acknowledged that this might be viewed as introducing the potential for items to be misconstrued however, given the professional nature of the sample's English language ability, it was decided that translation of the items, which might introduce further issues, would offer no clear improvements to the study. However, during the piloting stage, the instrument was subjected to a number of think aloud processes in order to eliminate areas of potential misunderstanding or confusion (Ness, submitted for publication). After the piloting procedure was complete, factor analysis was carried out on the scales and items which did not load onto a single factor were highlighted for improvement before the instrument was deemed ready for use.

Procedure

Initially, it was decided that the instrument would be administered via the Internet with the use of the website Survey Monkey. This was in order to reduce the amount of intrusion on

schools and to allow the teachers greater freedom in deciding when and how to complete the questionnaire. A contact list was drawn up with representatives from each of the schools in Budapest and then each member was emailed. The initial email process was in Hungarian in order to convey the reasons for the study in greater detail and a Hungarian speaker was retained for this part of the procedure. The website was available for a period of two months during which time, a total of sixty responses were recorded. It is inevitable that with data collection procedures that utilise the Internet in such a fashion, it may be difficult to track the respondents. In order to counteract this, the IP address of each response was recorded along with the answers so that any anomalies could be investigated.

Following the initial collection, the schools were next approached in person with paper copies of the instrument. Appointments with school administrators and heads of the English departments were requested and a Hungarian speaker explained the purpose of the study and gained permission to involve the school's teachers. As part of the process, teachers were requested not to participate if they had already completed an online version of the instrument. The questionnaires were left with each school and then collected once they had been completed with weekly visits to encourage the teachers becoming a regular occurrence over the following two months. By the end of the data collection process, a total of one hundred responses had been accrued over a period totalling four months. These represent a sample which incorporates elements of convenience and snowball sampling whilst retaining an degree of self-selection from the participants.

Data Analyses

At the end of the collection process, the data were compiled into a data set using the program SPSS for Windows version 20. The data set was subjected to data cleaning and then composite scales were created from the individual items, each representing one of the previously outlined constructs. In order to do this, relevant items or scales were reversed as necessary in order that the results could be subject to statistical analyses. First of all, the internal reliability values (Cronbach's Alpha) were calculated and any items which were seen to have a detrimental effect on validity were removed (item 23 from the ideal self, leaving a 6 item scale). Next, mean values were recorded and then the scales were subjected to bivariate correlation analyses. Finally, a regression path model was created using linear regression and the results, along with their interpretation, can be found in the following section.

Results and Discussion

The Main Dimensions of Analyses

As a first step in the analysis, the internal reliability of each scale was calculated as well as descriptive statistics (see Table 1). The results show that with the exception of one, all the Crobach's Alpha values exceeded the minimum reliability requirement for scientific rigour (α=.70), for example, the self-efficacy scale achieved α=.75. The three constructs which represent foreign language anxiety: oral communication anxiety, self-perception of proficiency and fear of negative evaluation reported values of α=.85, α=.84 and α=.86 respectively, which represent very high levels of internal consistency. In addition to this, the proposed additional

foreign language anxiety construct, pronunciation anxiety, also achieved a high level of reliability (α=.85). As such, all data related to these four scales may be considered appropriate for further analysis. The constructs which measure the L2 motivational self-system offer a greater degree of difference. Motivated language teaching behaviour (α=.71) and the ideal self (α=.70) both achieved the minimum reliability requirement, moreover, the alpha value for present teaching experience (α=.88) reflects a very high degree of internal consistency. However, the ought-to self scale was more problematic, returning a Chronbach's Alpha value of only α=.36. This is considerably below the minimum requirement for scientific reliability and as a result, any and all data related to this scale should be treated as questionable.

One possible reason for the lack of reliability of the ought-to self is that it may be difficult to identify exactly what external elements are exerting an influence on the respondents. Given that they work for a variety of different schools, it may be reasonable to assume that they do not all experience the same levels of expectation imposed on them by their employers, their pupils, the families of their students, and also their colleagues. It may also be that as teachers and users (or advanced learners) of English, they have fully, or at least partially, internalised any external influences to the extent that it is difficult to access the ought-to self in traditional ways. This might be an indication of how the reality of language users may differ from that of language learners. The teachers could potentially feel that they have transcended the boundaries of external negative influences in the traditional sense, given that in many ways the teachers now embody exactly those same external influences for their learners. Moreover, given the largely autonomous nature of teaching, they may feel little in terms of identifiable influence from exterior sources. Piniel (2009) states that whilst there is a clear precedent in terms of success in the identification of the ideal self, the ought-to self has often proved to be more problematic. Previous studies in the Hungarian context have also

found the ought-to self to be an elusive construct, e.g. Gasniuk (20012) whose study of language anxiety and motivation also recorded a reliability value of less than the required minimum for the ought-to self. Furthermore, Csizér and Kormos (2009) argue that the "the Ought-to L2 self is not an important component of the model of language learning motivation" (p.107) with reference to their sample, and that of the ideal and ought-to selves, much greater value should be placed on the ideal self dimension of the L2 motivational-self system. In light of the comments outlined above and as a direct consequence of the scale's lack of internal consistency, data for the ought-to self will not be analysed further in this study.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Constructs (N=100)

Constructs	**α**	**M**	**SD**	**No. of items**
Motivated language teaching behaviour	.71	4.34	.51	6
Ideal self	.70	4.04	.60	6
Ought-to self	.36	3.75	.41	7
Present teaching experience	.88	4.26	.66	6
Self-efficacy	.75	3.70	.58	8
Oral communication anxiety	.85	1.72	.63	6
Self-perception of proficiency	.84	4.06	.58	8
Fear of negative evaluation	.86	1.95	.72	6
Pronunciation anxiety	.85	2.33	.71	8

As part of the descriptive statistics, mean values for each of the individual constructs were ascertained. The mean values of motivated language teaching behaviour, ideal self and present teaching experience were uniformly high with all showing a value above four (see Table 1). Given that the instrument utilised five point Likert scale items, this indicates that the respondents were reporting extremely high levels of motivation. If the data is seen to be generalisable, it seems that English language teachers in Budapest may be characterised as

very highly motivated in their chosen profession. Whilst the ought-to self has been linked with extrinsic forms of motivation (Papi, 2010), present teaching experience has been theoretically linked to a more intrinsic orientation (Dörnyei, 2005). It could be suggested that as present teaching experience has the highest mean value (M=4.26), this may reflect a bias towards intrinsic orientation for teachers as hypothesised by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010). Csikszentmihalyi (1997) defines the intrinsic rewards of teaching as relating to both the challenges and rewards of working with the student body, and the opportunity to be involved in professional development. The former of these two elements, that which reflects the satisfaction drawn from helping their learners to improve, may be seen as relating directly to present teaching experience and as such, these data may offer further validation for Dörnyei & Ushioda's (2010) premise. Self-efficacy also reports a high mean value (M=3.70); though slightly lower than those of the motivation scales. This is also consistent with Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) who hypothesised that English teachers would be likely to report high levels of both motivation and self-efficacy.

The mean values of the foreign language anxiety scales also offer a clear indication of the experiences of the teachers. Table 1 shows that oral communication anxiety and fear of negative evaluation are characterised by their low mean values (M=1.72 and M=1.95, respectively) whilst self-perception of proficiency is high (M=4.06). This indicates that the teachers were not experiencing high levels of anxiety which is a match with the findings of Heitzmann et al. (2007), though in reality the data reflect something much stronger than this as the teachers reported very low levels of foreign language classroom anxiety. This is represented by the respondents reporting not only low levels of oral communication anxiety and fear of negative evaluation but they also seem to feel strongly that they have attained a high level of English language proficiency. Given that they are English language teaching

professionals, it is to be expected that they are, in fact, advanced users of the language and so this self-perception may simply be an accurate view of reality. However, it should be noted that the majority of teachers (77.4%) reported that the highest levels that they have taught are either B2 (43%) or C1 (34.4%), with only a small percentage of the sample (6.5%) having gained any experience with C2 level students. As a result, it may be that the teachers are simply operating within their comfort zones in the classroom and not being presented with the potentially anxiety inducing challenges that might be expected from more proficient learners. It is also noteworthy that experience does not seem to be of relevance in regard to this as the sample is comprised of teachers with anything ranging from one to forty-two years of experience in English language tuition. As a result, it is unlikely that something as simple as the teachers' over-familiarity with the curriculum materials due to extensive experience is responsible for their low levels of anxiety and contributing factors must be sought elsewhere.

The Relationships among the Scales: Correlation Analyses

The L2 motivational self-system.

Analysis of the motivational variables offers some evidence for the relevance of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system to the domain of the respondents (see Table 2). Motivated language teaching behaviour here represents the degree of motivated behaviour exhibited by the teachers in their professional capacity and, for the L2 motivational self-system to be validated, each of its three facets should show evidence of positive correlations with motivated language teaching behaviour (in addition to being statistically significant). The ideal self shows a moderate positive correlation (r=.488, p<.05) which implies that higher reported values for the ideal self are associated with an increase in motivated language

teaching behaviour. Present teaching experience exhibits a high correlation (r=.729, p<.05) with motivated language teaching behaviour and this represents a much higher degree of inter-connection than that exhibited by the ideal self. This is in agreement with the findings of Doyle and Kim (1999) who found that assisting in the development of students was rated as the strongest motivational force by their sample of teachers. Similarly, the respondents here provided evidence of a stronger link between motivated teaching behaviour and the rewards that the teachers obtain through working with their classes than with their desire to improve themselves professionally in order to attain their idealised future selves. Although these differences between levels of correlation offer much for further discussion (see below), it should be highlighted that the data offer a clear indication of inter-connections between the dimensions of the L2 motivational self-system and motivated language teaching behaviour. However, this does not consider any potential associations with the ought-to self which was omitted from analysis due to reliability issues with the data (see above).

Table 2

Correlation Analysis of L2 Motivational Self-System (N=100)

		Ideal self	**Present teaching experience**
Motivated language teaching behaviour	Pearson Correlation	**.488****	**.729****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001

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

These data potentially provide further validation for Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational-self system and offer a widening of the conceptual field in terms of its relevance, given that previous work has almost exclusively been on the domain of the language learner. Moreover,

the results of this study offer a partial match with the work of Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) and Menyhárt (2008), who argue for a strong integrative element to teachers' motivation. The ideal self is taken to incorporate the integrative element of motivation here as is consistent with the work of Csizér and Kormos (2009) and Dörnyei (2005). This integrative dimension may be intuitively logical if we are to assume that the target community for teachers is that of other non-native English teachers in their school, city or country. Furthermore, since the teachers have attained such a high level of proficiency in the language that they are able to teach it, the facet of their ideal self which is related to the language is likely to be highly developed. However, if the aforementioned authors are correct, we might be expected to see a higher degree of positive correlation as opposed to the moderate level exhibited in Table 2. In reality, present teaching experience offers a much stronger positive correlation with motivated language teaching behaviour, which indicates that the teachers are highly affected by their experiences in the classroom. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) predict that intrinsic motivation, which has been linked to present learning experience (the learner's equivalent of present teaching experience), is the "main constituent" in teaching motivation (p.157), and if these theoretical links between present teaching experience and intrinsic motivation are to be accepted, then this study may be seen as offering validation for their hypothesis. This may be intuitive as teaching is a career which requires a large degree of autonomy and explicit rewards or punishments based on a teacher's performance are often non-existent. Teachers are generally presented with a syllabus and then allowed a reasonable degree of freedom in how they elect to cover that material. Official feedback on their degree of success in this venture arises solely from the results of the institution's formal assessment programme and regular classroom observation and feedback tends not to be a facet of everyday life for the majority of teachers in Budapest so external regulation of their performance may be seen as infrequent and

indirect. As a result, teachers must become adept at regulating their own behaviour and sourcing their own feedback from their students using more informal methods. Moreover, teachers often form strong bonds with their students at the age levels prominent in this study (primary and secondary school) and this can have a positive effect on the classroom experience for both teacher and learner. In addition, this may result in the teachers feeling a greater degree of personal investment in their learners' successes and failures which might help to explain the strength of influence that present teaching experience is exerting on motivated teaching behaviour. Finally, the data agree with Dörnyei's (2009b) assertion that present experiences offer a greater degree of motivation than the ideal or ought-to selves. However, as Dörnyei's hypothesis was developed with regard to the language learner, not the teacher, and previous research has been conducted using alternate motivational theories, these data may offer something new in terms of understanding motivated language teaching behaviour.

Self-efficacy and the L2 motivational self-system.

Bivariate correlational analysis was carried out in order to ascertain the existence, and strength of association between self-efficacy and the L2 motivational self-system (see Table 3). The data show that motivated language teaching behaviour, the ideal self and present teaching experience each exhibit a positive correlation with self-efficacy. This offers a match with previous work (Dörnyei, 2005; Raoofi, 2012) which hypothesised the existence of such connections. Motivated teaching behaviour (r=.508, p<.01) and present teaching experience (r=.525, p<.01) show a higher level of positive correlation with self-efficacy whereas the ideal self displays a slightly lower, yet still moderate association (r=.382, p<.01). This is potentially

validates the hypothesis of Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010), who theorised high levels of self-efficacy in teachers and also links between self-efficacy and motivation. Furthermore, this disagrees with the findings of Pajares (1996) who claims that self-efficacy is a sub-component of motivation. If that were the case, higher levels of correlation would be expected and the data do not reflect this view. These findings therefore may be seen as offering something of scientific value since up until now, only theoretical links between these constructs had been envisioned. Furthermore, there has been a limited amount of research carried out into the domain of the language teacher as opposed to the learner and to a degree, all findings which may help to validate or invalidate similarities with accepted notions regarding the learner, might be deemed worthy of some merit.

Table 3

Correlation Analysis of Self-efficacy and the L2 Motivational Self-System (N=100)

		Motivated language teaching behaviour	Ideal self	Present teaching experience
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	**.508****	**.382****	**.525****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001

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

One possible reason for the lower level of correlation between the ideal self and self-efficacy is the conceptual differences in their orientation. The ideal self concerns itself with the type of person the individual wishes to become whereas, self-efficacy, reflects what the individual believes they are currently capable of in a specific domain. Viewed in these terms, self-efficacy may be conceived as a belief in the now whilst the ideal self is a desirable future. It is therefore reasonable to assume that there would not be the same degree of correlation

between these differing outlooks. This may also help to explain the higher degree of correlation between present teaching experience and self-efficacy as it becomes logical to theorise links between the two constructs. The more positive experiences an individual has, the greater belief they may develop in their ability in that domain and therefore, they become willing to expend greater effort (Mills et al., 2007). These efforts have the potential to increase chances of success which may then feed back into the individual's motivational stance as a result of their positive experiences. Furthermore, if attribution theory (Weiner, 1992) is also factored into the equation, the positive experience may then feed into higher levels of self-efficacy relating to the specified domain. The moderate correlation with motivated language teaching behaviour is perhaps not so easily explained in this conceptual manner and it may be necessary to visualise a connection between what the individual believes they are capable of and the desire to fulfil said capability. Teachers may be motivated by the desire to help their students as they see English as an important language for their learners' futures.

Foreign language anxiety and the L2 motivational self-system.

The scales which comprise foreign language anxiety and the L2 motivational self-system were next to be subjected to bivariate correlation analysis (see Table 4). The resulting data show that oral communication anxiety has a moderate to high negative correlation with motivated language teaching behaviour (r= -.544, p<.01); the ideal self (r= -.460, p<.01); and present teaching experience (r= -.626, p<.01). In addition to this, fear of negative evaluation exhibits similarly high levels of negative association with the facets of motivation: motivated language teaching behaviour (r= -.468, p<.01); the ideal self (r= -.345, p<.01); and present teaching experience (r= -.400, p<.01). One reason for the strength of association between oral

communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and present teaching behaviour may be that these facets of foreign language anxiety negatively impact on the teacher's desire to expose themselves to further anxiety inducing situations. The classroom could form one such example given that it would be practically impossible for a teacher to avoid both speaking and listening for the duration of a lesson. In addition to this, the teachers are not simply dealing with individuals, but large groups of learners, which may increase the level of anxiety further. It is also possible to conceive that oral communication anxiety and fear of negative evaluation can impinge on an individual's positive affective responses to their chosen career and these reasons may account for the higher degree of correlation between these two facets and present teaching experience.

The ideal self, which is marginally lower in its correlation, may reflect the reality that although current anxious behaviour may have some effect on one's ideal self, it might also be rationalised after the fact in direct contrast to the more immediate qualities of the other two variables. As with the motivational experience of the learner who blames a negative experience on determinants which can be improved (Weiner, 1992), the teacher may also experience this element of attribution theory. Furthermore, this feeling of wanting to improve said determinants may be increased by the nature of their possessing real control in the classroom and therefore, being in a position to implement changes where they are seen to be appropriate. These data potentially offer validation to the premise that an anxiety inducing environment and depressed levels of teaching motivation may be linked. However, if this hypothesis is accepted, it is important not to simply assume that the reverse would automatically be true as low levels of anxiety are not considered enough on their own to predict that high levels of motivation will be in existence. This relationship appears to be more complex and further investigation is necessary.

Table 4

Correlation Analysis of Foreign Language Anxiety and Motivation (N=100)

		Motivated language teaching behaviour	Ideal self	Present teaching experience
Oral communication anxiety	Pearson Correlation	**-.544****	**-.460****	**-.626****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001
Self-perception of proficiency	Pearson Correlation	**.541****	**.493****	**.483****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001
Fear of negative evaluation	Pearson Correlation	**-.468****	**-.345****	**-.400****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001

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

In direct contrast to oral communication anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, the third element of foreign language classroom anxiety, self-perception of proficiency, exhibits moderate positive correlations with motivated language teaching behaviour (r=.541, p<.01); the ideal self (r=.493, p<.01); and present teaching experience (r=.483, p<.01). One explanation for this is that the self-perception of proficiency scale may in fact represent something similar to a form of self-efficacy and this would explain the similarity in results. Self-efficacy refers to the beliefs of the individual concerning their ability in a specific domain, and self-perception of proficiency expresses one's beliefs regarding general level of ability in the language. It could be argued that as such, self-perception of proficiency is a broader category which encompasses a multitude of skills, sub-skills, and areas of systematic knowledge whereas self-efficacy would be expected to relate one each one of those facets individually. This may be characterised as a bigger picture versus finer detail dichotomy, for want of a clearer analogy, and therefore, it is to be expected that there should be some degree of correlation between the two constructs. In addition to this, when answering the items related

to each of these two constructs, the teachers may have viewed them as being primarily influenced by their English language ability rather than their teaching ability, or vice versa, and this could account for some of the similarity in results. Furthermore, while it may be true that it is possible to learn about a subject in order to teach it whilst still not being proficient yourself, e.g. sports, it would seem that this distinction may be less acceptable in the world of language teaching. This might explain why perceptions of language proficiency and language teaching ability are correlated in this way.

However, whilst these are potential problems with the nature of self-efficacy and self-perception of proficiency, it should be reiterated that the scales do each display a high degree of internal consistency (α=.75 and α=.84 respectively) which indicates that they each reflect separate unitary constructs. In addition to this, the degree of positive correlation between the two scales is still only moderate to high (r=.695, p<.01). If the two scales were in fact identifying a singular reality, a higher degree of correlation might be expected to be in evidence. As a result, there is enough evidence available to claim that they are separate, though linked, entities. As can be seen from the possible explanations outlined above, which offer some insight into the kinds of problems encountered when attempting to fully separate the constructs of self-efficacy and self-perception of proficiency for identification and investigation. This relationship appears to be complex and may merit further research in order to ascertain further evidence both in the domain of the teacher and the learner.

Self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety.

Further evidence regarding the inter-relationships between not only self-efficacy and self-perception of proficiency, but also foreign language classroom anxiety as a whole was

sought via bivariate correlation analysis of the constituent scales (see Table 6). The results show there is a moderate to high degree of positive correlation between self-efficacy and self-perception of proficiency (r=.695, p<.01), as stated above; a moderate to high degree of negative correlation between oral communication anxiety (r= -.622, p<.01) and self-efficacy; and a moderate to high negative correlation between self-efficacy and fear of negative evaluation (r= -.675, p<.01). These findings offer concur with existing studies (Erkan & Saban, 2011; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006) which indicate links between self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety. However, the previous studies have focussed on the skills of reading, writing and listening. Given that little work has been done on the skill of speaking, they cannot be said to fully reflect the domain of oral communication anxiety. Furthermore, they have not concerned themselves with the non-native language teacher, instead focussing primarily on the experiences of the language learner. Unlike the teacher, learners may be viewed as being under potentially less pressure as they are not expected to know all of the answers in the classroom or to provide a model of acceptable pronunciation, and additionally, they may be able to limit their exposure to a greater degree than the teacher through a lack of engagement. Gahungu (2007) argues that learners with high levels of self-efficacy may be able to moderate their levels of language anxiety and whilst these data do not reject this premise, there is insufficient evidence from this study to confirm the results of that study since the respondents here reported a mean value lower than four with regard to the self-efficacy scale. As a result, it is not possible to draw any firm conclusions as to whether high levels of self-efficacy may enable the individual to reduce their anxiety. However, if the premise were to be accepted, it may also be possible that the process of moderating anxiety could result in the depression of self-efficacy levels as a by-product, something which might explain the results seen here.

Table 6

Correlation Analysis of Self-efficacy and Foreign Language Anxiety (N=100)

		Oral communication anxiety	Self-perception of proficiency	Fear of negative evaluation
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	**-.622****	**.695****	**-.675****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001

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

Pronunciation anxiety and foreign language anxiety.

As part of this study, it has been theorised that an additional dimension of pronunciation anxiety might be required in order to reflect the additional pressures and responsibilities experienced by the non-native teacher in the English language classroom. In order to provide further understanding of this area, bivariate correlation analysis was carried out on the scales of oral communication anxiety, self-perception of proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, and pronunciation anxiety (see Table 7). The data show that both oral communication anxiety (r=.604, p<.01) and fear of negative evaluation (r=.584, p<.01) experience a moderate positive correlation with pronunciation anxiety. Furthermore, self-perception of proficiency (r= -.556, p<.01) reflects a moderate negative correlation with the pronunciation anxiety scale. On the basis of these data, it may be possible to consider that there is some validity in the proposed extension of the foreign language anxiety construct. Questions may be asked as to whether pronunciation anxiety is not simply tapping into the same construct as oral communication anxiety however, the correlations between the two scales are only moderate and a figure much higher would be expected if this were the case.

However, it should be reiterated that the teachers who comprised the sample for this study did not report experiencing high levels of anxiety, in fact, the opposite was true.

Table 7

Correlation analysis of pronunciation anxiety and foreign language anxiety (N=100)

		Oral communication anxiety	Self-perception of proficiency	Fear of negative evaluation
Pronunciation Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	**.604****	**-.556****	**.584****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.001	.001

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

The Relationships among the Scales: Regression Analyses

Whilst bivariate correlation analysis provides statistical evidence of connections between scales and offers numerical data regarding the strength of any association, it is important to note that it offers indications of the associations between the constructs. It is not possible from the data to infer information concerning the nature of these relationships with regard to the direction of influence or cause and effect. In contrast, regression analysis provides linear evidence regarding the effect of one, or more, constructs on a specified scale. It is then possible to ascertain not only the direction of influence but also the full extent of its ability to affect the dependent construct. In other words, the results can show which variables contribute to the existence of the highlighted scale and also how much of its existence is as a result of their influence. In order to glean further useful data with regard to the relationships between the scales of this study and to gain a deeper understanding of the teachers' motivation, multiple regression analysis was carried out using motivated language teaching

behaviour as the dependent variable and each of the other scales as independent variables (see Table 9).

Table 9

Linear regression analysis with motivated language teaching behaviour as a dependent scale (N=100)

Variable	**Final Model**		
	B	**SE B**	**β**
Present teaching experience	.56	.05	.73*
Self-perception of proficiency	.22	.07	.25*
R^2		.58	

* p<.01

The results highlight that present teaching experience may account for as much as 52.6% of motivated language teaching behaviour. This may be considered as a partial match with the hypothesis of Dörnyei & Ushioda (2010) who suggested that the intrinsic dimension of motivation would constitute the largest influence on the motivation to teach. In addition to this, the work of Menyhárt (2008) identified links between intrinsic motivation and teaching motivation and furthermore, Kőhalmi (2009) found evidence that intrinsic motivation exerts the strongest influence on motivated language teaching behaviour. It is interesting to note the complete absence of other motivational facets, such as the ideal self, from the results which indicates that the findings of this study do not concur with the work of Csizér and Kormos (2009) and Gasniuk (2012), who found that the ideal self had the greatest influence on motivated learning behaviour. As a result, it can be seen that the motivational profile the language teacher differs from that of the language learner and therefore, previous findings

from learner-based research may not be applicable to the teacher. This not only offers evidence that the teachers may be considered as language users, as opposed to learners, but also offers justification for further research into this area.

In addition to present teaching experience, self-perception of proficiency is seen to account for as much as a further 4.5% of motivated language teaching behaviour. It is perhaps surprising that it is this and not self-efficacy which appears to have a direct effect on the teachers' motivation given the previously mentioned hypotheses of the links between self-efficacy and motivation. However, it would seem that the teachers are more motivated by a general belief in their ability to use the language than by a specific domain of belief in their competence to teach it. As a result, it appears that the respondents are driven primarily by the rewards of helping their students to improve their English language skills and to a lesser extent, the belief in their own linguistic ability. This is clearly a complex area which is made even denser by the use of differing motivational theories in previous research. Whilst there are theoretical links between concepts such as intrinsic motivation and present teaching behaviour, these should in no way be seen as representing the same concepts as only partial similarities exist. As a result, it is problematic to draw direct links between previous studies using alternate motivational theories and this investigation.

Once the primary influences had been identified, further linear regression analysis was carried out in order to identify secondary level influences. Present teaching experience was utilised as the dependent variable as it had been shown to be responsible for the largest degree of variance in motivated language teaching behaviour, and all of the remaining scales (with the exception of motivated teaching behaviour) were then selected as independent variables (see Table 10). The results show that the greatest determinant in levels of present teaching experience is oral communication anxiety, which may account for up to 39.4% of the variance.

This may offer valuable insight into the non-native teacher as it shows that more than one third of their experience is dictated by their anxiety regarding speaking or listening. It is noteworthy that the respondents to this study reported experiencing low levels of foreign language anxiety which reduces any potentially debilitating effects of the influence now attributed to oral communication anxiety. As a result, further research may be necessary to investigate the resulting effect on motivation which may be exerted by an increase in oral communication anxiety.

The second scale which has the capacity to exert its influence on present teaching experience is the ideal self, which may account for as much as 3.9% of the variance. Contrary to the findings of Csizér and Kormos (2009) and Gasniuk (2012) who argue for the pivotal role of the ideal self in motivated learning behaviour, it seems that its role is diminished in the non-native teacher. It may be that the teachers are still exhibiting signs of their inner desire to improve and become better teachers and that this is having an effect on their present experiences. It is perhaps interesting to see that this role is only at a secondary level in terms of overall motivated language teaching behaviour and that it is subservient to present teaching experience.

Table 10

Linear regression analysis of present teaching experience as a dependent scale (N=100)

Variable	**Final Model**		
	B	**SE B**	**β**
Oral communication anxiety	-.66	.08	-.63*
Ideal self	.24	.10	.22*
R^2		.43	

* $p<.01$

Finally, in order to complete the regression path model, self-perception of proficiency was subjected to regression analysis. This was because, along with present teaching experience, it had been shown to be a direct influence on levels of motivated language teaching behaviour. As a result, self-perception of proficiency was selected as the dependent variable and the remaining scales inserted as independent variables (now with the exception of both motivated language teaching behaviour and present teaching experience). The results show that self-perception of proficiency is influenced by four variables (see Table 11). The largest influence is exerted by fear of negative evaluation which is responsible for up to 59.2% of the variability in self-perception of proficiency. This is followed by oral communication anxiety which may result in as much as 9.6% of the difference. These data serve as justification of the work of Horwitz et al. (1986) and their model of foreign language classroom anxiety as it can be seen that two of its three composite elements are in a direct causal relationship. Furthermore, the results help to extend the relevance of this model to the domain of the non-native English language teacher. It seems that the teachers' beliefs in their abilities as educators and users of English are strongly affected by their fear of negative evaluation and that this belief, in turn, can influence their motivated language teaching behaviour. In addition to this, self-efficacy is responsible for as much as 2.35% of the difference in self-perception of proficiency and this offers further weight to the argument for further investigation to be conducted into these inter-related constructs. As previously stated, it may seem intuitive that the more domain specific self-efficacy might feed into the more general self-perception of proficiency but these results offer evidence for this hypothesis. It is further noteworthy that evidence that self-efficacy seems to be feeding into the respondents' experiences of anxiety is consistent with previous studies (Erkan & Saban, 2011; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Pappamihiel, 2002). However, the results of those studies argued for

the existence of strong links between self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety as a whole. It can be seen here that the degree of influence is relatively small and it could not be claimed that it is a dominant element. Finally, the ideal self shows that it is accountable for up to 1.8% of the variance in self-perception of proficiency. Given that the ideal self represents the language user that the individual wishes to become and self-perception of proficiency represents the individual's current assessment of their ability in the L2, this finding partially confirms the work of Higgins (1987). In his self-discrepancy theory, Higgins (1987) states that it is the distance between one's own perception of their ability and their ideal self which is the root of anxious behaviour and this influence can be seen here in the results.

Table 11

Linear regression analysis of self-perception of proficiency as a dependent scale (N=100)

Variable	**Final Model**		
	B	**SE B**	**β**
Fear of negative evaluation	-.62	.05	-.77*
Oral communication anxiety	-.40	.07	-.43*
Self-efficacy	.22	.08	.22*
Ideal self	.15	.06	.15*
R^2		.73	

* $p<.01$

The final path model shows that the respondents of this investigation are not only reporting that over 50% of their motivated language teaching behaviour is as a direct result of their present teaching experience but also that this experience is fundamentally influenced by the three constituent elements of foreign language anxiety as represented here by oral communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and self-perception of proficiency (see

Figure 1). The data provide further evidence of the links between these three anxiety constructs and offer a view of the chain of causation which affects the motivated language teaching behaviour of the non-native English teacher. As a result, the low levels of anxiety expressed by the sample are not only linked to their high levels of motivation, they are partially responsible for them. This disagrees with previous conceptualisations (Gardner, 2006; Papi, 2010) which have hypothesised that the reverse is true and that motivation influences levels of foreign language anxiety. As a result, it may be necessary to reconceptualise the inter-relationships between these individual difference variables for the domain of non-native English language tuition. One possible result of this is that reducing levels of foreign language anxiety may be more fundamental to ensuring motivated language teaching behaviour than previously realised.

Finally, the ideal self and oral communication anxiety appear twice as influential variables, directly affecting both present teaching experience and self-perception of proficiency. This may be seen to underline the pervasive nature of the ideal self and whilst its importance is not felt directly on motivated language teaching behaviour, it still has a role to play in determining the levels of motivation. What seems to be clear is that the reality of the motivational experience for the non-native language teacher is different from that of the language learner and as such, the findings of this study offer additional insight into this complex situation which, it is hoped, may be of genuine value to the field.

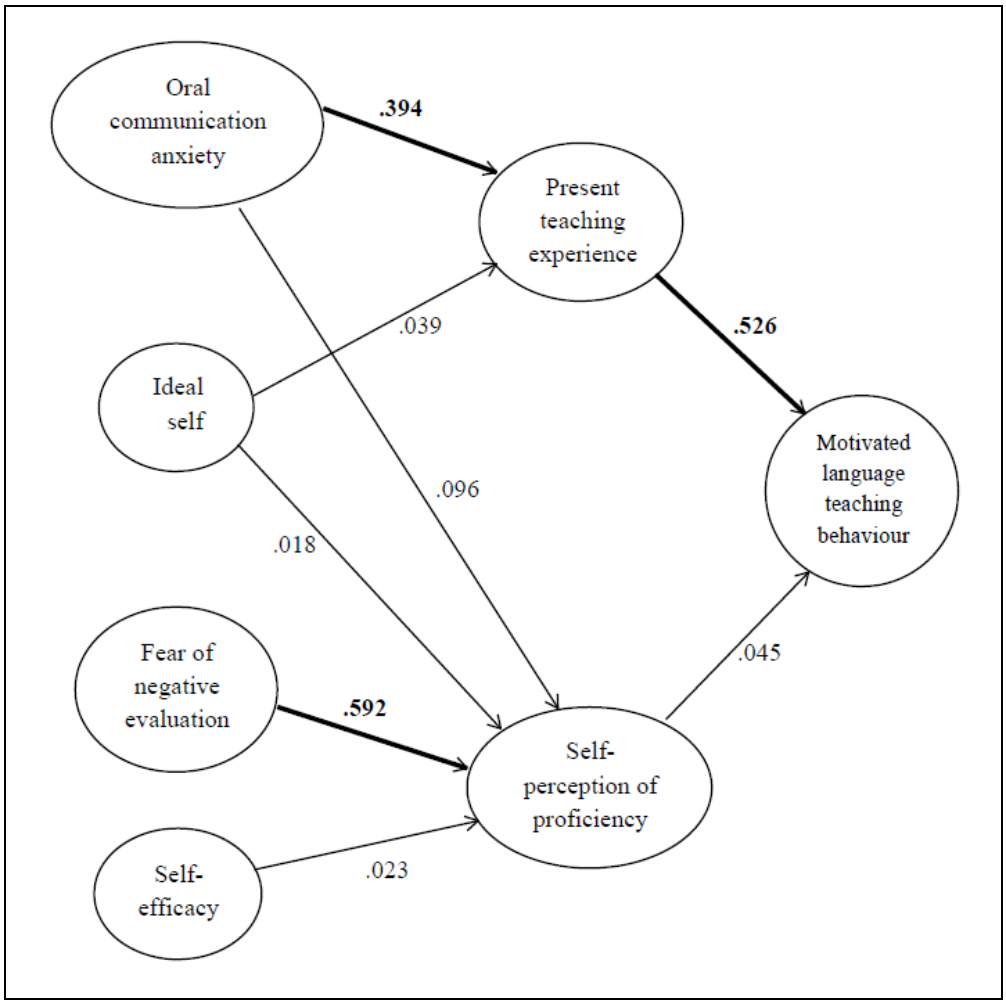

Figure 1. The final path model based on the results of regression analyses

Conclusion

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research question one.

Research question one asked whether Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self-system applies to non-native English language teachers, with the hypotheses being that (a) the items of the instrument would create internally reliable scales; and (b) that each of the individual

facets would be seen to contribute to motivated language teaching behaviour. The scales for the ideal self, present teaching experience and motivated language teaching behaviour were all above the minimum requirements for internal consistency, however, the scale for the ought-to self was not and as such could not be included in the remaining data analyses. As a result, the first hypothesis can only be partially confirmed.

With regard to the second hypothesis, the moderate to high positive correlations shown by motivated language teaching behaviour, present teaching experience, and the ideal self do indicate that these individual constructs are associated in some way. Despite this, linear regression modelling shows that whilst present teaching experience can be seen to be a primary influence on motivated language teaching behaviour, the ideal self is only indirectly responsible for any changes in the motivation to teach. Consequently, the second hypothesis cannot be confirmed for the teachers in this sample and it may be thus inferred that on the basis of this study, the L2 motivational self-system does not apply to non-native language teachers.

Research question two.

Research question two aimed to identify the relationships between motivation, self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety. The first hypothesis was that there would be evidence of a positive correlation between self-efficacy and motivation. The results of bivariate correlation analysis confirm the existence of these connections and therefore, the hypothesis. However, it should be noted that linear regression analysis rejects the notion that self-efficacy exerts a direct influence on motivated language teaching behaviour and its effects are seen indirectly as a secondary level influence.

Hypothesis two stated that a negative correlation exists between motivation and foreign language anxiety. This can be confirmed and therefore concurs with the findings of Piniel (2009) who argues for an inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and the L2 motivational self-system in secondary school students. The findings of this study provide further evidence of this negative correlational relationship and also provide an extension to incorporate the non-native English language teacher as well as their students. In addition to this, linear regression modelling shows that contrary to the work of Gardner (2006) whose socio-educational model argues for the existence of motivation as an influence on levels of language anxiety, the reality for the non-native language teacher is the opposite, with the three facets of foreign language anxiety directly, and indirectly, contributing to motivated language teaching behaviour.

The third hypothesis stipulated that a negative correlation would be found to exist between self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety. The results offer clear evidence and this can be confirmed. Furthermore, in the final path model, its influence is only seen as contributing to levels of self-perception of proficiency. This may be seen as partially confirming the work of Gahungu (2007) who argues that self-efficacy may have a moderating effect on anxiety.

Research question three.

Research question three asked whether the foreign language anxiety construct in its current form is able to fully reflect the reality of the non-native language teacher. It was theorised that an additional dimension of pronunciation anxiety might be required as the role of the teacher in the classroom is unlike that of the learner and brings additional pressures and

responsibilities. However, despite evidence of positive correlation between the constructs, linear regression provides no sign of pronunciation anxiety exerting a direct influence on any of the facets of foreign language anxiety at the levels tested. As such, the hypothesis can be rejected on the basis of insufficient evidence to prove otherwise and the status quo retained.

Summary of the Results

This study aimed to investigate the relationships between motivation, self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety, with a focus on non-native English language teachers in Hungary. The results have shown that the L2 motivational self-system cannot be validated as applying to the participants of this investigation. A lack of internal consistency resulted in the omission of the ought-to self from consideration and the ideal self was seen to be of only secondary influence on motivated teaching behaviour. However, present teaching experience has been seen to be a highly influential variable which accounts for a considerable percentage of the teachers' reported high levels of motivation to their chosen career.

It was also seen that the teachers' foreign language anxiety levels, although notably low in this study, are of great importance due to their highly influential nature on the respondents' motivated language teaching behaviour. Given that oral communication anxiety is able to exert such an effect on present teaching experience, attempts to reduce this may be more salient than has previously been realised. Furthermore, the study has shown that foreign language anxiety has an effect on motivation and not the reverse relationship which has previously been claimed by Gardner (2006). As a result, pre- and in-service training programs may need to be re-examined in order to ascertain whether they might be able to offer greater aid to teachers in targeting and mitigating anxiety inducing scenarios.

Finally, it was noted that whilst self-efficacy offers evidence of a positive correlation with motivated language teaching behaviour, it is not in a direct relationship, as hypothesised by Raoofi et al. (2012), and its influence is only seen as a result of its effect on self-perception of proficiency. It may be further noteworthy that these results offer evidence of a different reality for these teachers than that which has previously been recorded for language learners and as such may be seen as grounds for further research into the domain of the non-native language teacher.

Limitations of the Study and Future Research Directions

As with all research studies, difficult decisions had to be made in terms of scope and depth at each stage of the process. Although attempts were made to procure a valid and unified sample which would be representative of the non-native teachers currently employed in the schools of Budapest, the convenience sampling and self-selection elements of the data collection procedure may raise questions as to whether the attempts were successful. Furthermore, the limited size of the sample, only one hundred teachers, may also be seen to be too few to be truly representative of the capital city of Hungary. In addition to this, factor analysis of the scales used in the instrument may have been able to shed further light on the results and give further credence to their interpretation. Given the internal consistency values and the limitations that come with page limits for MA theses, a choice had to be made regarding which statistical analyses to pursue. Finally, the lack of scientific rigour of the ought-to self construct is regrettable, though it might not be considered a critical weakness in terms of the results offered by the other facets of the L2 motivational self-system. Irrespective of this, it is recommended that further work is needed on the items which constitute the ought-

to self scale in order to improve its internal consistency and address its lack of scientific integrity.

Further research into this area could be broadened to include each of the remaining constructs of the foreign language anxiety scale for teachers (FLAST) in order to provide further depth of knowledge regarding language anxiety in the classroom and to include a contrastive study with teachers from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In addition to this, future studies could incorporate task or skills specific measures of self-efficacy in order to offer a more detailed view of the teacher's self-beliefs. Studies which investigate the links between foreign language classroom anxiety and motivated language teaching behaviour utilising alternate motivational theories, such as self-determination theory, might also provide more information regarding the interplay between these two individual variables. In addition to this, research could be conducted in order to investigate the reality of the teachers' interlinked professional and L2 selves (as highlighted in the research methods). Furthermore, this study has highlighted the difficulties in isolating self-efficacy and self-perception of proficiency and further work needs to be done in order to explore this complex issue. As previously stated in the literature review, it has thus far, been assumed that self-efficacy is inherently linked to the motivational construct in some manner yet the results of this study show its effects being felt directly on language anxiety, in particular on self-perception of proficiency, and only indirectly on motivation. Other approaches to future studies might include a longitudinal study which aims to ascertain the changes in motivated language teaching behaviour across a school term, or academic year, as this might prove to be of greater benefit than studies which are only able to provide a glimpse of a temporary reality. Given the wide variety of variables which may interact on a teacher throughout longer periods of time, it would be of value to gain a deeper understanding of how these affect their motivated language

teaching behaviour. Finally, a qualitative investigation aiming to explore the experiences of the non-native teacher may shed further light on their motivational profiles and offer new directions for future studies. Whilst it may be true that there has, as yet, only been a limited amount of research which aims to examine this area, there is no shortage of potential avenues for future research and it is hoped that the results of any such studies may further help to improve the conditions of the working teacher.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire for Hungarian English teachers

I'd like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions concerning foreign language teaching and learning. This is not a test in any way so there are no "*right*" or "*wrong*" answers and you're not required to write your name on it. I'm interested in your personal opinions not what you think the answer should be. Please be as honest as possible when answering as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Lastly, thank you very much for your help.

In this section, there are a number of statements which some people agree with and some people don't. I'd like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings or situation. After each statement you'll find five boxes. Using a pen (not a pencil), please put an 'X' in the box which best expresses how true the statement is about your feelings or situation.

Here is an example: If you like pizza very much, you would place an 'X' in the first box:

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
I like pizza very much.	X				

Remember, there are no right or wrong answers – I am interested in your personal opinion.

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
1. I feel inhibited when speaking in English.					
2. It is important to teach English well.					
3. I worry that I am not able to provide my students with an acceptable model of English connected speech (e.g. Assimilation/Elision/Liaison/etc.).					
4. It is very important for me to teach English.					
5. I am not willing to enter into free conversation in class for fear my lack of proficiency is revealed.					
6. I am satisfied with my English listening ability.					
7. It is very important for me that my students succeed in learning English to the best of their ability.					
8. I think that I am fluent enough in English.					
9. I don't feel uncertain when monitoring my students' speaking for mistakes.					
10. I like working with my students.					
11. I am satisfied with my English reading ability.					
12. I am sure that I can answer any questions my students may ask about English grammar.					

Have you answered all the questions? Thank you. *Simon Ness 2012*

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
13. If I teach English well, I will achieve the recognition of my colleagues.					
14. I am sure I that I can teach English to students from any first language background.					
15. I am satisfied with my English writing ability.					
16. I am afraid to make mistakes in the classroom.					
17. I am willing to work hard at teaching English.					
18. I am sure that I will still be an English teacher in ten years' time.					
19. I am afraid that some of my students' parents may think my English is not good enough.					
20. I enjoy teaching English.					
21. The things I want to do in the future require me to continually improve my English.					
22. It is important that I am respected in the staff room.					
23. I would like to be able to teach English to people from other countries.					
24. I worry that my listening skills may cause problems when communicating in English.					
25. I am sure that I can teach English to students of all levels of ability (from A1-C2).					
26. I am afraid that some of my colleagues may think my English is not good enough.					
27. I worry that my English sentence intonation patterns are negatively influenced by my mother tongue.					
28. If I fail to improve my English teaching skills, I'll be letting my students down.					
29. I am sure I am able to fully express myself in English.					
30. I am sure that I can answer any questions my students may ask about English vocabulary.					
31. I worry that my English sentence pronunciation is negatively influenced by my mother tongue.					
32. I look forward to my English classes.					
33. I would like to be mistaken for a native speaker.					
34. I believe I wouldn't have problems working in a native English speaking environment.					
35. I would like to think of myself as someone who will be able to speak English as close to native-like proficiency as possible.					

Have you answered all the questions? Thank you. *Simon Ness 2012*

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
36. I think I speak English better than the average non-native English teacher.					
37. I worry that my English pronunciation of words is negatively influenced by my mother tongue.					
38. If a professional development course were offered by my school and it didn't involve additional working hours or personal expense, I would like to take it.					
39. I worry when I have to pronounce new English words.					
40. I worry that my pronunciation may be worse than I realise.					
41. Teaching English is fun.					
42. I often get inspired by my students.					
43. I am afraid that my students think I do not speak English well enough.					
44. I am sure that my English language teaching ability continues to improve.					
45. If my dreams come true, I will be able to teach English even more effectively in the future.					
46. I am not satisfied with my ability to understand different English accents.					
47. I would like to think of myself as someone who will be able to write English as close to native-like proficiency as possible.					
48. I am willing to provide relevant additional support for my students in order that they can succeed.					
49. I don't feel uncertain when marking my students' writing.					
50. I am not satisfied with my English pronunciation.					
51. I like designing tasks for my students.					
52. If I fail to improve my English teaching skills, I'll be letting other people down (not including your students).					
53. I don't feel confident when speaking English.					
54. I am afraid that my students will ask me how to say something I do not know in English.					
55. I worry that what I want to say may not be fully understood when communicating in English.					
56. I am satisfied with my English speaking ability.					
57. If I teach English well, it can positively affect my students' career opportunities.					

Have you answered all the questions? Thank you. *Simon Ness 2012*

	Absolutely true	Mostly true	Partly true, partly untrue	Not really true	Not true at all
58. I am sure that I can teach English to students of all ages.					
59. I worry about teaching some of the more advanced areas of English for fear I may make mistakes.					
60. The quality of my teaching is acknowledged in my school.					
61. I am sure that I can teach English in any context (e.g. children/adults/business/exams/legal English/financial English/etc.).					
62. I try to avoid situations where I have to speak English.					

That's the end of the main section. You're almost finished now, just a few questions left.

Finally, please answer these few personal questions. Remember that all information provided is both anonymous and confidential.

63. What is your gender? (Please circle): Male Female

64. How old are you? (Please circle): 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+

65. What is your first language? (Please circle): Hungarian Spanish Other: _____

66. Which other languages do you speak? Please also indicate your level of ability for each language (A1 - C2).

_____

67. Which teaching qualifications you have? (Please circle):

BA MA PHD CELTA DELTA Other: _____

68. How many complete years have you been teaching English? (Please only include time spent working as a teacher): _____

69. Which type of school do you currently work for? (Please circle):

általános iskola kéttannyelvű általános iskola gimnázium

kéttannyelvű gimnázium szakközépiskola főiskola egyetem

70. What is the highest level that you currently teach? (Please circle):

A1 A2 B1 B2 C1 C2

71. Have you ever lived in an English speaking country? (Please circle): Yes No

Please specify where and for how long: _____

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this investigation, your time and patience is much appreciated.

Have you answered all the questions? Thank you. *Simon Ness 2012*