

What do we want teaching-materials for in EFL teacher training programs? ¹

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Abstract

During the past several decades, scholarly consideration has focused on the concept of teacher knowledge and a variety of reform efforts to rethink both the structure and practices of teacher education to enhance teacher preparation process. As a consequence, the tripartite knowledge base of EFL teacher training is built on the partnership between universities and schools to support student teachers' language competence, pedagogical knowledge, and teaching competency. Within this framework, one strand of enquiry has focused on the role of teaching materials in EFL teacher education; however, literature reveals few insights into how to evaluate and select teaching materials and sources of knowledge for each component of the knowledge base. In order to address this problem, this paper reviews the knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher training program and the types of input content that support such knowledge/competency, and suggests some criteria for evaluating teaching materials according to theoretical/practical underpinnings of teacher education (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006).

Key words: EFL teacher training; teaching materials; materials evaluation

1. Introduction

Input, knowledge, skill, and competency are terms that educators have used over time to specify the essence of 'what' teacher education programs provide student teachers with. Two general trends are extensively documented and researched in literature to describe this content: *what* teachers should know to be qualified to teach a subject and *how* they actually learn to teach it.

The division between theoretical and practical knowledge is well framed in the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge (Woods, 1996):

Declarative knowledge is knowledge *about* teaching- knowledge of subject areas and the ‘theory’ of education; procedural knowledge is knowledge of *how* to teach- knowledge of instructional routines to be used in the classroom (MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001, p. 950).

A number of language educators (Day, 1993; Fradd & Lee, 1998; Ur, 1997; Freeman, 1989, 2002; Morain, 1990) have broadly discussed the definition of professional knowledge and its significant role in EFL teacher education. Central to these discussions is the idea that there is a close connection between the dichotomy of declarative/procedural knowledge and specification of objectives, content, and outcome of EFL teacher education programs (Lightbown, 1985; Richards & Nunan, 1990; MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001). Within this framework, one strand of enquiry has focused on the role of teaching materials in developing teachers’ declarative and procedural knowledge (e.g., Borg, 2007; Goker, 2006; Day, 1993; Freeman, 1989, 2002). However, there is a dearth of research into the issue of materials evaluation and selection for teacher education programs. The focus of this paper is to find out more about teaching materials which best suit the knowledge base of EFL teacher education so as to:

- discover the role of teaching materials as sources of knowledge and skills in EFL teacher training programs, and
- suggest some criteria to evaluate such materials for their suitability and beneficiality.

2. The knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher education

During the past several decades, scholarly consideration has focused on the concept of teachers’ professional knowledge and a variety of reform efforts to rethink both the structure and practices of teacher education (Sandlin, Young, & Karge, 1992) to enhance teacher preparation process (Shulman, 1987; Woods, 1996; Fenstermacher, 1994; Valli & Tom, 1988; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001).

Traditionally, teacher education is “characterized by a strong emphasis on theory that is ‘transferred’ to teachers in the form of lectures” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p.

1021). Professional knowledge is defined as ‘learning about teaching’ and is presented to student teachers through a collection of courses on content knowledge and pedagogy. Almost all parts of teacher education programs take place in the university or teacher education center and the only bridge to practice comes “in observing teachers and in practicing classroom teaching” (Freeman, 2002, p. 73). The knowledge-transmission view towards teacher education has been under consistent scrutiny for its many problems and limitations. This is primarily due to the fact that the knowledge base of university-based teacher education is incapable of filling the gap between ‘theory’ as it is treated in teacher education programs and the knowledge and skills of experienced teachers, ‘competency’, at schools. Drawing on research-presented evidence, educators have redefined professional knowledge and the relationship between theory and practice within the context of teacher education (ten Dam & Blom, 2006; Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006).

The educational reform to reformulate the knowledge base of teacher education thus has focused on a shift from learning about teaching to learning how to teach and from ‘knowledge for teachers’ to “knowledge of teachers” (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p. 443). The term knowledge base refers to “the entire repertoires of skills, information, attitudes, etc. that teachers need to carry out their classroom responsibility” (Valli & Tom, 1988, p. 5). The main learning goal for such teacher-training programs is *becoming a good teacher*. Schelfhout et al. (2006) believe that to produce good teachers, teacher education programs should prepare student teachers to be able to:

- master the content knowledge of the discipline they are specialized to teach
- have skills and knowledge about teaching/learning in order to teach properly
- work in school contexts
- notice any shortcomings in their teaching and constantly try to improve it
- take on a broader pedagogical and moral responsibility

This constructivist view to the process of teacher education demands a new look at the relationship between teaching and learning (Manouchehri, 2002). The value of a knowledge base, thus, lies both in the conversion of information to understanding and the appropriate application of knowledge in a variety of contexts (Fradd & Lee, 1998). The assumption that teachers construct their own knowledge on the basis of experience highlights the role of schools

in teacher education programs and “opens the door to organizing teacher education according to the principle of learning through participation in real, meaningful practices” (ten Dam & Blom, 2006, p. 649). Thus the focal point of teacher education becomes the collaboration between schools and universities and a balance between theoretical knowledge and practicing skills. The university provides student teachers with scientific concepts and the school supports and directs learners’ participation in professional practice, while both organizations work collectively.

On the basis of the partnership between universities and schools, language teacher educators have specified the knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher education programs (Fradd & Lee, 1998; Morain, 1990; Day & Conklin, 1992) and have proposed a tripartite including:

- knowledge of language: content knowledge, knowledge of the subject matter, English language
- knowledge of science of teaching and pedagogy: pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs, and practices; along with support knowledge, the knowledge of the various disciplines that would enrich teachers’ approach to the teaching and learning of English
- knowledge/competency of teaching in reality: pedagogical content knowledge, the specialized knowledge of how to represent content knowledge in the classroom and how students come to understand the subject matter in the context of real teaching; the students’ problems and ways to overcome those problems by considering all variables related to their learning (teaching materials, assessment procedures, parents, etc.)

To establish the knowledge/competency base, different types of teaching materials are used in teacher training programs. Teaching materials in general mean “any systematic description of the techniques and activities to be used in classroom teaching” (Brown, 1995, p. 139) and include various “experiences and activities by which, or as a result of which, the [teacher] learner develops knowledge of the profession” (Day, 1993, p. 2).

3. Teaching materials in EFL teacher training program

In his proposition of *professional knowledge source continuum* (Figure 1), Day (1993) clarifies the role of different types of sources of knowledge in EFL teacher training program. He discusses the types of activities by which or as a result of which, the student teachers can develop

either the declarative knowledge (at one end of the continuum) or the procedural knowledge (at the other end of the continuum) of teaching profession. “In between these two ends are a variety of activities that may, depending on their orientation, allow the learner to develop knowledge closer to one end or the other” (Day, 1993, p. 2).

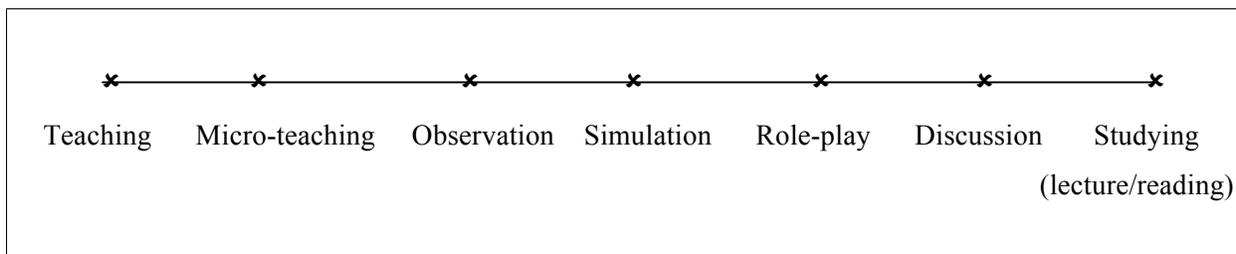


Figure 1- Professional knowledge source continuum (Day, 1993, p. 3)

Other language educators (Freeman, 1989, 2002; Bolitho, 1986; Ur, 1997; Richards & Nunan, 1990) have also discussed the importance of the input to distinguish between teacher education and teacher training. Teacher development is more involved with in-service teacher education, it relies more on teachers’ personal experiences and background knowledge as the basis of the input content, and its typical teacher development activities include “teacher study groups, practitioner research, or self-development activities” (Freeman, 2002, p. 76). The outcome is generally evaluated through self-assessment techniques like reflective thinking and journal writing. On the other hand, the teacher training process is mostly viewed as a pre-service strategy, its content is generally defined externally, and the input content is presented through conventional processes such as lectures, readings, and observations; or participant-oriented processes such as project work and case studies. The outcome of the instruction would be evaluated through academic display techniques like exams, term papers, or sample teachings.

In accordance with the defined knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher training program within partnership framework, the whole teaching preparation program is designed in three components: language component, science component, and practicum component.

3.1. Language component

Language proficiency is one of the most essential characteristics of a good language teacher (Brown, 2001; Cullen, 2001) and “has indeed constituted the bedrock of the professional confidence of non-native English teachers” (Candido de Lima, 2001, p. 145). The language

component thus aims at improving the content knowledge, i.e., student teachers' general knowledge of English, or their communicative competence. The courses offered here may focus on developing teacher learners' English language proficiency (courses on listening-comprehension, conversation, writing, reading, vocabulary and idioms, grammar, and pronunciation) or providing insights into Western culture (literature courses). To attain such goals, two types of teaching materials can be used: teacher-made teaching materials such as photocopied pamphlets, drama, and games; or commercially prepared materials like textbooks, audio/video tapes, educational software, etc. These teaching materials serve the following purposes (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 7):

- A source for presentation material (written or spoken)
- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- A reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on
- A source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities
- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)

3.2. Science component

From a theoretical perspective, EFL teachers require specialized knowledge about language, teaching theories and beliefs, and pedagogy. The courses offered in this component aim at providing student teachers with methodological and pedagogical knowledge (courses on teaching methodology, testing, research methods), supplying knowledge about language(s) (courses on linguistics), and supporting knowledge from other disciplines in applied linguistics (courses on sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, etc.).

The content of scientific information is conventionally given to student-teachers through lectures, readings (teacher-made or commercially prepared), or discussions (Freeman, 2002). Generally, the readings are provided and recommended by teacher trainers. Teacher-made sources of knowledge are mostly in the form of pamphlets or handouts and contain summaries of important points. The content of the scientific information can also be found in scientifically prepared reading materials such as journals, reference books, and textbooks.

3.3. Practicum component

From a practical perspective, EFL teachers have to acquire proper skills and knowledge to learn how to teach in a real context, the school setting. “Learning to participate in the social and cultural practices with regard to education is assumed to be crucial for developing a professional identity as a teacher” (ten Dam & Blom, 2006, p. 647). The courses offered in this component thus focus on the development and expansion of practical knowledge of schools (e.g., the learners and their characteristics, teaching materials, assessment, parents) through observation, socialization, and interaction.

Recently, under the influence of social constructivism, teacher educators and researchers have addressed the issue of teaching materials and techniques more seriously to empower student teachers pedagogically and provide them with greater understanding of professional practice (Edge, 1991; Fosnot, 1996; Goker, 2006; Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006; Schelfhout, et al., 2006). From among the processes that help practice teaching are the constructivist techniques including reflective thinking (e.g., Lee, 2005), portfolios (e.g., Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2007), and peer coaching (e.g., Goker, 2006).

4. Materials evaluation in EFL teacher training programs

4.1. Language component

One of the central issues that has been a matter of contention among educators for a long time is whether to use teacher-made teaching materials, the anti-textbook view (Crawford, 1990; Walz, 1989; Kramsch, 1987), or commercially prepared teaching materials, the pro-textbook view (Brown, 2001; Allwright, 1981; Daloglu, 2004) in language classes. Within this framework, Harwood (2005) studied various anti-textbook arguments in the literature and made a distinction between strong and weak anti-textbook views. According to this proposition, the strong view advocates the abandonment of any type of commercially prepared materials in language classes while the weak view “finds materials in their current state to be unsatisfactory in some way, but has no problem with the textbook in principle” (Harwood, 2005, p. 150). In other words, the weak anti-textbook view holds that teaching materials should be selected carefully through evaluative reviews “founded on understanding of the rationale of language teaching and learning and backed up by practical experience” (Cunningsworth, 1984, p.74). As a consequence, several criteria such as program goals and objectives, theory of language, theory of learning, learners’

needs, and cultural issues have to be taken into account in the process of materials evaluation/selection (Cunningsworth, 1995; Garinger, 2001, 2002; Robinett, 1978) for a language course.

4.2. Science and practicum components

Although the issue of teaching materials for teacher education has been well documented in teacher education research (e.g., Bolitho, 1986; Edge, 1991; Fenstermacher, 1994; ten Dam & Blom; 2006; Schelfhout et al., 2006; Lee, 2005; Manouchehri, 2002) and even recently has been recognized by language teacher educators as having enormous influence on the future development of language teachers (e.g., Borg, 2007; Freeman, 2002; Goker, 2006; Nunan & Lamb, 1996), not many detailed studies (e.g., Bax, 1995) outlining the criteria to evaluate teaching materials for developing teachers' knowledge of science and pedagogy (the second component) and competency of teaching in reality (the third component) have been documented in EFL teacher education literature. The definition and application of systematic criteria for evaluative reviews would let teacher educators and researchers judge the potential benefits and limitations of teaching materials for the specified knowledge base of EFL teacher training programs.

Due to the fact that language component and science/practicum components are different with respect to goals, knowledge base, and input content, the criteria proposed by language educators to evaluate teaching materials for language courses (e.g., Cunningsworth, 1995; Garinger, 2002; Robinett, 1978) are not suitable to be used for evaluative purposes in the second and third components of EFL teacher training programs. Evidence (Rahimi & Mosallanejad, 2007) supports the fact that more than half of these criteria are inappropriate or irrelevant for evaluating teaching materials developed for science and practicum components of EFL teacher-training programs and should be replaced by other criteria.

5. The basis of the criteria

As mentioned earlier, teaching materials suggested for developing teachers' professional knowledge (e.g., Borg, 2007; Schon, 1987; Lee, 2005; Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2007; Goker, 2006; Day, 1993; Schelfhout, et al. 2006; Freeman, 1989, 2002) have to undergo evaluative reviews to ensure "that careful selection is made and that the materials

selected closely reflect the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program” (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.7). This consideration raises the issue of setting systematic criteria to judge appropriateness of materials for their “true purpose, that is, to help learners to learn effectively” (Jordan, 1997, p. 138).

To this end, I scrutinized seven principles recently proposed by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006). Their proposed principles are driven from analyzing realistic examples of teacher education programs to find a shared professional language among teacher educators and suggest guidelines and possibilities to reconstruct teacher education from within. Their principles are:

- Principle 1: learning about teaching involves continuously conflicting and competing demands (both theory and practice)
- Principle 2: learning about teaching requires a view of knowledge as a subject to be created rather than as a created subject
- Principle 3: learning about teaching requires a shift in focus from the curriculum to the learner
- Principle 4: learning about teaching is enhanced through (student) teacher research
- Principle 5: learning about teaching requires an emphasis on those learning to teach working closely with their peers
- Principle 6: learning about teaching requires meaningful relationships between schools, universities and student teachers
- Principle 7: learning about teaching is enhanced when the teaching and learning approaches advocated in the program are modeled by the teacher educators in their own practice

According to Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006), these fundamental principles “shape teacher education programs and practices in ways that are responsive to the expectations, needs and practices of teacher educators and student teachers” (p. 1022). Thus it is arguable that they can form the foundation of evaluation criteria to judge the suitability of teaching materials for a responsive teacher education. To support this argument, I have suggested some criteria, by adapting the above-mentioned principles, for materials evaluation/selection in the second and third components of EFL teacher education programs.

Below the suggested principles and their significant role in materials evaluation/selection are discussed under four main topics: (1) aims and objectives of EFL teacher training program with regard to the knowledge/competency base, (2) student teacher's role, (3) cultural issues, and (4) teacher trainer's role.

5.1. Aims and objectives of EFL teacher training program (the knowledge/competency base)

Principle 1. Teaching materials should focus on both theory and practice.

Learning about teaching involves focusing on “how to learn from experience and on how to build professional knowledge” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1025). To construct such knowledge and competency both theory and practice are important in teacher training program and have their own respective roles. An important goal of teacher education, then, should be to establish links between these two key elements. Teacher educators believe that approaches that value both teachers' practical knowledge and formal theories as relevant components of the knowledge base of teaching might enhance the quality of both in the process of teacher preparation (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001).

Although SLA theory has “either a direct or indirect effect on the instructional routines and procedures of language teaching” (MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001, p. 252), inclusion of theory in the program should be done with care. Student teachers expect from a course “instant panaceas, rigid rules of thumb, clear statements of practice, and absolute generalizations” (Brumfit, 1983, p. 60); and “definitions, rules, and absolutes” (Brown, 1983, p. 54). Thus teacher education process has to integrate theoretical principles with teaching competencies in order to deepen student teachers' professional knowledge and develop “skills and knowledge with which student teachers can contribute to a culture of professional cooperation in schools” (Schelfhout et al., 2006, p. 875).

Principle 2: Teaching materials should let learners construct the knowledge by theory-creating processes

The knowledge of learning about teaching has to be viewed as a subject to be created rather than as a created subject. “The teacher educators should actively create situations that elicit wish for self-directed theory building in their students” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1027). Teacher education programs should foster group processes in which student teachers together

work creatively on theories of teaching and generalize teaching knowledge through inductive approaches (Schelfhout et al., 2006). Examples of research already exist in which using teaching practice as a basis for discussing educational approaches and the theoretical rationales for them could lead to a change in prior conceptions (Fosnot, 1996) and to greater satisfaction with the relevance of teacher training and educational theory to later practice (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006; Schelfhout et al., 2006).

5.2. Student teacher's role

Principle 3: Teaching materials should consider an active role for student teachers

Student teachers should experience various aspects of teaching by effectively influencing the learning process. “The learning of student teachers is only meaningful and powerful when it is *embedded in the experience* of learning to teach” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1029). Teacher education process has to create opportunities for teacher learners to construct knowledge by genuinely participating in teaching experiences and actively leading the learning process rather than remaining passive recipients.

“To fully illuminate the dynamics of a teaching situation, student teachers need opportunities to understand what is involved in planning the teaching, doing the teaching, and reflecting on the teaching” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1029). This can be achieved when student teachers are actively engaged in performing tasks, participating in activities, and directing and influencing the whole process of learning and teaching.

Principle 4: Teaching materials should provide learners with opportunities for self-researching and researching on teaching issues

Teacher training program should provide opportunities for student teachers to direct their own professional development by researching their own teaching. Student teachers can research their teaching through reflective practices, case methodology, narrative enquiry, and peer discourse. The aim of all these techniques for pre-service teachers is to learn new ideas better and sustain professional growth after leaving the program.

Moreover, student teachers should be involved in research projects on teaching issues. Research-engaged teachers “generate a greater understanding of specific issues in teaching and learning” (Borg, 2007, p.2), gain knowledge and skills “to theorize systematically and rigorously

about practice in different learning contexts” (Reid & O’Donoghue, 2004, p. 569), and take appropriate action on the basis of the outcomes of their enquiry to improve the quality of their own teachings.

Principle 5: Teaching materials should support collaborative peer-coaching learning/teaching

Learning to teach and developing classroom practice can be enhanced by peer-supported learning both in pre-service and in-service teacher education (McIntyre & Hagger, 1992). Research findings suggest that the use of peer collaboration and collaborative reflection has the potential to facilitate teacher development (Manouchehri, 2002) and “will help to bridge the gap between what is done in teacher education and what those learning to teach actually need in their future practice” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1034).

In peer coaching, teams of pre-service teachers regularly observe each other, exchange ideas, provide assistance and support, and try to understand their peers’ perspectives. The whole process help student teachers use skills learned during training in their future classes, to exchange feedback with peers and colleagues more actively, become more reflective teachers (Brown, 2001) and “develop the capacity to take on new perspectives and build new understanding about the profession” (Manouchehri, 2002, p. 717).

5.3. Cultural issues

Principle 6: Teaching materials should place a strong emphasis on contextual factors of the local culture

Student teachers have to receive regular input with respect to contextual factors of the local culture in which they are going to apply their professional knowledge. The input source can be the national syllabus which specifies the aims, content, methodology, and evaluation of the language program (Breen, 2002) for a particular group of learners in a social context; or the milieu, “the educational context, including the array of cultural, social, racial, and other groups to which students and teachers belong and in which they are embedded and which affects how they receive and negotiate the subject matter taught” (Kanun, 2005, p. 495).

It is important to note here that although the TESOL profession deals with an international language, the teacher education curriculum deals with national priorities (Fradd & Lee, 1998) and should undertake serious cultural analysis at the receiving end of cross-cultural knowledge

transfer. The reason is that though the incoming theories and models may be eminently suitable for the country of origin, they are questionable, sometimes even outright failures, in the developing countries (McLaughlin, 1996; O'Donoghue, 1994). The key point here is that within the process of curriculum design and materials development and evaluation certain factors such as the political climate, traditional beliefs, and cultural values of the local context should be taken into account (McLaughlin, 1996; O'Donoghue, 1994; Kanu, 2005; Zajda, 2004).

5.4. Teacher trainer's role

Principle 7: Teaching materials should provide opportunities for teacher trainers to model educational approaches in their teachings

Teacher educators have to model educational approaches and guidelines (they give to their learners) of how to teach (theory and practice) by making use of them in their own classes. Teacher trainers have to bear in mind that they have to “teach as they preach” (Schelfhout, et al. 2006, p. 879). Modeling educational approaches by teacher educators gives teacher learners a better insight into the importance of those teaching approaches, guides teacher learners how to exactly execute them in practice, and encourages student teachers to use them in their future teachings.

6. Conclusions

The basic goal of the traditional approach to teacher education is the transfer of theoretical knowledge (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006) from teacher trainers to student teachers through “processes of organized professional education” (Freeman, 2002, p. 73). This view to teacher knowledge is increasingly critiqued for its meager impact on practical skills teachers acquire in the classroom. For this reason, educational reforms have focused on rethinking the knowledge base of teacher education and the relationship between theory and practice.

Under the influence of constructivism and socio-cultural perspectives of learning, more attention now is given to the importance of the process and context of learning, interaction and socialization among learners, and self-construction of knowledge by teacher learners in the development of professional knowledge (Manouchehri, 2002; Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001; Schelfhout, et al. 2006) in teacher education. As a result of this, knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher education has been developing remarkably and rapidly on the basis of

collaborative teacher education and the partnership between universities and schools for the last three decades (Freeman, 1989, 2002; Fradd & Lee, 1998; Brown, 1995; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). In this framework a number of enquiries have discussed the issue of teaching materials and activities for developing student teachers' professional knowledge (e.g., Day, 1993; Goker, 2006; Borg, 2007). However, the issue of systematic evaluation of teaching materials and sources of information seems to remain intractable: which instructional materials best suit EFL teacher education programs and what criteria would be more beneficial to judge their appropriateness.

To address this matter, the present paper reviewed the content of EFL teacher education program, its knowledge/competency base, procedures utilized to present that knowledge/competency to student teachers, and the types of teaching materials that best suit this provision. Based on insights provided by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006), seven principles were suggested for evaluation/selection of teaching materials and sources of information in EFL teacher training programs.

The proposed principles support the fact that materials evaluation/selection is not a one-dimensional issue and is highly related to other components of teacher education program. The principles are beneficial for teacher trainers and materials developers in the process of materials evaluation and selection for EFL teacher training programs. They would also open up opportunities for EFL researchers to revisit the role of teaching materials in educating good EFL teachers.

Notes

¹ This article has borrowed its title from Allwright's (1981) and Harwood's (2005) articles.

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An Investigation on the Language Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Turkish EFL Learners

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Abstract

Teachers' observations, students' experiences, and the review of related literature indicate that language anxiety is a significant factor adversely affecting the language learning process. Thus, this study aims to investigate the sources and levels of fear of negative evaluation as well as language anxiety among Turkish students as EFL learners, and to determine the correlation between the two. A foreign language anxiety scale and a scale for fear of negative evaluation were administered to a sample group of 112 foreign language learners. The collected data were used to provide a descriptive and correlational analysis. The results of the analysis indicated that EFL learners suffer from language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Furthermore, fear of negative evaluation itself was found to be a strong source of language anxiety. In light of the findings of the research, the following recommendations were noted: Firstly, in order to cope with anxiety, learning situations and context should be made less stressful. Effective communication is another way to relieve language anxiety.

Key Words: Language Anxiety, Fear of Negative Evaluation, English as a foreign language

Introduction

According to Harmer (1991), some of the reasons to learn English as a foreign language are school curricula, need of advancement in professional life, living in a target community permanently or temporarily, interest in different cultures, and some other specific purposes. At

the end of the learning process, learners are usually expected to become proficient in several areas of the target language, such as pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, discourse, and language skills. On the other hand, it is obvious that the learning of English as a foreign language is closely and directly related to the awareness about certain individual differences, such as the beliefs, attitudes, aptitudes, motivations and affective states of learners. Among these variables, particularly language anxiety as an individual difference is an affective state seriously impeding achievement in a foreign language (Gardner, 1985). Hence, one of the purposes of the present study is to examine the sources and levels of language anxiety among EFL learners.

Anxiety as an affective state is defined as an uncomfortable emotional state in which one perceives danger, feels powerless, and experiences tension in the face an expected danger (Blau, 1955) and it can be classified into three types. *Trait anxiety*, a more permanent disposition to be anxious (Scovel, 1978), is viewed as an aspect of personality. *State anxiety* is an apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation (Spielberger, 1983). Finally, the last of the three types, *situation-specific anxiety* is related to apprehension unique to specific situations and events (Ellis, 1994). Language anxiety is a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Drawing upon the synthesis of previous research on foreign language anxiety, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) describe the concept as the apprehension experienced when a specific situation requires the use of a second language in which the individual is not fully proficient. To sum up, language anxiety falls under the category of situation-specific anxiety. Foreign language anxiety has three varieties. *Communication apprehension* occurs in cases where learners lack mature communication skills although they have mature ideas and thoughts. It refers to a fear of getting into real communication with others. *Test anxiety*, on the other hand, is an apprehension towards academic evaluation. It could be defined as a fear of failing in tests and an unpleasant experience held either consciously or unconsciously by learners in many situations. This type of anxiety concerns apprehension towards academic evaluation which is based on a fear of failure (Horwitz and Young, 1991). Finally, *fear of negative evaluation* is observed when foreign language learners feel incapable of making the proper social impression and it is an apprehension towards evaluations by others and avoidance of evaluative situations. The research also aims to investigate the levels and sources of fear of negative evaluation on the part of EFL learners, and

it focuses on the relationship between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among EFL learners.

The results of the previously conducted studies regarding foreign language anxiety indicate that personal and impersonal anxieties, learners' beliefs about learning a foreign language, teachers' beliefs about teaching a foreign language, classroom procedures and testing are among the main sources of anxiety (Young, 1991). Furthermore, a review of the related literature reveals that the level of language course, language skills, motivation, proficiency, teachers, tests, and culture (Bailey, 1983; Ellis and Rathbone, 1987; Young, 1990; Price, 1991; Sparks and Ganschow, 1991; Oxford, 1992) are other factors arousing anxiety. However, it should be noted that prior studies focused on the identification of foreign language anxiety. For instance, Horwitz (1986) developed the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLAS) to measure communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. The results of this study suggest that language anxiety is distinct from other types of anxiety. Furthermore, it was the study of Gardner, Moorcroft, and MacIntyre (1987) that distinguished language anxiety from others. The findings of the study conducted by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) aiming to measure the three types of language anxiety – i.e., communication apprehension, test-anxiety and fear of negative evaluation – demonstrated that communication anxiety includes fear of negative evaluation as well.

The findings of the previous studies also indicate that there exists a significant correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, an issue that has attracted little attention in language learning research (Kitano, 2001). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), fear of negative evaluation is triggered by the teacher as a fluent speaker and the classmates. Young (1991) argued that the reason why learners do not participate in the classroom activities is the fear of committing a verbal error. Similarly, Price's study (1991) indicated that learners are afraid of making pronunciation errors in classroom. Finally, speaking in front of their peers is another source of anxiety in learning a foreign language (Koch and Terrell, 1991).

A review of available literature indicates that related studies conducted in Turkey are too limited. The findings of one of these studies (Dalkılıç, 2001), which focused on the relationship between achievement and foreign language anxiety, showed that foreign language anxiety is a significant variable affecting learners' achievement. In another study (Koralp, 2005) aiming to investigate the anxiety levels of students and to determine the relationship among different types

of anxiety, it was discovered that there is a positive correlation between test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. While two other studies (Atay and Kurt, 2006, 2007) focused on the effects of peer feedback on writing anxiety, Öztürk and Çeçen (2007) investigated the effect of portfolio keeping on foreign language writing and suggested that portfolio keeping is a significant factor that alleviates anxiety. Finally, in a study conducted by Batumlu and Erden (2007), the relationship between language and anxiety was examined. The findings of this study suggest that there is a negative correlation between achievement and anxiety; whereas, the proficiency levels of learners and gender are not significant variables.

English as a foreign language is a must course in primary, secondary and higher education in Turkey. The number of EFL learners is approximately 11 million at primary, 6 million at secondary and vocational (Ministry of National Education, 2006), and 2 million students at higher schools (Turkish Statistics Institute, 2007). However, despite the vast number of EFL learners in Turkey, research activities on EFL issues, as was previously articulated, are too limited. To put it another way, it is not possible to draw general conclusions regarding the level of foreign language anxiety level and the relationship between fear of negative evaluation and foreign language anxiety. There are two basic reasons to call for investigation into foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among EFL learners. First, the related studies conducted in Turkey are too limited to draw general conclusions. As for the second reason, as was noted by Kitano (2001), fear of negative evaluation is an issue that has attracted little attention in language learning research. Accordingly, with these concerns in mind, this paper examines two research questions:

1. What are the sources and levels of foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among learners?
2. Is there a relationship between fear of negative evaluation and foreign language anxiety?

Method

The sample group of the study consisted of 112 students at the English Language Teaching Department (ELT) of Balıkesir University. The group included all the students enrolled in the department. Of all the participants, 19 (17%) were male and 93 (83%) were female students. The mean age of the participants was 20.7. The group consisted of 25 freshmen (22.3%), 28

sophomores, (25%), 27 juniors (24.1%), and 32 seniors (28.6%). All the participants were Turkish students with an advanced level of English. They all had previously studied English during their high school education and attended the ELT department after the Foreign Language Examination, an official selection and placement test administered before admitting students to the ELT departments in Turkey.

The instruments used to collect data consisted of a *questionnaire* interrogating the participants about their age, gender, and grades; a *foreign language anxiety scale* (FLAS) adapted from the FLAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986); and a *scale for fear of negative evaluation* (FNE) developed by Leary (1983). However, as the main focus of the research is the level of anxiety, and the relationship between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, the findings on the relationship between the subject and dependent variables are not relevant to the scope of the study. Thus, the findings concerning the subject variables investigated in the study were briefly presented. The FLAS contained 25 multiple-choice items that aimed to measure the degree of anxiety level while the scale of FNE included 12 multiple-choice items designed to assess the degree to which the participant experiences anxiety at the prospect of being negatively evaluated. The items in both the FLAS and the scale of FNE were answered within a scale ranging from one to five (*always*=5, *usually*=4, *sometimes*=3, *almost never*=2 and *never*=1).

The procedure of the study included the administration of the instruments and statistical analysis. The author administered the questionnaire, the FLAS, and the scale of FNE during the 10th week of Spring 2006 Semester. Subsequently, the collected data were analyzed using the SPSS software. In the process of analysis, first and foremost, the reliability coefficient of IAS in Cronbach's Alpha Model, a model of internal consistency based on the average inter-item correlation, was computed and compared to the coefficients found in previous studies. The reliability coefficients indicated that the scales of the FLA and FNE administered to measure the levels of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation display a high level of reliability. Speaking more specifically, the reliability coefficients were found to be 0.91 for FLAS and 0.93 for the scale of FNE. The scale developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) proved to be reliable with the coefficient of .93 in Alpha model and the test-retest coefficient of .83. As for the statistical analysis of the research questions, the data were examined under three subheadings: the means and standard deviations were computed to find the levels of the language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, as well as to examine the homogeneity of the group. Secondly, Pearson

correlations were calculated with their significance levels in order to determine the relationship between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Finally, t-test and ANOVA were computed to detect the correlations between the subject variables of age, gender, and grade and the dependent variables.

Results

The findings of the study were divided into three sub-sections: the level and sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, the relationship between the two and the relationship between subject and dependent variables. To put it another way, a descriptive and correlational presentation of the collected data has been provided. The descriptive data included the means and standard deviations of the statements in the FLAS and the scale of FNE. On the other hand, the correlation data consisted of the findings related to both the correlations between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation and the relationship between subject and dependent variables.

The first research question concerned the levels and sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation of foreign language learners. Hence, the findings about the levels and sources are presented in Table 1 and 2 in descending order. These values indicate that EFL learners suffered from language anxiety due to certain anxiety-provoking factors. First, the findings reveal that learners experienced language anxiety when they were not prepared for the lesson. Second, communication apprehension felt towards teachers, peers and native speakers was suggested as a factor provoking anxiety. Third, for most of the students, teachers' questions and corrections in the classroom environment were among the factors intensifying their anxiety. As the values indicate, among other sources arousing anxiety were fear of speaking during classes, concerns about making mistakes, fear of failing classes, test anxiety, and negative attitudes towards English courses. The values presented in Table 2 demonstrate that learners also suffered from fear of negative evaluation. First of all, foreign language learners had the fear of negative judgments by and leaving unfavorable impressions on others. Besides, others' negative thoughts and fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes, fear of shortcomings noted and the faults found by others and the fear of disapproval by others are other sources causing fear of negative evaluation. To summarize the findings, as the mean values were found to be 2.61 for

language anxiety and 2.89 for fear of negative evaluation, it could be concluded that foreign language learners suffered both from language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

Table 1. Sources and levels of language anxiety

Sources of language anxiety	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Not being prepared for the lesson	112	3.57	.98
Fear of failing classes	112	3.42	1.31
Communication apprehension with teachers	112	3.33	1.02
Test anxiety	112	3.09	1.16
Communication apprehension with native speakers	112	3.07	1.00
Fear of forgetting vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking	112	2.96	1.10
Teachers' corrections	112	2.93	1.05
Fear of being called on in class	112	2.92	.89
Fear of making mistakes	112	2.91	.97
Communication apprehension with peers	112	2.85	1.07
Teachers' questions in class	112	2.83	.94
Negative attitudes towards English courses	112	2.50	.88

Table 2. Sources and levels of the fear of negative evaluation

Sources of fear of negative evaluation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Negative judgments by others	112	3.25	1.02
Fear of leaving unfavorable impressions on others	112	3.18	.99
Negative thoughts of others	112	3.01	1.09
Fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes	112	2.88	.97
Fear of being noted the shortcomings by others	112	2.73	.92
Fear of being found fault by others	112	2.61	.89
Fear of disapproval by others	112	2.58	.96

The second research question inquired whether there existed a relationship between the levels and sources of language anxiety and the fear of negative evaluation. The values presented in Table 3 point out that there was a significant correlation between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Firstly, the data indicate that thoughts of others were significantly correlated with being called on in the classroom, communication with teachers, peers and native speakers, fear of making mistakes, teachers' questions, not being prepared for the lesson, fear of forgetting

vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking, negative attitudes towards courses, fear of failing and test anxiety. Secondly, the values also demonstrate that there existed a significant correlation between the fear of shortcomings noted by others and some sources of foreign language anxiety. Fear of leaving unfavorable impressions on others was significantly correlated with most of the foreign language anxiety sources, except for teachers' corrections and communication with native speakers. Furthermore, fear of disapproval by others was also significantly correlated with the fear of being called on in class, communication apprehension with teachers and peers, fear of failing classes and test anxiety, teachers' corrections and not being prepared for the lesson. That the participants fear that others would notice their mistakes was significantly correlated with the anxiety-provoking factors, except for teachers' corrections and communication apprehension with native speakers. In addition, others' negative judgments about the subject were correlated with communication apprehension with native English speakers, test anxiety, fear of forgetting vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking, not being prepared well for the lesson and fear of being called on in class. Finally, fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes was significantly correlated with all anxiety-provoking factors, except for communication apprehension with native speakers. Speaking concisely, the obtained results show that language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation are significantly correlated ($p=.0$).

Table 3. The correlation between language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation

	N=112	Others' thoughts	Shortcomings noticed by others	Fear of leaving unfavorable impressions on others	Fear of disapproval by others	Fear of being found fault by others.	Negative judgments by others	Fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes
Fear of being called on in class	Pearson Correlation	0.29	0.20	0.32	0.29	0.22	0.21	0.33
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.00
Communication apprehension	Pearson Correlation	0.27	0.09	0.21	0.35	0.31	0.16	0.34

with teachers	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.32	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.00
Teachers' questions in class	Pearson Correlation	0.22	0.13	0.32	0.12	0.32	0.18	0.30
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02	0.16	0.00	0.21	0.00	0.06	0.00
Fear of making mistakes	Pearson Correlation	0.32	0.10	0.30	0.16	0.27	0.13	0.42
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.28	0.00	0.09	0.00	0.17	0.00
Teachers' corrections	Pearson Correlation	0.17	0.08	0.15	0.25	0.17	0.04	0.26
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07	0.41	0.11	0.01	0.08	0.65	0.00
Not being prepared for the lesson	Pearson Correlation	0.46	0.32	0.44	0.32	0.44	0.30	0.30
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00						
Communication apprehension with peers	Pearson Correlation	0.22	0.22	0.35	0.31	0.32	0.14	0.50
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.00
Fear of forgetting vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking	Pearson Correlation	0.33	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.36	0.22	0.42
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.02	0.00
Negative attitudes towards English courses	Pearson Correlation	0.25	0.24	0.19	0.16	0.32	0.08	0.32
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.09	0.00	0.41	0.00
Fear of failing classes.	Pearson Correlation	0.48	0.42	0.51	0.42	0.45	0.39	0.40
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00						
Test anxiety	Pearson	0.39	0.27	0.32	0.29	0.29	0.39	0.25

		Correlation							
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
Communication apprehension	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.19	0.27	0.16	0.17	0.15	0.30	0.16	
with native speakers.	Pearson Correlation	0.05	0.00	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.00	0.10	

As the study mainly focuses on the levels and sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation and the relationship between these, the findings on the relationship between the dependent and subject variables seem irrelevant to the scope of the study. Nevertheless, the related results shall be presented in brief. In this sense, the data obtained from the study were divided into two groups: the correlations between subject variables and language anxiety, and the relationship between subject variables and fear of negative evaluation. The findings on the relationship between the subject variables and language anxiety indicate that there exist significant correlations between some of the statements provided in the FLAS and learners' gender, age and grade. Firstly, a significant correlation was found between gender and test anxiety ($p=0.01$). In other words, according to the mean scores, females are more worried about tests than males are. Furthermore, ages of learners were significantly correlated with teachers' corrections in classroom ($p=.004$), learners' negative attitudes towards English courses ($p=0.03$), and test anxiety ($p=0.05$). To put it another way, it was concluded that the older they were, the less anxiety they had. Thirdly, grade was a significant factor correlated with communication apprehension with teachers ($p=.02$), teachers' corrections in classroom ($p=.05$), communication apprehension with peers ($p=.02$), negative attitudes towards English courses ($p=.03$), and test anxiety ($p=0.02$). As a result, the correlational values show that junior students were more worried than the seniors. To sum up, the findings of the study suggest that age, gender and grade are significantly correlated with some statements in the FLAS. The findings on the correlations between fear of negative evaluation and the subject variables show that age and grade were significantly correlated with some statements in the scale of FNE, whereas gender did not have any effect on fear of negative evaluation at all. To begin with, grade is significantly correlated with two of the fears; i.e. disapproval by others ($p=0.00$) and making mistakes ($p=0.04$). This means that, while 19 and 20-year old students suffered from disapproval by others, fear of

making mistakes was a source of fear of negative evaluation for all the participants. The values also indicate that grade was significantly correlated with some of the sources of FNE, such as leaving an unfavorable impression ($p=0.01$), disapproval by others ($p=0.04$), and making mistakes ($p=0.03$). In other words, the higher their grades were, the less they suffered from disapproval and making mistakes. Consequently, the findings of the research demonstrate that learners' age, gender and grade were the factors with significant effects on both foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

In conclusion, the results indicate that foreign language learners suffered from language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation; that fear of negative evaluation is a strong source of language anxiety, and that certain subject variables had significant correlations with the levels of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. According the findings of the study, first and foremost, the sources of language anxiety included communication apprehension with teachers, peers and native speakers, not being prepared for the lesson, test anxiety, and negative attitudes towards English courses, whereas the sources of fear of negative evaluation were negative judgments and thoughts of others, leaving unfavorable impressions on others, fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes, disapproval by other students, shortcomings and faults found by others. Secondly, the correlational data show that fear of negative evaluation is a source of language anxiety in EFL learning. Finally, the data obtained from the study point out that female students felt more worried about tests than males did, and younger learners were more anxious about tests than the older ones. In addition, negative attitudes towards English courses constituted a source of language anxiety only for younger learners and students' grade was correlated with communication apprehension with teachers and peers as well as test anxiety. Finally, elder learners had a lesser degree of fear towards leaving an unfavorable impression, disapproval by others, and making mistakes than the younger students did.

Conclusions and Discussion

Since the available research is too limited to draw conclusions and it seems necessary to increase the awareness about the issue of the target groups in Turkey, this study aimed to examine the sources and levels of foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, as well as to determine the relationship between the two dependent variables. The results of the previous studies demonstrate that language anxiety is distinct from other types of anxiety (Horwitz, 1986),

and among types of language anxiety are communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). Furthermore, a review of the available literature shows that language anxiety emanate from numerous sources, such as the level of language course, language skills, motivation, proficiency, teachers, tests, and cultural differences. Furthermore, though fear of negative evaluation has attracted little attention in language learning, it is still a source of language anxiety deserving further research (Kitano, 2001). On the other hand, it is very crucial to emphasize that the related studies conducted in Turkey are still too limited to arrive at some conclusions. The sample group of the study consisted of 112 advanced level EFL students. The instruments used to collect data consisted of a background questionnaire, the foreign language anxiety scale, and the scale of fear of negative evaluation. The collected data were used to provide a descriptive and correlational analysis to address the research questions.

Four main results were obtained from the study. The first is that EFL learners suffer from language anxiety which is aroused by factors, such as unpreparedness for class; communication apprehension with teachers, peers, and native speakers; teachers' questions and corrections in classroom environment; tests and negative attitudes towards English courses. Secondly, the sources of fear of negative evaluation consist of negative judgments by others, leaving unfavorable impressions on others, making verbal or spelling mistakes, and disapproval by others. Thirdly, the fear of negative evaluation is a strong source of foreign language anxiety. Moreover, fear of negative evaluation leads to the fear of being called on in class; test anxiety; communication apprehension with peers, native speakers, and teachers; fear of making mistakes while speaking; and negative attitudes towards language learning. What is more, it makes learners anxious when their teachers asks questions and makes corrections. Finally, certain subject variables significantly correlated with some sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. More specifically, females are much more worried about tests than males are. In addition, younger students display a greater anxiety towards communication apprehension with teachers and peers, teachers' corrections in classroom and tests than their elders are, and also suffer from the fear of disapproval by others while students in the first three grades are more afraid of making mistakes than the seniors are.

A discussion of the results of the present study with relation to those of previous research can be summarized under four headings: the identification of language anxiety, the effects of anxiety

on learning process, fear of negative evaluation, and the correlation between the two. First of all, communication apprehension is a significant source of anxiety as found by Horwitz et al. (1986), Koch and Terrell (1991), Price (1991) and Young (1990). According to the results of previous research, tests and teachers are other strong sources of language anxiety as was suggested by Bailey (1983), and Ellis and Rathbone (1987). However, though teachers are a strong source of anxiety, *teacher anxiety* is not a term that has so far been recognized in the relevant literature. Although Young (1991) notes that teachers' beliefs about teaching a foreign language are one of the anxiety-provoking factors, according to the findings of this study, it is obvious that there are additional factors such as learners' communication apprehension with teachers, teachers' corrections, all of which play a determining role in the level of anxiety. In other words, all the sources of language anxiety pertaining to teachers could be categorized under the separate category of *teacher anxiety* which would then constitute the fourth category of language anxiety along with communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Secondly, the results of the present study indicate that foreign language anxiety has several negative effects on language learning process. More specifically, anxious learners suffer from the fear of speaking, making mistakes and forgetting vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking, findings parallel to the previous findings that speaking in front of other learners is a situational source of anxiety in foreign language classrooms (Koch and Terrell, 1991) and that anxious learners commit more errors through fear of making mistakes (Gregersen, 2003). Furthermore, the findings of the study demonstrate that anxiety prevents learners from using correct vocabulary and sentence structure while speaking. Yet, Gardner, Moorcroft, and MacIntyre (1987) argued that there is not a correlation between language anxiety and free speech skills. Thirdly, the sources behind the fear of negative evaluation are negative judgments by other people, leaving unfavorable impressions on others, committing verbal or spelling mistakes, and disapproval by others. "Others" include both friends and the teacher in the learning environment. In other words, the teacher as a fluent speaker, as was noted by Horwitz et al. (1986), and speaking in front of their peers constitute a source of fear of negative evaluation for students (Koch and Terrell, 1991). Finally, the results of this study demonstrate that there exists a significant correlation between the fear of negative evaluation and language anxiety as Gardner et al. (1987) observed, and as Kitano (2001) noted, that fear of negative evaluation is a source of language anxiety.

Given that learners suffer from anxiety and that it has negative effects on foreign language learning, some recommendations for practical purposes could be noted. First of all, as Horwitz et al. (1986) note, in order to cope with anxiety, learning situations and context should be made less stressful. In this sense, language teachers could play an important role in easing the anxiety of their students. Furthermore, teachers should be well trained on the issue, as Ellis and Sinclair (1989) point out that the focus should be on *how to learn* rather than *what to learn*, and then, they should train their students accordingly. Moreover, in the light of the results of the study, teachers should be aware of the effects of gender differences on foreign language anxiety, and use effective strategies to help their younger students. In other words, teachers should have well-formulated strategies with regard to communication with learners, their corrections and questions in the classroom. In brief, they need to promote a low-stress language learning environment (Foss and Reitzel, 1988), use effective strategies to help learners manage the level of language anxiety (Oxford and Crookall, 1989), reassure them that language anxiety is quite a normal experience at the first stages of language learning process (Campbell and Ortiz, 1991), and positively manage the results of language anxiety. Secondly, effective communication is another way to relieve language anxiety. For instance, Campbell and Ortiz (1991) emphasize that students can talk about their worries with their teachers, other students, and family members. Besides, some other ways to alleviate anxiety are creating a supportive learning environment, explaining students their mistakes, developing realistic expectations and setting time limits (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002). Finally, some practical activities such as structured exercises, group work, pair work, games, and simulations can be employed to relieve this sort of anxiety. As a result, all the recommendations presented in this paper are directly related to teachers. Hence, teachers' level of awareness about foreign language anxiety should be raised both during their pre-service and in-service training processes.

As a final note on the limitations of the research, the subjects of the study were limited to 112 EFL learners in the ELT Department of Education Faculty at Balikesir University, Turkey. On the other hand, the scope of the study was confined to the data collected using the *foreign language anxiety scale* (FLAS) adapted from the FLAS developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), and the *scale for fear of negative evaluation* (FNE) developed by Leary (1983), and some selected subject variables. Considering that the study examines the sources and levels of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation and the relationship between the two, further

studies should focus on the relationship between language anxiety and some other variables such as language aptitude, ability, skills and teaching methodology. Last but not least, the strategies and tactics to allay language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation as well as the role of teachers in anxiety could be a subject of further research.

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