THE IMAPCT OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS' LINGUISTIC INSECURITY ON LEARNERS' PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

GITI EHTESHAM DAFTARI

M.A. THESIS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

GAZI UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

JULY, 2016

THE IMAPCT OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS' LINGUISTIC INSECURITY ON LEARNERS' PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

GITI EHTESHAM DAFTARI

M.A. THESIS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

GAZI UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

JULY, 2016

TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren 6 ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

YAZARIN

Adı	:	Giti
Soyadı	:	Ehtesham Daftari
Bölümü	:	İngilizce Öğretmenliği
İmza	:	
Teslim Tarihi	:	

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı : Anadili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Dilsel Güvensizliklerinin Öğrencilerin Üretken Becerileri Üzerindeki Etkisi

İngilizce Adı : The Impact of Non-native English Teachers' Linguistic Insecurity on Learners' Productive Skills

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı : Giti EHTESHAM DAFTARI

İmza:

JÜRI ONAY SAYFASI

Giti EHTESHAM DAFTARI tarafından hazırlanan "The Impact of Non-native English Teachers' Linguistic Insecurity on Learners' productive Skills" adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Yard. Doç. Dr. Zekiye Müge TAVIL

İngilizce Öğretmenliği, Gazi Üniversitesi   …….……….....…..........

Başkan: Prof. Dr. Abdulvahit ÇAKIR

İngilizce Öğretmenliği, Gazi Üniversitesi   …….....................…….

Üye:

                                                ….….……………….

Üye:

                                                ….….……………….

Üye:

                                                ….….……………….

Tez Savunma Tarihi:

Bu tezin İngilize Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı'nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğimi onaylıyorum.

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü

Prof. Dr. Tahir ATICI   ....

To my loving and caring Mom,

To my beloved husband,

And to my little angel, Sofia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Finally, and most importantly, I would like to thank my husband Rahim for providing me with unfailing support, continuous encouragement, patience and unwavering love that were undeniably the bedrock upon which the past three years of my life have been built. I deeply appreciate his tolerance throughout my years of study and through the process of researching and writing this thesis.

ANADİLİ İNGİLİZCE OLMAYAN INGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİN DİLSEL GÜVENSİZLİKLERİNİN ÖĞRENCİNİN ÜRETKEN BECERİLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Giti Ehtesham Daftari

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

Temmuz, 2016

Öz

Anadili İngilizce olan ve anadili İngilizce olmayan öğretmenlerin arasındaki fark kaynakta anadili İngilizce olan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin lehine rapor edilmiştir. Bu çalışma, anadili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dilsel güvensizliklerini test eder ve bu güvensizliğin öğrenciler üzerindeki etkisini SPSS yazılımı kullanarak araştırır. Bu araştırma çalışması farklı ülkelerden gelmiş ve hepsi Ankara'da bir dil enstitüsünda çalışmakta olan 18 öğretmenle gerçekleştirilmiştir . Bu çalışmaya katılan 300 öğrencilerin seviyeleri orta, ortanın üstü ve gelişmiştir. Öğretmenin dilsel güvensizliğiyle ilgili veri, anketlerle, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelerle ve yeterlilik sınavlarıyla elde edilmiştir. PEARSON Correlatıon ve ANOVA testleri kullanılmış ve sonuçlar, dilsel güvensizlik ve cinsiyet arasında önemli bir ilişki olmadığını ve anadili İngilizce olmayan kadın ve erkek İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dilsel güvensizliği aynı derecede hissetmenin muhtemel olduğunu, ancak bu seviyenin tecrübeden önemli derecede etkilenebildiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Başka bir değişle, tecrübeli dil öğretmenleri daha az tecrübeli dil öğretmenlerine nazaran daha az dilsel güvensizlik hissettiği ortaya çıkmıştır. Öğrencinin uretken becerilerinde, anadili İngilizce olmayan İngilizce öğretmenlerin dilsel güvensizliği ve öğrencinin yazma ve konuşma notları arasında dikkate değer bir ilişki bulunmamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler :   Ana dili İngilizce olan öğretmen, yerli olmayan İngilizce konuşan

öğretmen, dilsel güvensizlik, üretken becerileri, yazma,

konuşma

Sayfa Adedi :   106

Danışman :   Yrd. Doç. Dr. Zekiye Müge Tavil

THE IMPACT OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS' LINGUISTIC INSECURITY ON LEARNERS' PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

(M.A. Thesis)

Giti Ehtesham Daftari

GAZI UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

July, 2016

ABSTRACT

The discrimination between native and non-native English speaking teachers is reported in favor of native speakers in literature. The present study examines the linguistic insecurity of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) and investigates its influence on learners' productive skills by using SPSS software. The eighteen teachers participating in this research study are from different countries, mostly Asian, and they all work in a language institute in Ankara, Turkey. The learners who participated in this work are 300 intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced English learners. The data related to teachers' linguistic insecurity were collected by questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and proficiency tests. We used Pearson Correlation and ANOVA Tests and the results revealed that there is not a significant relationship between gender and linguistic insecurity and both male and female NNESTs' are likely to feel the same level of linguistic insecurity, but it can be significantly influenced by their experiences. In other words, experienced teachers feel less linguistic insecurity than novice NNESTs. In case of learners' productive skills, no significant relationship was found between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and the learners' writing and speaking scores.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ELF   English as a Lingua Franca

ELT   English language Teaching

ESL   English as a Second Language

ESP   English for Specific Purposes

LI   Linguistic Insecurity

NES   Native English Speaker

NEST   Native English-Speaking ESL/EFL Teacher

NNES   Non-Native English Speaker

NNEST   Non-Native English Speaking ESL/EFL Teacher

NNS   Non-Native Speaker (of English in this case)

NS   Native Speaker (of English in this case)

TOEFL   Test of English as a Foreign Language

TESOL   Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

There is no doubt today that English is the unrivaled lingua franca of the world with the largest number of non-native speakers. Lingua franca is defined as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different from each other's and where one or both speakers are using it as a second language (Harmer, 2005). English is now used by millions of speakers for a number of communicative functions across Europe. It has become the preferred language in a number of ambits like international business or EU institutions. Crystal (1997) believes that without a common language between academicians from different nationalities, conversation would prove impossible both in the virtual and real world. This can be the reason that English is chosen for academic discussion as most scholars face the need to read and publish in English for international diffusion (e.g. see Sano, 2002; Ammon, 2003).

Proficiency in English is seen as a desirable goal for youngsters and elderly people in all EU countries and in many parts of the world, to the point of equating inability in the use of English to disability. It can be understood that a better knowledge of English language will facilitate communication and interaction and will promote mobility and mutual understanding. The rapid spread of English has led to controversial and at the same time interesting debates on the role of English teachers.

One of the most important issues dealing with English learning is the role of EFL teachers; although teachers have always been the center of attention in the classroom, their concerns and needs have not always been addressed in the same way. Nowadays EFL/ESL teachers, along with teachers in other fields, have heavier responsibilities than before and studies show

that teaching is one of the most stressful jobs in comparison to other occupations (Adams, 2001).

Arnold (1999) believes that innovations in the field of education and language teaching have created a rather novel role for teachers. In his view, teachers are no longer looked at as the mere transferors of knowledge but as individuals, who need to communicate and engage with students more than before and to care for their inner worlds.

On the other hand, it is an undeniable fact that the number of non-native English-speaking teachers is steadily increasing all over the world and the number of non-native English-speaking teachers overwhelms native English-speaking teachers (NEST). 'In the field of English language teaching (ELT), a growing number of teachers are not native speakers of English. Some learned English as children; others learned it as adults. Some learned it prior to going to English-speaking countries; others learned it after their arrival. Some studied English in formal academic settings; others learned it through informal immersion after arriving in these countries. Some speak British, Australian, Indian, or other varieties of English; others speak Standard American English. For some, English is their third or fourth language; for others, it is the only language other than their mother tongue that they have learned. This fact justifies our expectations of a more primitive approach towards NNESTs.

Furthermore, there's still a global prejudice against NNESTs. Especially in recruitment issues in ELT field, despite the worthy efforts made by TESOL and some other institutions against unfair hiring practices, employers still have a positive bias in favor of NESTs. To illustrate, Moussu (2006) tells us about Mahboob's study (2003) in which he examined the hiring practices of 118 adult ESL program directors and administrators in the US. He found that the number of NNESTs teaching ESL in the United States is low and disproportionate to the high number of NNS graduate students enrolled in MA TESOL programs. He also found that 59.8% of the program administrators who responded to his survey used the "native speaker" criterion as their major decisive factor in hiring ESL teachers. A reason for this discrimination was that administrators believed only NESTs could be proficient in English and qualified teachers.

According to Selinker and Lakshmanan (1992), the monolingual bias in TESOL and applied linguistics research resulted in practices of discrimination where non-native speakers of English were seen as life-long language learners, who fossilized at various stages of language learning as individuals and as communities. As opposed to this idea, Mahboob (2010) argues that the NNEST lens takes language as a functional entity where the successful use of

2

language in context determines the proficiency of the speaker and where the English language reflects and construes different cultural perspectives and realities in different settings. As a result of this, NNESTs interpret and question language, language learning and teaching in new ways.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Much research has been conducted to demonstrate the differences between NESTs and NNESTs (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Mahboob, 2003; Maum, 2002; Medgyes 1992, 2001; Mussou, 2006; Solhi & Buyukyazi, 2012; Tarnopolsky, 2008) and most of them conclude that the preference of the native English speakers (NESs) on the mere basis of their first language is unfair (Medgyes; 1992, 1994). Some research studies have also been trying to confirm that NNESTs have many qualities that can make them successful teachers appreciated and valued by their students, their colleagues, and their supervisors (Medgyes, 1992, 1994, 2001; Mussou, 2006). Previous research studies conducted by Cheung (2002), Mahboob (2003), Moussu, (2002), and Moussu (2006) in various contexts came to the conclusion that students do appreciate NNESTs for their knowledge, preparation, experience, and caring attitudes and that they do realize that NESTs and NNESTs complement each other with their strengths and weaknesses (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001).

Non-native English teachers do not seem to be unfamiliar with this excuse from employers when they apply for a position of English teacher: "We are afraid our reputation and expertise makes us employ only native speakers of English. Our ultimate goal is to satisfy our students who do prefer to be taught by natives as they aim at learning authentic English." This discriminating response is only one out of hundreds of problems that non-native English teachers face and it can be frustrating and unfair. As a non-native English teacher, the researcher felt the necessity to conduct this research study which deals with NNESTs linguistic insecurity based on some reasons; first of all the researcher personally would like to explore the distinction between the final outcome of EFL classrooms taught by NESTs and NNESTs; secondly, she was interested in the notion of linguistic insecurity within the frame of native and non-native speaking teachers which seemed to have a remarkable influence on their performances.

Questions about the effectiveness of NESTs and NNESTs in teaching English in Turkey sound similar to those rose in EFL contexts in many parts of the world. Despite their complexity, these three major questions remain essential and critical: Can a non-native English speaker be a good English language teacher? (Lee, 2000); To what extent can non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity influence learners' learning process? (Roussi, 2009); Is there any relationship between NNESTs proficiency and their linguistic insecurity? (Gonzalez, 2011). Thus, this research study mainly deals with the linguistic insecurity of non-native English speaking teachers as one of the factors that may influence the learning process in ELT environment and examines the role of age and experience on it. As the final target, the relationship between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and learners' writing and speaking scores will be investigated to see if the non-native teachers' LI affects learners' learning in productive skills or not.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Considering the importance of productive skills, we hypothesized that non-native English speaking teachers pass over the pronunciation, speaking, and writing parts of the textbooks quickly because of their linguistic insecurity. It seems that in some cases non-native English speaking teachers do not feel comfortable enough to focus on these parts despite their high language proficiency. It may differ from novice to experienced NNS English teachers. Therefore, we aim at measuring the relationship between their linguistic insecurity and students' productive skills. The present research study aims to provide more conclusive answers to these research questions:

1. Do novice NNS English teachers feel more linguistic insecurity (LI) than experienced NNS English teachers?

2. a) Does non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity affect learners' productive skills?

   b) How does non-native English teachers' LI affect learners' productive skills?

3. Does gender have any effects on NNSTs linguistic insecurity?

In addition, we will examine if gender influences the amount of NNS English teachers' linguistic insecurity in the classroom. Learners productive skills will be studied during nine

months, and their exams and interviews will be used as data collection instruments, as explained in methodology section.

We hope that the results from this study help other researchers to go further and examine other aspects of this feeling, so there will be hope to find a proper solution for this defection.

1.4 Importance of the Study

Both teachers and learners are active participants in the classroom with their own emotional states which influences the others constantly by interacting in the same environment. Therefore, attention to teachers' concerns and needs is an important notion which can help the entire learning process. One current sociolinguistic issue, which we are going to investigate in this research study, is linguistic insecurity experienced by non-native English teachers. Teachers' feeling of insecurity may implicitly influence learners to decelerate learning of particular materials. A review in the literature shows that there have not been many studies exclusively in connection with NNESTs and their linguistic insecurity in EFL classrooms. This gap inspired the researcher to focus on this topic and particularly on productive skills because of the undoubted importance of speaking and writing.

1.5 Assumptions

Firstly, it is assumed that the interview sessions with the presence of the researcher can represent the actual level of the learners' speaking. As the writing and speaking scores of the learners are needed, the researcher participated in the interview sessions. The questions were designed and asked by the teacher and the researcher was silent. At the end of each session, the researcher asked the teacher's opinion and they agreed on the score.

Secondly, it is assumed that teachers answer the questions sincerely. Due to the nature of the study, the following questions are going to be asked: name, age, years of experience, and attended teacher training courses. In the second part of the questionnaire, some questions seem to be confidential for the teachers and they may feel uncomfortable choosing the correct statement, but the researcher insured them that all the data would be kept private.

1.6 Limitations

The first and major limitation of this study is the sample size. The findings of this study represent the linguistic insecurity of eighteen EFL teachers and its relationship with the scores of 300 learners. In order to conduct this research study with larger number of participants, it was necessary to collect the data from several language institutes simultaneously. This was really challenging and the researcher could not get authorization except from her own workplace. Nevertheless, some teachers were not willing to participate in the study and only eighteen NNESTs contributed to this study voluntarily. It is evident that the second limitation is the representativeness of the samples. Therefore, it is obvious that the small number of non-native teacher participants may not present precise results on the concept of linguistic insecurity and it is necessary to treat the findings of this study with caution in terms of generalizability.

Another limitation is that most of NNESTs who participated in the study happened to be from Turkey. Nine out of eighteen non-native teacher participants are Turkish and they are quite similar in their English proficiency, academic qualifications, and cultural backgrounds. Even though the teaching experience of the NNESTs differ, their common cultural background and their relationship with the learners may have affected their linguistic insecurity. So a bigger number of non-native English speaking teachers that encompass teachers from various nationalities are needed.

Finally, twelve teachers who participated in the pilot study participated also in the actual study. These teachers, having been exposed to the questionnaire before, may have responded differently from those who have not been exposed to it, and this may have had a negative effect. However, their participation was allowed by the researcher due to the small number of teacher participants available.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. After this first chapter which outlines the research aims and questions of the study, the second chapter sums up the background of linguistic insecurity in ELT context, provides details about the perception of native and non-native ELT teachers, discusses the importance of productive skills, and examines the theoretical framework that underpins this research study, which are the conceptual definitions of the terms NESTs and

NNESTs, and the perceived strengths and weakness of each group of teachers. Chapter three, the methodology section, includes the rationale behind using the mixed methods approach, research design, and research methods. Chapter four presents the data collected and the results of statistical analysis performed on the data. Besides, all the statements of the questionnaire will be discussed and analyzed one by one. Chapter five is discussion section in which the results and the answers to research questionnaire will be discussed and also be compared to previous research studies. Chapter six includes the conclusion and concludes the whole study in order to present an executive outcome of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, initially the concept of native speaker will be discussed to make the differences between native and non-native English teachers clear. After discussing the notion of native speaker and advantages and disadvantages of being a non-native English teacher, the concept and history of linguistic insecurity will be reviewed and similar studies from literature will be discussed. Since the main objective of the present research study is to examine the relationship between non-native English speaking teachers' linguistic insecurity and their learners' scores in writing and speaking skills, so the last section of literature review section is allocated to the importance of productive skills.

2.1 The Concept of Native Speaker

A Briton is a native speaker of English. A Chinese is not. An Australian is. An Italian national is not. But what about an Indian whose second language is English and has learnt school instructions and professional communication through English? He simply does not fit into either the native or the non-native speaker slot. In fact, countries where English is a second language break the homogeneity of the native/ non-native division (Medgyes, 1992).

Kachru (1996) has introduced a circles analogy to define various types of English used in different countries. First, he uses the term Inner Circle for the countries where English is used as a native language among them the United Kingdom, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States of America. Even among these countries, there are different varieties of standardized English used by their people. Second, the countries where English is

an institutionalized variety are called the Outer Circle, and English is used as an official language in these countries. Former and current American and British colonies, such as Nigeria, Sri Lanka, Zambia, Bangladesh, Ghana, Puerto Rico, Malaysia, the Philippines, and India belong to this category. Third, the countries where English has little or no administrative role and is used or taught as a foreign language are called the Expanding Circle. This category includes countries like Turkey, Egypt, Indonesia, China, Israel, Korea, Russia, Japan, and Iran. According to this analogy, Inner Circle countries are norm-providing and the Outer Circle countries are norm-developing, whereas the countries which belong to Expanding Circle are norm-dependent.

In another classification, Canagarajah (1999) puts World Englishes into similar groups; he refers to the countries in which English is regarded as mother tongue as Centre, and he addresses all the other countries as Periphery. Therefore, he notes that there may be a whole clear way to discriminate native speakers from non-native speakers.

In sum, it can be concluded that the English teachers coming from countries where the mother tongue is not English are considered non-native English speaking countries. In this research study, the eighteen participants are from non-English speaking countries, mostly from Turkey.

2.2 Native English Speaking Teachers vs. Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

As mentioned in introduction section, non-native English teachers are likely to face challenging and most of the time nerve-breaking excuses when applying for teaching positions. The concept of using native English speaking teacher (NEST) versus non-native English speaking teacher (NNEST) in English as foreign Language (EFL) classrooms has been under debate and a lot of research studies have been conducted in order to find an answer to the question of "Do native speaker teachers perform better than non-native speaker teachers in EFL classrooms?"

In many teaching contexts, native speaker teachers are preferred to non-natives and irrespective of their training or experience, native speakers has been regarded to have priority over the non-natives. Phillipson (1992) questions the hypothesis that native speaker teachers are qualified better than the non-native speaker teachers, and that an ideal English teacher is a native speaker who can serve as a model for the students. He believes that teachers are not born but made. According to him, the training which the teachers get gives importance to their

job, and therefore unqualified native speaker teachers are a potential menace in the classroom. In other words, a well-trained non-native English speaking teacher is preferred to an unqualified native English speaking teacher.

However, not all the scholars indorse the proficiency of NNESTs. Medgyes (1992) claims that in spite of all their efforts, non-native speakers can never achieve a native speaker's competence and the two groups remain clearly distinguishable. He suggests a continuum to illustrate his assumption.

Zero competence   native competence
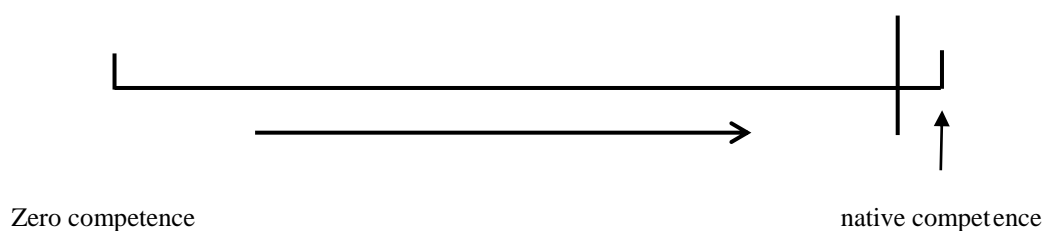
Figure 1. Medgyes continuum (Medgyes, 1992, Native or non-native: Who's worth more? ELT Journal, 46(4), p.342)

He believes that non-native speakers constantly move along the continuum and some of them come quite close to the native competence, but very few of them succeed to reach the native competence although these are the exceptions to the rule. He explains that non-natives are, by their nature, norm dependent and their use of English is an imitation of some forms of native use. Therefore, they can never be as creative and original as those whom they have learnt to copy. However, Medgyes discriminates the concept of "the ideal teacher" from native/non-native speakers in terms of their teaching practice and suggests that an ideal NEST is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue and also the one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English.

In an ideal school, he concludes that there should be a good balance of NESTs and non-NESTs, who complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses.

Medgyes (2001) further examines the differences in teaching behavior between NESTs and NNESTs. The table below is based on a survey carried out to 325 native and non-native speaking teachers.

Table 1

Perceived Differences in Teaching Behavior between NESTs and Non-NESTs

NESTs	Non-NESTs
Own use of English	
speak better English	speak poorer English
use real English	use "bookish" language
use English more confidently	use English less confidently
general attitude	
adopt a more flexible approach	adopt a more guided approach
are more innovative	are more cautious
are less empathetic	are more empathetic
attend to perceived needs	attend to real needs
have far-fetched expectations	have realistic expectations
are more casual	are stricter
are less committed	are more committed
attitude to teaching the language	
are less insightful	are more insightful
focus on:	focus on:
fluency	accuracy
meaning	form
language in use	grammar rules
oral skills	printed word
colloquial registers	formal registers
teach items in context	teach items in isolation
prefer free activities	prefer controlled activities
favor group work/pair work	favor frontal work
use a variety of materials	use a single textbook
tolerate errors	correct/punish for errors
set fewer tests	set more tests
use no/less L1	use more L1
resort to no/less translation	resort to more translation
assign less homework	assign more homework
attitude to teaching culture	
supply more cultural information	supply less cultural information

(Medgyes, 2001, When the teacher is a non-native speaker. Teaching Pronunciation, p.435)

As seen, there is an open debate on native and non-native teachers' proficiency and there are complex explanations behind this debate. However, much current studies show that both have advantages in their own ways (e.g. Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008), and it is unnecessary to draw a demarcation line between NESTs and NNESTs in ELT field. Here some advantages and disadvantages of being a non-native English speaking teacher are explained.

2.2.1 Advantages of Non-Native Speaker EFL Teachers

In the recent years, the rate of immigrants and international students has been increased, and thousands of people have been started to work in English teaching positions. In this regard, several studies have been conducted to prove the proficiency of non-native English teachers (e.g. Seidlhofer, 1999; Ellis, 2005; Solhi & Rahimi, 2013; Tarnopolsky, 2008).

According to Solhi & Rahimi (2013), there are advantages that give non-native teachers of English a priority over their native speaker colleagues in EFL context. They categorize the advantages of the non-native teachers of English over the native speaker teachers of English as follow:

- sharing similar languages (Seidlhofer, 1999; Tarnopolsky, 2008)

- sharing similar cultures (Seidlhofer, 1999, Widdowson, 1994)

- being formerly non-native EFL learners (Ellis, 2005 as cited in Jessner, 2008; and Tarnopolsky, 2008)

- having the experience gained over the years as a foreign language teacher (Medgyes, 1983)

- being able to find the linguistic problems (Ellis, 2005, as cited in Jessner, 2008)

- being able to develop the students' interlingual awareness (Tarnopolsky, 2008)

- being able to develop the students' intercultural awareness (Tarnopolsky, 2008)

- the psychological advantage (Cook, 1999)

- Being able to prevent mismatches (Solhi and Buyukyazi, 2012)

It is obvious that non-native speaking teachers share similar languages or cultures with their students and at the same time they are familiar with habits of target language. Therefore, it is possible for them to utilize the students' mother tongue if it can facilitate and accelerate the process of learning English. Terms like double talk, double think, double agent, and double life are considered to acclaim the importance of a non-native speaker teacher in the classroom.

In addition, non-native speaker EFL teachers have themselves been non-native EFL learners and have passed through the process of English learning. As they share the same mother tongue with learners, so NNS EFL teachers are prepared better to deal appropriately with learners' specific problems, while native speaker EFL teachers might be unable to observe these problems. Seidlhofer (1999) declares it in the following words: "One could say that native speakers know the destination, but not the terrain that has to be crossed to get there: they themselves have not traveled the same route. Non-native teachers, on the other hand, know the target language as a foreign language" (p. 238).

Through his own experience as a persistent learner of English on the one hand and through the experience gained over the years as a foreign language teacher on the other hand, NNS EFL teacher should know best where the two cultures and, consequently, the two languages converge and diverge. More than any native speaker, NNS EFL teacher is aware of the difficulties his students are likely to encounter and the possible errors they are likely to make.

The NNS EFL teacher is also able to find linguistic problems and offer metacognitive learning strategies that the native teacher without foreign language experience is unable to notice. As it was said before, non-native teachers have moved through the process of learning the language and they are familiar with the difficulties that the learners are most likely to encounter. At the same time, non-native speaker EFL teachers can pave the way for developing their students' interlingual awareness by making comparisons and making them aware of the similarities and differences that exist between the structures of their L1 and target language. Such ability of NNS teachers is called 'the double capacity of the non-native EFL teachers' by Seidlhofer (1999). As Kachru and Nelson (2006) apparently clarify, "Non-native EFL teachers are well prepared and inherently equipped to put themselves into the place of their students, as contrasted with the pressure to put themselves into the place of native speakers".

NNS EFL teachers are better prepared for developing their students' intercultural awareness by comparing similarities and differences between the L1 and the target culture, which is considered to be the only way of developing the learners' target culture's sociolinguistic behaviors in the conditions where students have no or very little direct contact with target culture communities.

Solhi and Buyukyazi (2012) indicate that similar cultural and cognitive background of non-native teachers and students results in fewer mismatches in EFL context. In contrast, they show that mismatches of this kind are more likely to happen in the presence of native-speaker teachers where learners have a different cognitive and cultural background.

Ellis (2006, as cited in Tang, 1997) in a recent study convincingly proves that NS English teachers can get a great professional advantage if they learn L2. It allows them to understand and deal much better with the dilemmas of their students learning English. However, majority of the NS EFL teachers who have stayed in another country for a short time know very little about its language and culture. Therefore, the difficulties of NS EFL teachers that result from not knowing the local language and culture are probably here to stay in the majority of cases (Tang, 1997). Through his own experience as a persistent learner of English on the one hand, and through the experience gained over the years as a foreign language teacher on the other hand, NNS EFL teacher should know best the similarities and differences between L1 and the target language. More than any native speaker, NNS EFL teacher is aware of the difficulties his students are likely to encounter and the possible errors they are likely to make.

2.2.2 Disadvantages of NNS Teachers

Beside all the advantages of being taught by a non-native English teacher, this experience may have some disadvantages, too. Tarnopolsky (2008) lists a number of challenges that NNS EFL teachers face. Firstly, he believes that majority of the NNS teachers have a foreign accent and the best of them often cannot overcome it during their career even if their visits to English-speaking countries are lengthy. The reason is that if a foreign language is learnt after the puberty, native-like pronunciation is rarely achieved despite years of practice.

Secondly, he mentions that for NNS EFL teachers, regardless of their capability, it is very difficult to be aware of the most recent developments in the English language because as every other living language, it is constantly changing. He adds, as a rule, NNS EFL teachers

do not frequently visit English-speaking countries and they do not stay long enough to keep track of all such changes. He believes that limited availability of the latest and most advanced teaching materials and methods developed in English speaking countries is another area of difficulty for the non-native speaker teachers of English. He believes that limited availability of the latest and most advanced teaching materials and methods developed in the English speaking countries is another area of difficulty for the non-native speaker teachers of English. He contents these materials are better known to NS EFL colleagues and are much more accessible to them.

Thirdly, Tarnopolsky criticizes that the NNS EFL teachers might not be aware of the most recent developments in the English-speaking nations' cultures, including the developments in patterns of sociolinguistic behaviors. So they might lack such cultural awareness. He also presumes that there are a significant number of the NNS EFL teachers, who have never been to English-speaking countries, and may not even be aware of essential differences in such patterns as compared to their home cultures. This categorization of culture as 'they' and 'we' introduces the concept of culture as a static concept is a traditional definition of culture and confines it to the territorial borders of a certain country, such as the UK. However, globalizing world has paved the way for the culture to be dynamic.

Finally, according to Tarnopolsky, the most serious challenge for the non-native speaker teachers of English is the fact that in many parts of the world both students and school and university authorities believe that a native speaker is always the best teacher of English and thus prefer to be taught or to employ NS EFL instructors to the detriment of their NNS colleagues. This is one of the visible manifestations of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), and it might be the biggest and the most barricading problem for non-native teachers.

Butler (2007) investigates the effect of elementary school English teachers' accents on students' listening comprehension. American-accented teachers (native models) were compared to Korean-accented teachers (non-native models). However, with an emphasis on listening comprehension, the results failed to find any significant differences in students' performance between the American-accented English and Korean-accented English conditions. Nevertheless, the study did find significant differences in the students' attitudes toward native and non-native English teachers regarding their confidence in their use of English, focus on fluency versus accuracy, goodness of pronunciation, and use of Korean in the classroom. He also reports that regardless of the teachers' accents, the students were

positively influenced by their pronunciation, empathy, confidence, and ability to explain the differences between English and Korean.

2.2.3 Collaboration between NESTs and NNESTs

Trying to demonstrate that one type of teacher is worth more than another is quite unfair and misleading. All teachers, whether NESTs or NNESTs, are worth a lot and that they are worth more when they work together. By exchanging ideas and experiences, each group can learn the skills in which the other excels.

Nunan (1992) calls for an organized collaboration and team teaching because he believes that NESTs and NNESTs of English show a great deal of variation in their knowledge, use, and teaching of the English language (p.253). Medgyes (2001) argues that NESTs and NNESTs are potentially equally effective teachers because in his opinion their strengths and weaknesses balance each other out. Given a favorable mix, various forms of collaboration are possible, and this is very beneficial for learners. Medgyes (1994) suggested therefore that NESTs or NNESTs should be hired solely on the basis of their professional virtues, regardless of their language background because each of the two groups can be equally good in their own terms (p. 76).

A few studies have been conducted to discuss the benefits attained by the collaboration between NESTs and NNESTs. Both NESTs and NNESTs are necessary and even indispensable in contexts where they could collaborate and use their skills and competencies to the fullest. (see Oliveira and Richardson, 2001; Kamhi-Stein, 2004).

2.2.4 Students' Perception of NESTs and NNESTs

Students' perception of NESTs and NNESTs were mainly studied by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2002, 2005) and by Benke and Medgyes (2005). Lasagabaster and Sierra conducted two complementary studies on the university students' perception of NESTs and NNESTs in an EFL context. They used both open and closed questionnaires to elicit responses, and they found out that students prefer NESTs over NNESTs although they are aware of some advantages of NNESTs. However, a majority of students would like to have a combination of both NESTs and NNESTs. They also asked students to diversify their preferences according

to level of education and the results revealed that students had an increasing tendency in favor of the NST as the educational level is higher (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005:226). Benke and Medgye (2005) studied on 422 Hungarian learners of English using a questionnaire consisting of five-point Likert scale questions as the research instrument. Their conclusions were that students, on the whole, considered NNSTs more demanding and traditional in the classroom than their NST colleagues, who were regarded as more outgoing, casual, and talkative.

A new perspective was offered by Nemtchinova (2005), who elicited the opinion of a group of host teachers about non-native student teachers who were doing their practice teaching in an MA TESOL program. The results were that NNESTs, in general, perceived as well prepared and able to build good relationship with their students. However, several host teachers perceived a lack of self-confidence by NNESTs, generally visible through their excessively tough self-evaluations.

According to Eisenstein and Berkowitz (1981), the adult ESL learners can understand standard native English speakers better than non-standard English, including foreign-accented English. Similar studies have shown that among foreign-accented varieties of English, familiar accents of English are easier for learners to understand and learn compared than unfamiliar accents of English (Tauroza & Luk, 1997; Wilcox, 1978).

2.3 Linguistic Insecurity (LI)

In this section, the notion and the history of linguistic insecurity will be explained and its sources will be discussed. Beside the English literature, the researcher has also benefited from the French literature because of the rich studies on linguistic insecurity in French language. The source of these studies are the diversity of French speaking people in many countries worldwide in most of which French is the second language or one of some official languages, and therefore Francophones are exposed to the feeling of linguistic insecurity. Many conversant French linguists and psychologists have been studied linguistic insecurity (e.g. Aude Bretegnier, Marie-Louise Moreau, Louis-Jean Calvet, Michel Francard) some of which will be mentioned below.

2.3.1 The Notion of Linguistic Insecurity

The anxiety or lack of confidence experienced by speakers and writers, who believe that their use of language does not conform to the principles and practices of standard language, is called linguistic insecurity. While there seems to be no lack of confidence in exporting native models of English as a foreign language, it is at the same time almost paradoxical to find among the entire major Anglophone nations such enormous linguistic insecurity about the standards of English usage.

Bucci and Baxter (1984) define linguistic insecurity as the negative self-image of a speaker regarding his or her own speech variety or language. It might happen if the speaker compares his or her phonetic and syntactic characteristics of speech with those characteristics of what is perceived to be the "correct" form of the spoken language.

The definition of linguistic insecurity given by Francard describes the awareness by speakers of a language about the distance between their idiolect (or sociolect) and a language they recognize as legitimate because it belongs to the ruling class or to other communities where they speak French as "pure", not bastardized version by interference of another language (Francard, 1993).

According to Francard, the state of insecurity is seen in representations as those he describes for Belgium's French-speaking community: a) subjection to exogenous linguistic model, resulting in cultural and linguistic dependence on France; b) depreciation of one's own language practices and variety; c) ambivalence of linguistic representations, leading speakers to resort to compensation strategies, such as attributing qualities to their native variety (effectiveness, complicity, warmth, coexistence, etc.) which are denied to the dominant variety; d) experts' pessimism towards the future of French, a feeling of threat expressed especially concerning the role of French within the world language market, completely taken over by the English language (Francard 1993a, 63-68; Francard 1993b, 14-17).

It is under this new perspective that Francard (1997, 171-72) defines LI as:

"la manifestation d'une quête de légitimité linguistique, vécue par un groupe social dominé, qui a une perception aiguisée tout à la fois des formes linguistiques qui attestent sa minorisation et des formes linguistiques à acquérir pour progresser dans la hiérarchie sociale": the manifestation of a linguistic legitimacy quest, experienced by a dominated social group, who has a sharpened linguistic forms perception which is needed to be acquired in order to obtain social progress.

It was also Francard (1989; 1993a) who described the relationship between the degree of schooling and the degree of LI, emphasizing the role of schools as LI generators: "it is not arbitrary to attribute to the educational institution an essential role in the emergence of linguistic insecurity attitudes" (Francard 1993a, 40). Indeed, in present times schools are the main institutions disseminating prestigious social norms regarding language usage. Therefore, the knowledge of the prestigious norm is directly related to the degree of schooling, and this knowledge allows speakers to be aware of the distance between their speech and the prestigious model. The paradoxical consequence is that speakers most familiar with the language norm are those who, at the same time, show a lower degree of confidence, that is, a greater insecurity regarding language usage: "the most educated individuals have the most negative assessments of language use" (Francard 1989, 151).

2.3.2 History of Linguistic Insecurity

The study of linguistic insecurity is relatively recent since its emergence in 1960. Theoretical and methodological analysis of linguistic insecurity demonstrates that it has been derived from a complex reality. The lack of a unified definition accepted by all can prove this fact. First, a brief presentation of the theoretical framework of the concept of linguistic insecurity will help to clarify the field.

A search in the literature shows that this concept has primarily been studied by E. Haugen who introduced the term Schizoglossia into linguistics. Schizoglossia refers to a language complex or rather linguistic insecurity about one's mother tongue. It mostly appears where there are two language varieties one of which is considered as proper and the other one as incorrect.

Research on the notion of linguistic insecurity has experienced three great founding periods; the psychology specialists were the first to study the concept of linguistic consciousness among the French-English bilinguists in Canada in the 1960s. Canadian psychologists and linguists focused on psychological features more than linguistic aspects. It is important to note that these studies attest to the linguistic insecurity even though they do not use the term.

The second period was marked by the work of William Labov and his successors in North America and Europe. Haugen's work was followed by W. Labov in the 1960s who expressed

the initial definition of the notion of linguistic insecurity in systematic terms. This notion has been more complex now than Labov's original index.

Labov set the stage for other scholars to go further and study several aspects of linguistic insecurity in psychological, sociolinguistic and educational fields. Nicole Gueunier et al. (1978) were the first to apply Labov's concept to the French-speaking world.

The third period of research was mainly located in Belgium (e.g. Lafontaine, 1986; Francard et al., 1993) where the scholars began to explore the concept of linguistic insecurity in academia.

Finally, most of the investigations on linguistic insecurity in terms of French-speaking area are based on researches conducted within countries where different languages or varieties of the same language coexist (e.g. Swiss, Singy, 1997; French-speaking Belgium, Francard, 1989, 1990, and 1993).

However, research in the field of linguistic insecurity is limited to the speakers of the language whether they are native or not. Researchers have also examined language learners as subjects to linguistic insecurity, but so far very few research studies have been conducted about socio-professional groups of language teachers. The most outstanding work, which questioned non-native teachers' linguistic insecurity, is done by Roussi. In her research study, Roussi (2009) examines the notion of linguistic insecurity as it is experienced by Greek teachers of French. She used individual and semi-structured interviews in her study to help the interviewees express themselves on their perception of the linguistic insecurity and the strategies to deal with it.

2.3.3 Sources of Linguistic Insecurity

A lot of surveys and research were conducted in the field of linguistic insecurity with a focus on the causes and manifestations of this phenomenon, trying to identify the characteristics observed in the verbal behavior. However, the fact is that linguistic insecurity remains a complex and multiform reality, making it difficult to assess this phenomenon.

Linguistic insecurity is situationally induced and is often a matter of the feeling of inadequacy regarding personal performance in certain contexts rather than a fixed attribute of an individual. This insecurity can lead to stylistic and phonetic shifts away from an affected

speaker's default speech variety; these shifts may be performed consciously on the part of the speaker, or may be reflective of an unconscious effort to conform to a more prestigious or context-appropriate style of speech (Bucci & Baxter, 1984). Linguistic insecurity is linked to the perception of speech styles in any community, and according to Labov (1966) it may vary based on socioeconomic class and gender. It is also especially pertinent in multilingual societies.

Linguist and cultural historian Dennis Baron suggests that "linguistic insecurity has two sources: the notion of more or less prestigious dialects, on the one hand, and the exaggerated idea of correctness in language, on the other. . . . It might be additionally suggested that this American linguistic insecurity comes, historically, from a third source: a feeling of cultural inferiority (or insecurity), of which a special case is the belief that somehow American English is less good or proper than British English. Indeed, one can hear frequent comments made by Americans that indicate that they regard British English as a superior form of English" (1976).

Labov (2006) believes that lower-middle-class speakers have the greatest tendency towards linguistic insecurity, and therefore tend to adopt, even in middle age, the prestige forms used by the youngest members of the highest-ranking class. This linguistic insecurity is shown by the very wide range of stylistic variations used by lower-middle-class speakers; by their great fluctuation within a given stylistic context; by their conscious striving for correctness; and by their strongly negative attitudes towards their native speech pattern.

2.3.4 Labov's Perception of Linguistic Insecurity

In 1966, in his well-known Lower East Side New York City study, Labov conducted a survey among lower east side residents of the city to investigate some social attitudes. About 33,000 native English speakers participated in the survey and they were studied mainly in two manners: the index of linguistic insecurity and their linguistic attitudes.

Labov observed a discrepancy between the actual rate of realizations of certain variants and the rate which speakers claimed to use them. He believes that this divergence between actual behavior and self-assessment is an indicator of linguistic insecurity which is more likely to be seen in lower middle classes. Linguistically, this tendency to use correct forms and the awareness of stigmatized features, which they use in unmonitored speech (e.g. subjects would

claim to use *r*-full pronunciations in a given set of words when they did not so as much in their spontaneous usage), proves their linguistic insecurity and might cause them to self-assess unrealistically. Upper middle class speakers and working class speakers tend to be rather more linguistically secure and accurate in their self-assessment. Labov continued his interviews with questions about subjects' linguistic attitudes toward New York City speech and he found out that only half of the informants expressed a positive attitude towards New York City speech. In this approach, beside recognizing and identifying linguistic insecurity, he also concentrated on pronunciation standards, and therefore he found social distinctions among speakers of the same language.

Within Labov's variationist model, LI appears as one of the causes of language change because of the hypercorrection mechanisms it originates (Labov 2006, 318). The most insecure social groups regarding usage would be those with a greater sensitivity towards the prestigious linguistic forms, who desire to rise within the social scale, especially the low-middle class and females.

Although the term "linguistic insecurity" may be felt as somewhat inadequate in order to refer to a process of evaluation of linguistic prestige, it would be justified by the consequences it has among speakers. Thus, hypercorrection, doubt, nervousness, self-correction, erroneous perception of one's own speech pattern, or an important fluctuation between different speech styles have been associated with the language usage of insecure individuals (Labov, 2006, 322-23).

2.3.5 Types of linguistic Insecurity according to Calvet

In the 1990's, the studies on LI were expanded to multilingual environments, and the initial intralinguistic perspective became an interlinguistic one, including language contact situations (Bretegnier, 1996; Calvet, 1996; de Robillard, 1996). As a result, there was a proposal to include within the notion of linguistic insecurity, issues such as the status of languages in contact or the relations between languages and individual and group identities, within the social and language dynamics of language contact situations (Calvet, 1999; 2006).

Calvet described three different types of LI, which can appear separately or together:

a) Formal or Labovian insecurity; resulting from speakers' perception of the distance between their native language uses and those they consider most prestigious;

b) Statutory insecurity; the consequence of speakers' negative evaluation of the status of the language they use compared to that of another language or variety; and

c) identity insecurity; which takes place when speakers use a language or a linguistic variety different from that used by the community they identify themselves with or are members of (Calvet 2006, 133-45).

As one can observe, the first type of LI (formal insecurity) is an intralinguistic phenomenon between social varieties within the same language, whereas statutory or identity LI are, basically, interlinguistic phenomena taking place between clearly differentiated languages or linguistic varieties as perceived by speakers.

2.3.6 Linguistic Insecurity between dominant and dominated languages

Linguistic insecurity can arise in multilingual environments in speakers of the non-dominant language or of a non-standard dialect. Issues caused by the linguistic variation range from "total communication breakdowns involving foreign language speakers to subtle difficulties involving bilingual and bidialectal speakers" (Bucci & Baxter, 1984). Divergence from the standard variety by minority languages causes "a range of attitudinal issues surrounding the status of minority languages as a standard linguistic variety".

Moreau (1994) defines linguistic insecurity in the frame of dominant and dominated languages in a particular society. She believes it is through the relations of subgroups to the dominant group that language becomes richer and more complex as people within the minority subgroups oppose themselves to the dominant culture. In Moreau's view, dominated groups are forced into what she calls split subjectivity because they are required simultaneously to identify with the dominant group and to disassociate themselves from it. Their discourse is both distinct from and permeated by that of the dominant group. She offers to focus on training teachers who have been sensitized to plurality of the norms. More broadly, a linguistic policy, African for her case, is inseparable from politics in a larger sense.

Pratt (1987) cites Moreau: "Dissimilarities between language practices are meaningful only in the light of the [overall] social organization. Moreau argues that each class speaks to itself

according to the same hidden referent. This social referent is the dominant group…". There seems to be a minimum level of linguistic insecurity which no speaker is able to escape from. This is described by Ledegen (2000) as a healthy linguistic insecurity.

An example of mother tongue based linguistic insecurity in a multilingual environment is Quebecois French. Due to a general perception of Quebecois French as lacking in quality and diverging from the norm, French speaking Quebecers have suffered from a sense of linguistic insecurity. Though French is widely spoken in Quebec, the French of France is considered by many to be the standard and prestigious form. This comparison and the fact that Quebec French diverges from the "standard" form of France, has caused linguistic insecurity among Quebec speakers.

Due to the separation from France after the Treaty of Paris in 1763 and the multilingual environment, Quebec French become more anglicized through English pronunciations and borrowings. Though French Canadian speakers were aware of the differences between Quebec French and French, the foreign perception of Quebec French as "non-standard" was not an issue until the mid 19th century. The opinions of the French elite that Quebec French was "far removed from the prestigious variety spoken in Paris" had spread through the general public by the end of the 19th century causing a deep sense of linguistic insecurity in French speaking Quebec. The insecurity was twofold given that Quebeckers spoke neither the dominant English language nor French, as they were being told (Oakes, 2007).

2.3.7 Most Common Effects of Linguistic Insecurity

2.3.7.1 Hypercorrection

One documented linguistic effect of linguistic insecurity is hypercorrection. Hypercorrection is the over-application of a perceived rule of grammar in order to appear more formal or to appear to belong to a more prestigious speech community. A common instance of hypercorrection in English is the use of the personal pronouns "you and I" as a correction of "me and you" in situations in which the accusative personal pronoun "me" is more appropriate. Because the use of "you and I" is internalized as the more grammatically sound form in the mind of many English speakers, that rule becomes over-applied in a situation when a speaker wants to compensate for perceived linguistic deficiencies. A speaker may try to avoid feelings of linguistic insecurity and perceived stigmatization by projecting a more

educated or formal identity and emulating what is perceived as a more prestigious speech variety. Inadvertently, hypercorrection may index a speaker as belonging to the very social class or societal group that led to the linguistic insecurity. For example, linguist Donald Winford (1978) found after studying Trinidadian English that there was a stigmatization associated with less prestigious phonological variants, creating a situation in which individuals belonging to a "lower" social class would attempt to replicate phonological aspects of the more prestigious forms of English, but did not do so successfully, thus engaging in hypercorrection.

2.3.7.2 Shifting Registers

Speakers experiencing linguistic insecurity may also undergo, either consciously or unconsciously, a change in register from their default language variety. Linguistic register refers to a variety of speech in a given language that corresponds to a specific situational purpose or social setting. An example of the phonological impact of register in English is when speaking in a formal setting, it is customary to pronounce words ending in "-ing" with a velar nasal rather than substituting it for the [n] sound that is typical of "-ing" endings in informal speech. A register shift cannot always be accounted for by documenting the individual phonological differences in speech from one's default speech variety to the newly registered speech variety, but instead may include a difference in the overall "tenor" of speech and in the way a speaker gives deference to his/her interlocutors who are more experienced in interacting in that register. Huspek (1986) believes that having to navigate in a linguistic register markedly different from one's own speech variety can be a catalyst for hypercorrection and other behavioral effects of linguistic insecurity that can further contribute to a sense of communicative inadequacy if the speaker feels he is not convincingly interacting in that linguistic register.

2.3.8 Gender and Linguistic Insecurity

In the 1960s, sociolinguists began to do research on gender and sex and its relationship to language. Specifically, these studies have mostly centered on the differences in speech behavior of men and women at the phonological level, and the conversational styles of men and women in discourse. Studies of gender-specific variation are diverse and often contradictory, depending on such factors as researchers' assumptions about sex and gender,

the methodology, and the samples used. Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (2003) have summed up the varied positions in stating:

> "Women's language has been said to reflect their... conservativism, prestige consciousness, upward mobility, insecurity, deference, nurture, emotional expressivity, connectedness, sensitivity to others, solidarity. And men's language is heard as evincing their toughness, lack of affect, competitiveness, independence, competence, hierarchy, control."

Owens and Baker (1984) used the CILI (Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity) and ILI (Index of Linguistic Insecurity) test to conclude that women are more linguistically insecure than men. Out of a sampling data of 80 participants, 42 of which were female, women scored higher on the ILI and the CILI, a result which indicates high manifest linguistic insecurity. On the CILI, the mean score was 3.23 for females and 2.10 for males. On the ILI, the means scores were 2.23 for females and 1.40 for males. Though the t-tests for the differences were only significant at .07 and .06 levels, the authors feel that this was due to a small sample size and that the uniformity of the results was enough to confirm their hypothesis. Additionally, these findings are consistent with Labov's original New York study and lead to the conclusion by Owens and Baker that women display more linguistic insecurity than men.

In his study of New York City, Labov found that men's pronunciation varied very little between formal and less formal speech, while women's pronunciation varied a great deal. Female speakers displayed a greater degree of style-shifting; moreover, *women* were using new advanced forms in casual speech, and thus initiating change. However, in Martha's Vineyard Labov (1990) discovered a different pattern: *men*, not women, were initiating change. Labov examined changes in diphthongs (/aw/ as in *house* and /ay/ as in *white* were becoming raised and centralized). He concluded that there was no *conscious* awareness among the islanders that these sounds were shifting since he found no variation between different styles of speech (i.e. individuals did not vary their pronunciation depending on the context). Labov found that the centralized diphthongs were used mostly by *men* (specifically fishermen) aged 31-45, and that the diphthongs were in fact a reversion to older and more conservative phonological forms. Labov argued that the diphthongs were used by fishermen as a sign of solidarity; use of the variants symbolized identification with the island and its values, and a rejection of the new incoming summer visitors.

2.3.9 Linguistic Insecurity of Non-native English Speaking Teachers

While the linguistic insecurity of speakers of a language is mostly related to their pronunciation, in the case of non-native teachers it is referred to the feeling of insecurity when teaching grammar, vocabulary and also pronunciation. Individuals may have preferences about teaching particular skills or components but obviously they seem to feel unsafe when teaching special skills or components if they feel linguistically insecure about that part.

The emphasis on *native speaking teacher*s' correctness, whatever its source, seems to have the effect of arousing feelings of linguistic insecurity among non-native speaking teachers. For non-native teachers of English, it means their acceptance of the negative stereotyping of their English by the native speaking community, regardless of the fact the kind of English spoken between its native speakers, is not appropriate to most non-native speaking communities (Jenkins, 2004).

According to Gagliardi and Maley (2010), almost 98% of Italian foreign language teachers are native Italian speakers who often describe their linguistic insecurity in the foreign language they teach as the major professional weakness affecting the development of their professional identity. As non-natives, they experience the uneasiness of teaching a language whose cultures they have seldom been extensively exposed to. It is not only the case with Italian foreign language teachers, but also with teachers in other countries. Most of foreign language teachers in each country seem to be native speakers of that country and the feeling of linguistic insecurity is common to all non-native teachers of foreign languages.

Medgyes (1992) points out that NNESTs usually feel unsafe using the language they have to teach. Due to this fear, they tend to adopt two kinds of attitudes: pessimistic or aggressive. Both of these feelings are deterrent and can disturb teaching process. To recognize and investigate the negative consequences of feeling high level of linguistic insecurity was the initial motivation of the researcher to conduct this research study.

2.3.10 NNESTs and Their LI on Twitter #ELTchat

#ELTchat is a twice-weekly Twitter discussion that is all about English Language Teaching (ELT). It takes place on Wednesdays at 12pm and 9pm London time. Every week, hundreds of English language teachers and other professionals dedicate their tweets for an hour to a

topic about ELT on #ELTchat. #ELTchatters propose topics for discussion and these are chosen before the chats by means of a twtpoll. After getting interested in this chat, the researcher started to explore the former chats when she found one related to this research study. On 27 April 2011 at 9pm BST, the topic for #ELTchat had been "non-native teachers of English and their insecurities about teaching a language that is not their mother tongue". After discussing the benefits and disadvantages of being either a NEST or NNEST, non-native English speaking teachers describe their insecurities as following:

- pronunciation, and in particular accuracy thereof and of being able to 'pronounce words [they may] never have heard before' (@hakan_sentrk),

- dealing with different dialects and accents in English-speaking countries and around the world (@ShellTerrell),

- general confidence using the language, especially when they might be 'corrected by someone with a "how dare you" look?' upon making a mistake (@hakan_sentrk)

- dealing with collocations (@pacogascon)

- dealing with a climate where the learners (for whatever reason) want a native-speaker teacher

- @ShellTerrell also mentioned colleagues she knew who hadn't been allowed to speak at conferences as they were not native speakers

Actually there are relatively few NESTs in EFL field in some countries and the teaching body is predominately made up of NNESTs. For example in Turkey, when you look at private language schools where EFL is taught, the native speaker is king/queen.

So, how can NNESTs deal with these insecurities? There were also suggestions by participants in the chat:

- @tarabenwell: we can all improve by focusing on "intelligibility" rather than "accent",

- @maikelfontes: Teachers can get a wide range of accents to listen to from podcasts like the BBC ones,

- @BethCagnol: I think it's healthy to use materials that show worldwide uses of Eng to debunk the myth that it belongs to any one culture/nation,

- @divyabrochier: So LOADS of listening – and more listening and more listening – and KARAOKE! #ELTchat for pronunciation practice

- @lolonagi: recording ourself audacity and listening to our recording,

- @japglish: skype based language exchanges for free.

However, these are personal ideas of some NNESTs. The researcher found these statements interesting to be added to this research study as authentic material. Indeed, some of the statements above inspired the researcher in composing the questionnaire. And more interestingly, the discussion is mostly about pronunciation of the language and the participants as NNESTs, hardly mentioned their insecurities about vocabulary, grammar teaching, or the four skills.

2.4 Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is defined as "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or utilizing a second language" (Young, 1999) and is one of the most significant factors affecting the language learning process. Horwitz & Cope (1986) define foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). Maclnytre and Gardner (1994) define foreign language anxiety as the feeling of worry, nervousness and apprehension of individuals when learning or using a second or foreign language. They believe that this feeling may stem from any second language context whether associated with the productive skills of speaking and writing, or the receptive skills of reading and listening.

Although a number of studies (e.g. Gregersen, 2003; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Price, 1991) found that high levels of anxiety usually had a negative effect on the language acquisition process, some studies (e.g. Cheng, 2002; Ewald, 2007; Horwitz et al., 1986) revealed that anxiety had a positive effect on language learning and achievement. Moreover, a plethora of studies investigated foreign language anxiety with respect to specific language skills, such as reading, listening, writing, and speaking (Cheng et al., 1999; Saito, Horwitz, &

Garza, 1999; Sellers, 2000). Most language learners experience a feeling of anxiety in the process of language learning. Although the degree and severity of this feeling may vary from one individual to another, it cannot be claimed that it does not exist at all.

The reason that foreign language anxiety is discussed is that most of the time it might be the first which comes to mind when speaking about linguistic insecurity. But there are numbers of differences. The first and most important distinctive factor is that the essence of foreign language anxiety comes from acquisition of a language while linguistic insecurity basically emerges from using the language.

2.4.1 Causes of Foreign Language Anxiety

According to Horwirz et al. (1986), all aspects of using and learning a foreign language can cause anxiety, but listening and speaking are regularly the most anxiety provoking of foreign language activities.

They have separated the causes of foreign language anxiety into three main components: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is the anxiety experienced when speaking to or listening to other individuals. Test-anxiety is a form of performance anxiety associated with the fear of doing badly, or indeed failing altogether. Fear of negative evaluation is the anxiety associated with the learner's perception of how other onlookers (instructors, classmates or others) may negatively view their language ability.

There can also be various physical causes of anxiety (such as hormone levels) but the underlying causes of excessive anxiety whilst learning are fear and a lack of confidence, which can come from various causes.

2.4.2 Foreign Language Anxiety of Non-native EFL Teachers

A number of researchers investigated the notion of language teaching anxiety. For example, Numrich (1996) investigated anxiety as a part of problems experienced by language teachers. Analyzing the diary entries by non-native ESL teachers, the researcher put forward that teachers were feeling anxious in times of feeling insufficient for effective grammar teaching, time management in class, and giving instructions for classroom activities. Kim and Kim

(2004) found that most anxiety-provoking situations for student teachers were as follows: when they have to teach English through English; when they are asked unexpected questions; when they have to teach speaking; when students are not motivated or are not interested in their English classes; when they cannot control students; when they have to teach students who have lived in English-speaking countries; when someone observes their English classes; when they teach English listening; and when they teach English culture. The sources of foreign language teaching anxiety were listed as limited English proficiency, lack of confidence, lack of knowledge about linguistics and education, insufficient class preparation, being compared to native teachers, fear of negative evaluation, and lack of teaching experience.

In a Turkish context, İpek (2007) conducted a study to device a valid and reliable instrument to measure the level of foreign language teaching anxiety experienced by Turkish EFL teachers. Data were collected from 32 nonnative teachers of English with daily kept diaries and semi-structured interviews. The analyses of the data, first, revealed six categories for the sources of anxiety: making mistakes, teaching a particular language area, using the native language, teaching students at particular language levels, fear of failure, and being compared to fellow native teachers. Second, the qualitative data collected led to the development of a valid and reliable scale for measuring foreign language teaching anxiety. The final version of the "Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale" (FLTAS) appeared as a five-point Likert-type scale with 26 items.

Merç's (2004) study on problems of pre-service EFL teachers identified that anxiety was one of the most frequently reported problems of pre-service teachers completing their teaching practicum at Anadolu University, Faculty of Education. The sources of anxiety reported by the student teachers were: anxiety because of the previous experience, anxiety caused by a big class, anxiety caused by feeling of incompetence in teaching, anxiety caused by being observed, anxiety due to being recorded, anxiety due to using a new teaching technique, anxiety due to using the time effectively, anxiety in the pre-active stage, anxiety of being observed by the cooperating teacher, anxiety of being unfamiliar with students, anxiety of teaching a new/different level, anxiety of using a new/different device, first-day anxiety, negative attitude of student teachers toward the class, and anxiety of not achieving the objectives.

Following Horwitz et al.'s (1986) and İpek's (2007) models, Yuksel (2008) conducted a study to investigate the Turkish pre-service language teachers' teaching anxiety in relation with their language learning anxiety. The study also aimed to find out the strategies for coping with teaching anxiety. 63 pre-service teachers of English answered three questionnaires: the FLCAS, the FLTAS, and an open-ended questionnaire. The quantitative analysis of the data showed that preservice English teachers were experiencing anxiety on a scale between rarely to sometimes. Teaching a particular language skill such as grammar, listening or speaking skills was found to be the highest concern to preservice teachers. The analysis also revealed that female and male pre-service teachers did not differ in terms of their level of teaching anxiety. The results also showed that foreign language learning anxiety was not correlated with the foreign language teaching anxiety.

2.4.2.1 Sources of Teachers' Anxiety

Research on the topic of anxiety has shown that many factors affect the amount of anxiety perceived by teachers. Sex, experience, school type, physical condition of the class and school, personality, students' characteristics, relationship with administrators and students' parents, the context, grade level of teaching, family concerns, monetary problems changes in national or local curriculum are not all but some of the factors contributing to the level of stress and its consequences. Shillingford et al. (2012) point out that teachers encounter a plethora of challenges, for example, educational, legislation, school reform policies, teacher-parent relationships, conflict with other teachers, etc. that could potentially induce symptoms of anxiety. There is a belief that circumstances in which teachers are working force them to do their job badly. For example, to take physical condition of a language center into account, most such places in the context of Iran are old buildings with no proper ventilation and shabby classes which get on teachers nerves. Travers & Cooper(1996), citing the words of other scholars working in the field, pointed out that the inappropriate primary factors directly affect teaching, create limitation or produce tension. Such primary factors in particular include poor physical working conditions, inadequate school buildings and equipment, an unpleasant work environment, class sizes and noise level.

2.4.2.2 The Effect of Experience on Teachers' Anxiety

The amount of job related stress in teaching is not uniform and it may fluctuate over the course of the career as it is greatly influenced by surroundings and life hallmarks. Experience as another important stress related factor in teaching profession plays a prominent role in the level of stress and the types of stressors.

In their research, Klassen and Chiu (2010) found that there is a relationship between the years of experience and challenges academics face on the job. It is claimed that novice teachers have challenging time teaching the subject matter; however, middle and late career stages bring their own challenges that can influence satisfaction. Findings of a study in India showed that junior college teachers experienced significantly higher level in some stressors in comparison to senior teachers (Kumar & Deo, 2011). In an investigation by Ameen et al. (2010) which was done among accounting professors in the United State, it was found that teaching anxiety is mainly associated with rank, age and years of experience. Age and experience have also been linked to the experience of stress in teaching in that it has often been suggested that the highest levels of stress might be experienced by recent entrants to the profession (usually younger teachers). This may be due to the fact that they have not yet acquired the expertise required to cope with the job (Travers & Cooper, 1996). A study by Coates and Thoresen (1976) concluded that younger and less experienced teachers felt greater stress than their colleagues from pressures associated with discipline, poor promotion prospects and management issues. Edworthy (1988) discovered that a major source of stress for younger teachers was pupils' general low ability. An Australian study by Lauglin (1984) suggested that the chief concerns of younger teachers are the pupils, whereas for those in their middle years the major source of stress is career aspects and the actual teaching itself is the problem for older teachers. Gardner & Leak (1994) investigated teaching anxiety among college educators and found that 87% of 102 respondents experienced teaching anxiety. They claimed that teaching anxiety is more likely to occur at the beginning of the term and certain demographic characteristics were correlated with it. However they only conducted the study among psychology teachers who are professional in the field of psychology and are well-aware of the methods of handling such anxious situation.

2.4.2.3 The Effect of Gender on Teachers' Anxiety

As a matter of fact, male and female teachers perceive the threatening situations differently because of their biological, psychological, physiological and emotional differences. A male teacher may handle a special circumstance easily while their opposite sex may experience a high level of anxiety and stress. Putter (2003), besides proposing teaching as a stressful job, claimed that there are no meaningful differences in the amount of stress in regard to gender, age and teaching experience. Varda and Akhtar (1989) found that male teachers working in the university, experience more social and family role stress in comparison to the opposite gender. In addition, they claimed that married teachers experience more stress than unmarried teachers. Dang and Gupta (1994) explored the effect of work set-up, behavior pattern and gender on various role stressors of lecturers. It was found that only "work set-up" accounted for significant differences in stress level (Komar & Deo, 2011). In an investigation among college teachers of Bihar and Jharkhand in India having 100 teachers from different universities in the study, Kumar and Deo (2011) discovered that junior college teachers experienced extremely more stress on most of the dimensions of stress in comparison to senior teachers. What's more, it was found that female teachers suffer from more stress in comparison to their male counterparts. The level of anxiety or stress is not the only variation between two different genders. The type of stressors also can be distinct between them. For example, Greenglass and Burke (2003) proposed that the elevated job stress of females might stem from gender differences in non-working domains, with higher total workload and higher role conflict between work and family. Working on the effect of female teachers' math anxiety on girls' math achievement, Beilock, Gunderson, Ramirez, and Levine (2009) asserted that when the math-anxious individuals are female elementary school teachers, their math anxiety carries negative consequences for the math achievement of their female students. Veronica (2011) in a research in which stress was indicated by the level of depression and anxiety sough to find the relationship between stress and job satisfaction among university teachers among Romanian academics. Beside the noticeable variations among teachers with different types of employment, he found that there is a negative correlation between stress and job satisfaction, and women reported a high level of anxiety and depression and a low level of job satisfaction. Veronica attributed the differences found in the level of anxiety between male and female teachers to their emotional abilities since they seem to be individuals' internal resources with a great role in protection and maintenance of emotional health and dealing with the threatening situations. In an investigation of the level of

occupational stress and job satisfaction among male and female teachers of higher education, Mishra (1996) found significant differences between male and female teachers in the areas of private life, work overload, underload, role conflict and interpersonal stress. Female teachers experienced more stress in these areas as compared to male teachers. Mishra also observed significant differences between male and female teachers on overall stress and job satisfaction.

2.5 Productive Skills

Language ability has been divided into four main skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and reading are known as receptive skills; while speaking and writing are known as productive skills. Speaking and writing are also known as active skills because learners doing these need to produce language virtually.

The main goal of most ESL learners is to acquire language skills that will enable them to communicate effectively. Of course, it is important to understand a person speaking to you, but if you cannot respond with an understandable answer, the communication is most likely to get blocked. Whether these interactions are verbal or written, a person unable to share their point-of-view, thank someone, or defend their actions, will inevitably have difficult time connecting with people. Communication takes on many forms and since clear and successful communication is the ultimate goal in the ESL classroom, writing and speaking become the focus.

2.5.1 Writing

Writing, as a productive skill, serves different functions in society. In everyday life, writing is used for sharing information (newspaper), for entertainment (comics and computer games), for social contact (e-mails, SMss, and social networks), and etc. When we write, we communicate a message. This message can be responding to an invitation or expressing somebody's regret or apology. Langan (2001) defined writing as "a process that involves discovering a thesis, supporting it, organizing thoughts for the first draft, revising and editing the final one".

Baruah (1985) has mentioned the relevant components of writing; he calls writing as a complex skill. These components are writing of letters of alphabet at reasonable speed, spelling the words correctly, recalling appropriate words and putting them in sentences, using appropriate punctuation marks, using sentence-connectors and sequence signals (e.g. pronouns, definite articles, etc.), organizing thoughts and ideas in logical sequence, and so on.

When writing, we should distinguish between accuracy and fluency. The aim of English teaching is to enable learners to produce fluent, understandable, accurate, and appropriate written English. Broughton, et al. (1980) state that English teachers can use three stages of writing: controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. Controlled writing is sensible to distinguish between writing exercises in which the final product is linguistically determined by the teacher and exercises in which the final content is determined. In guided writing, the teacher provides the situation and helps the class to prepare the written work. In free writing, a title is provided and everything is done by the student. Broughton also claims that it is necessary for students to start with controlled writing and when they become more confident in controlled exercises, then more and more guided writing exercises should be available. This suggestion is well-organized because students need to be guided as they frequently do not have sufficient vocabulary or grammar to successfully accomplish what is expected in free writing.

2.5.1.1 Writing for Learning

In writing for learning, students write predominantly for the betterment of their grammar and vocabulary abilities. Harmer (2004) divides writing for learning into:

1. Reinforcement writing

2. Preparation writing

3. Activity writing

2.5.1.1.1 Reinforcement Writing

It is a simple form where students are supposed to write sentences, paragraphs, or rather compositions in order to practice the grammar or other aspects of language which have recently been learnt. For example, students can be asked to write about their best holiday to

practice past tenses, or to write a description of someone they know to recycle the characteristics and physical description vocabulary. The aim of this phase is to give students opportunity to practice and remember the new language they have learnt.

2.5.1.1.2. Preparation Writing

When learning a second language, sometimes it is more useful to use writing as preparation for some other activities. J. Harmer suggests using preparation writing for example when students are asked to prepare discussion. According to Harmer (2004), writing sentences "gives the students time to think up ideas rather than have to come up with instant fluent opinions, something that many, especially at lower level, find difficult and awkward" (p. 33). Another technique that Harmer suggests to use is for students to talk in groups to prepare their arguments. It is effective for students to make notes which they can use during their discussion. Here we can state that this is a good way of teaching writing in mixed ability classes. Preparation writing can be a vital help for weaker or shy students who are not so confident to speak immediately.

2.5.1.1.3 Activity Writing

Writing is frequently used with activities that focus on something else such as language practice, acting out or speaking. Activity writing is used with activities in which students are asked to write their dialogue before they act it out. It is helpful for students to plan and write the dialogue before they act it out. Other types are questionnaire-type activities. Groups of students design a questionnaire and then they circulate around the class asking their classmates the questions they have prepared. They write down the answers and later students report what they have found out. The aim of activity writing is to use writing to help students to perform other activities, but Harmer (2004) believes that "students need to be able to write to do these activities, but the activities do not teach students to write" (p. 33).

2.5.1.2 Writing for writing

In this phase of writing, students are able to study written texts to become better writers. Writing for writing includes activities such are writing stories or poems, journals or creating dramatic scenarios. These tasks "force" students to express more personal and more complex

thoughts. But this is not easy because most of students feel limited by knowledge of second language and they do not feel so ambitious and do not want to take risks.

2.5.2 Speaking

Speaking belongs to productive skills and it is more frequently used than writing. In learning a second or foreign language, speaking is supposed to be the most important of all four key language skills. Indeed, one frustration commonly voiced by learners is that they have spent years studying English, but still they cannot speak it.

There are numerous daily life situations where people need speaking, such as talking to someone face to face, communicating through the phone, answering questions, asking for directions, in shops, meetings or chatting with their friends, to name a few. People spend great deal of their time interacting with more people, and each of these situations requires a different register according to the formality of the moment.

The main function of spoken language is to socialize individuals and help them express themselves in temporary, spontaneous and variable oral situations. As Ur (1996) states, speaking is deemed to be the most important in learning a second or foreign language because it includes all other skills and components of knowing that language.

However, human communication is a complex process. People need communication when they want to say something, transmit information or need to speak. Speakers use communication when they want to express or inform someone about something. Harmer states that they use language according to their purposes, and it is necessary for them to be a listener and a speaker for effective communication (p. 46).

Harmer (2007) also explains that: "When speaking, we construct words and phrases with individual sounds, and we also use pitch change, intonation, and stress to convey different meanings" (p. 29).

On the contrary to writing, spoken language is processed and produced in real time, and so the speaker and hearer have limited time to plan and produced what they want to say and understand what they hear.

According to Munby (1978), speaking involves articulation of all the components and development of communicative competence at the productive level.

Rao (2002) reports that after studying for several years, students gain knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, so they can read well and get high marks in English exams. However, their problems in English listening and speaking skills stem from lack of good training in these skills which prevent them from using English for communication in their daily lives.

The main aim of teaching speaking is to communicate efficiently. The goal is to send meaningful messages to express one and to avoid misunderstanding due to faulty vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Brown (1994) labels speaking as the most challenging skill for students because of the set of features that characterize oral discourse:

- Contractions, vowel reductions and elision;

- The use of slang and idioms;

- Stress, rhythm and intonation;

- The need to interact with at least one other speaker.

Apart from the formerly mentioned expressive possibilities, L1 speakers use some mechanisms to facilitate their speech. These mechanisms are not too easy for L2 speakers and consist of simplifying the language making simple structures: they usually omit parts of a sentence and use idiomatic expressions to facilitate the oral fluency and fillers and hesitation devices are also frequent. According to Bueno et al. (2006), L1 speakers can correct themselves, reformulate or rephrase sentences, a frequent kind of alteration accepted by the community of speakers in order to compensate their difficulties (p. 325).

Spoken English cannot usually be planned or organized; unless it is preparing a speech or a presentation, there is not much time for reflection, so it is frequently full of repetitions, pauses, incomplete sentences, hesitations or fillers. It needs the response of another speaker or listener, it usually comes into the form of turns and when speakers are talking, they must also pay attention to gestures, intonation, stress or even pauses that other speakers are using because they are clues to understanding the meaning of what they are trying to say.

Basically, the importance of the productive skills and the role of EFL teachers in the development of these skills formed the initial outline of the present study. We all know that in

EFL classrooms, sufficient and accurate input will ease the learning process and is more likely to cause obtaining favorable output. Productive skills are considered as the final output of EFL teaching. Any deficiency or imperfection during the teaching can damage the quality of the output. Linguistic insecurity of teachers, as a destructive factor, may a have negative influence on the final results of English learning and as the non-native EFL teachers feel more linguistic insecurity, the researcher decided to examine the relationship between NNESTs linguistic insecurity and learners' writing and speaking scores.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

In order to increase the usefulness and validity of the findings, the researcher decided to triangulate the data collection procedure. For the purpose of this mixed-method research and in order to discuss issue under investigation better, qualitative open-ended interviews were used which gave the researcher the access to participants' perspectives, and scaled-response questionnaires which enabled us to systematically measure certain factors in the first phase. Besides, standard Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was used to measure teachers' proficiency level. This triangulation was done in order to increase the validity and reliability of the results.

In the second phase which aims at studying the relationship between NNEST linguistic insecurity and EFL learners' productive skills, learners' mid-term and final exams will be investigated in writing sections; in addition, participants will be interviewed two times.

For the measurement of linguistic insecurity, the researcher executed a convergent parallel design as qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously and independently, and then the results were analyzed. Moreover, equal weight was given to the quant and qual data as the researcher was looking to compare and contrast the results to look for patterns or contradictions in the analysis phase.

In sum, as an integrated design, Creswell's Transformative Design (2003) was used in which qualitative material is collected and transformed into categorical data for further quantitative analysis. Thus, the researcher was able to derive both theory and generalizable results. For this purpose, the qualitative data out of interviews were transformed into codes and

quantitative numbers and combined with quantitative data from questionnaires. As a result, numeric results were obtained for the measurement of linguistic insecurity section which helped the researcher easily use correlation and two-tailed tests in order to compare the variables.

3.2 Participants

This research study consists of two phases. In the first phase, we aim at measuring non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity. The data from the first phase will be used in the second phase to study the relationship between NNEST linguistic insecurity and EFL learners' productive skills.

3.2.1 Non-native English Speaker Teachers

The participants in the first phase of this study are 18 non-native EFL teachers from a particular language center in Ankara, Turkey. Different courses are taught in this language institute, but the researcher has collected data only from group classes and general English classes. Private lessons and ESP courses are not investigated due to their low number of participants. It should also be mentioned that the majority of non-native teachers are Asians. The age of these participants ranges from 21 to 42 as shown in table 2.

Table 2

Teacher Participants' Demography

Gender	Age	Number
Male	23-42	8
Female	21-34	10

3.2.2 Students

The participants in second phase are 300 intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced EFL learners whose age ranges from 15 to 31. Their mid-term and final exams will be investigated

in writing sections; in addition, participants will be interviewed two times. All the data out of learners' writing exams and interview sessions are available in appendix E.

Two classes of each teacher were chosen during two successive semesters or rather nine months. The criterion for choosing the classes was the number of students. In other words, the researcher chose the classes with the highest number of students, so she could obtain more data. Student participants' demography is shown in table 3.

Table 3

Student Participants' Demography

Level	B1	B2	C1	C2
Number	112	95	49	44

3.3 Data Collection Tools

The data collection instruments used in the first phase are the following:

3.3.1 Questionnaire

In order to better discuss the issue under investigation, multiple-choice questionnaires were used which enabled the researcher to systematically measure certain factors. The main reason for using questionnaires as instruments was that many research projects were conducted in various contexts that asked teachers and students for their perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs. Following all questionnaire construction procedures the researcher developed the questionnaire which consists of two sections as following:

a. *Demographic questionnaire*, concerning participants' demographic profile (age, sex, ELT background, self-evaluation of their own linguistic competence, etc.)

b. *Linguistic insecurity perception questionnaire,* this original questionnaire consists of 13 scaled response questions and aims at assessing the perception and beliefs of participants regarding linguistic insecurity.

Questionnaires are available in appendix

3.3.1.1 The Questionnaire Pilot

As the questionnaire used in the first phase is an original one prepared by the researcher herself, so we felt necessity to apply piloting stage with a smaller group of non-native English teachers. This sample group consists of 12 English teachers with five different mother tongues which are Turkish, Azeri, Spanish, Dhivehi (Maldivian), and Hausa (Nigerian). According to Kachru's circles analogy (1996), all of these participants are from outer circle as they all come from countries where English is not native language. The teachers' demography is shown in table 4.

Table 4

Teacher Participants' Demography in Pilot Test

Gender	Age	Number
Female	21-34	5
Male	23-41	7

3.3.1.1.1 Reliability and Validity Analysis

It is obvious that a precise, reliable and valid instrumentation in a scientific study is important to collect the required accurate data for the study. Therefore, the questionnaire designed for the present research study is tested in terms of its reliability and validity. Reliability of the questionnaire was assured by using Cronbach's formula of finding alpha values (internal consistency method) and inter-item correlation (relationship among items). Besides, validity was assured (content, face, and construct validity). It took two steps to bring the questionnaire into the final shape. The initial version of the questionnaire had 15 items and was distributed among 8 participants. After analyzing the data and calculating its reliability by Cronbach's alpha, we found out that its alpha value (internal consistency) was <0.50, which means not acceptable as reliable. In the final version of the questionnaire all the values were within acceptable range after deleting two invalid cases and rearranging the statements. Thus, the instrument becomes reliable and valid to be used in the main study.

In order to measure the consistency of our research tool, the reliability of the questionnaire in the pilot test was tested by a statistical expert using SPSS statistics software. This procedure helped us to identify invalid cases and data values. For the present questionnaire, we calculated Cronbach's Alpha which is the most common measure of internal consistency (reliability). It is most commenly used when you have multiple Likert questions as in our questionnaire. As the Cronbach's Alpha is 0,791, so we can conclude that the questionnaire is reliable (values >0.70 are acceptable, Feldmann et al, 2007).

Table 5

Reliability Test of Questionnaire Piloting

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,791	,793	13

3.3.1.1.2.1 Case Processing Summary

All the questions were answered by the participants and this helped us to get a valid total value of the variables as shown in table 6.

Table 6

Case Processing Summary of Questionnaire Piloting

		N	**%**
Cases	**Valid**	12	100.0
	Excluded	0	,0
	Total	12	100,0

3.3.1.1.3 Validity of the Questionnaire

Validity of a research tool measures the accuracy of the tool. It is the degree to which an instrument measures what is supposed to be measured. Therefore, research tool should be made valid before using it in a study in order to collect the accurate and concise information.

3.3.1.1.3.1 Content Validity

Content validity was undertaken to ascertain whether the content of the questionnaire was appropriate and relevant to the study purpose. Content validity indicates the content reflecting a complete range of the attributes under the study and is usually undertaken by seven or more experts (Pilot & Hunger, 1999; DeVon et al., 2007). To estimate the content validity of the questionnaire, the researcher clearly defined the conceptual framework of linguistic insecurity by undertaking a thorough literature review and seeking expert opinion. Once the conceptual framework was established, three purposely chosen experts in the areas of teaching and statistics were asked to review the draft 15-item questionnaire to ensure it was consistent with the conceptual framework. Each reviewer independently rated the relevance of each item on the instrument to the conceptual framework using a 4-point Likert scale (1=not relevant, 2=somewhat relevant, 3=relevant, 4=very relevant). The Content Validity Index (CVI) was used to estimate the validity of the items (Lynn, 1996).

3.3.1.1.3.2 Face validity

Face validity indicates the questionnaire appears to be appropriate to the study purpose and content area. It evaluates the appearance of the questionnaire in terms of feasibility, readability, consistency of style and formatting, and the clarity of the language used (Trochim, 2001; DeVon et al. 2007). Thus, face validity is a form of usability rather than reliability. To determine the face validity of the questionnaire, an evaluation form was developed to help the experts assess each question in terms of:

a) The clarity of the wording,

b) The likelihood the target audience would be able to answer the questions,

c) The layout and style.

The three teaching and statistics experts read and evaluated the instrument according to the items above and the necessary changes were made to obtain the final version of the questionnaire. Besides, the twelve participants completed the face validity form on a Likert scale of 1-4, strongly disagree= 1, disagree= 2, agree= 3, and strongly agree= 4. The results were in agreement with the experts' opinions. It means that more than ninety-five percent of them understood the questions and found them easy to answer. They also agreed that the appearance and layout were acceptable.

Data out of questionnaires are available in appendix B.

3.3.2 English Proficiency Test

All the non-native English teachers participating in this research study have taken a standard Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) which helped us get standardized, unified, and quantitative data to compare participants' proficiency and their level of linguistic insecurity.

The TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) test is a standardized test of English language proficiency for non-native English language speakers. As described in their official website, this test measures the ability to use and understand English at university level and it evaluates how well an individual can combine his listening, reading, speaking and writing skills to perform academic tasks. Millions of people from all over the world take the TOEFL test to demonstrate their English-language proficiency. The average English skill level ranges between Intermediate and Advanced. There are different formats of this test which are explained below.

3.3.3 Interviews

Regarding the nature of interviews which can help the researcher provide reliable and comparable qualitative data, the researcher decided to use open-ended interviews in order to achieve in-depth and exclusive data about all participants. The interviews have been recorded and analyzed by the researcher. The researcher of this study used interview to complement the quantitative data and to cover some gaps that were not reflected upon in the questionnaire or that

might have occurred from the implementation of open-ended questions. The interview is composed of seven open-ended questions and it is available in appendix C.

3.3.4 TOEFL iBT (Internet-Based Test) vs. PBT (Paper-Based Test)

Although paper-based testing is still used in the select areas, the iBT format is progressively replacing it. iBT form includes reading, listening, speaking and writing sections which are mostly integrated. The four-hour test measures basic language skills and all tasks focus on language used in an academic, higher-education environment. PBT form consists of listening, structure and written expression, reading comprehension and writing. The TOEFL IBT test is scored on a scale of 0 to 120 points, which means that each of the four sections (Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing) receives a scaled score from 0 to 30. The scaled scores from the four sections are added together to determine the total score; while PBT form ranges between 310 and 677 and is based on three sub-scores: Listening (31–68), Structure (31–68), and Reading (31–67).There is a standardized chart to convert or rather compare TOEFL iBT and PBT scores. We used this chart in order to unify the proficiency score of participants who are non-native English teachers. Chart is available in TOEFLT official site. Teacher participants' proficiency test scores are available in appendix D.

Besides, table below shows the teachers' demography and proficiency test score in order to give an overall picture of the participants (Table 7).

Table 7

Teacher Participants' Demography and Proficiency Test Scores

No.	Teacher's code	Gender	Nationality	Mother tongue	age	Experience (year)	Proficiency test score
1	F.G.B.	F	Iranian	Azeri	34	12	**107**
2	N.A.	F	Maldivian	Dhivehi	27	3	**107**
3	C.L.	M	Nigerian	Housa	25	2	**114**
4	J.D.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	2	**99**
5	J.N.	F	Turkish	Turkish	21	1	**80**

6	L.B.A.	M	Turkish	Turkish	22	2	**80**
7	G.E.D.	F	Iranian	Azeri	28	7	**111**
8	SH.S.	M	Mexican	Spanish	26	2	**114**
9	D.A.	M	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	**77**
10	A.N.	M	Iranian	Persian	42	21	**117**
11	T.H.A.	F	Bosnian	Bosnian	26	2	**87**
12	D.V.	M	Nigerian	Housa	25	1	**84**
13	D.N.	F	Turkish	Turkish	27	2	**81**
14	O.R.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	**77**
15	S.N.E.	M	Turkish	Turkish	30	4	**81**
16	C.E.	F	Turkish	Turkish	25	2	**85**
17	D.K.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	**77**
18	J.E.	M	Spanish	Spanish	25	3	**91**

3.4 Data Analysis Procedure

After administrating the questionnaires and conducting the interviews, all the information out of questionnaires and proficiency tests were put in a table (table 7) in order to facilitate the process of linguistic insecurity level measurement. On the other hand, writing and speaking scores of the learners were asked from the institute administrators and collected (Appendix E). The writing and speaking scores are available in appendix. The average of each skill and each class was calculated and added to table 7 in order to have a more complete table (table 8). SPSS software version 23.0 was used to calculate the relationship between linguistic insecurity of teachers and learners' writing and speaking scores, relationship between experience and linguistic insecurity, and between gender and LI. The researcher also used one-way ANOVA Test to see whether there is a significant relationship between teacher participants' linguistic insecurity and learners' scores.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In the results section, we need to examine questionnaires and interviews and organize the data in an intelligible form for the easement of analyzing process. This is why the data out of proficiency tests, questionnaires, and interviews were tabulated. Accordingly, the researcher had to measure linguistic insecurity of NNESTs first, and then she could do the tests in an organized and meaningful way. Measurement of linguistic insecurity requires the data out of questionnaires and interviews to be interpreted in a qualitative way which is going to be explained in next section. In addition to the research questions, some supplemental findings were acquired such as the relationship between age and linguistic insecurity, experience and proficiency test score (PTS), etc., which are shown in the following.

4.2 Measurement of NNESTs' Linguistic Insecurity

In order to find out the relation between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and learners' productive skills, and also to find out whether or not there is a relationship between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and gender, initially we needed to measure non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity. In this step, questionnaires and interviews were investigated and the researcher and the statistics expert decided to adjust all the data modulate the qualitative data out of interviews and to attain a quantitative scale which can best describe the linguistic

insecurity level. In other words, we have transformed the qualitative data out of interviews into qualitative and integrated it with the quantitative data gained by the questionnaires in order to achieve fully quantitative data. In this regard, after administrating the questionnaires, quantitative data were collected and analyzed. Besides, the interviews were conducted and the qualitative data were collected and transformed into categorical data for further quantitative analysis.

4.2.1 Questionnaire Investigation

The questionnaires were administered to the eighteen teacher participants in the second part and the data collected from this section are shown in table 8:

Table 8

Questionnaire Results

	Statement	1% (A)	12% (B)	25% (C)	50% (D)	75% (E)	87% (F)	99% (G)
1	I lose information when I listen to a conversation between some native English speakers.	9	4	5	-	-	-	-
2	I feel uncomfortable when talking to a native English speaker.	8	1	4	2	3	-	-
3	I spend less time than expected on speaking sections from textbook, because I feel I may lack enough vocabulary to meet students' demand.	7	1	1	3	2	4	-
4	I feel stressed when teaching the pronunciation sections.	6	2	2	3	1	1	3
5	I feel difficulties in correcting students' papers.	5	1	1	5	4	-	2
6	I think students lose trust in me when I can't find English equivalent of a word.	3	-	1	6	3	2	3

7	I believe that selecting an English nickname and pretending to be a native English teacher is a good idea because students will trust in me more.	2	-	-	4	1	2	9
8	I feel more comfortable with junior students than seniors.	5	-	-	3	2	3	5
9	I believe that I need more improvement with my English.	4	1	-	1	2	4	6
10	I do not feel confident when I teach.	9	1	2	3	-	3	-
11	There is so much I do not know about grammar. I am terrified that my students ask me questions.	7	1	-	3	2	-	5
12	I would like to have more opportunities to improve my linguistic competence.	3	-	-	1	2	5	7
13	I appreciate attending teacher training coerces.	3	-	-	5	-	2	8

In order to gain deeper understanding of the relationship between the participants' ELT background and their linguistic insecurity, the researcher investigated the questionnaires separately one after another. This procedure enabled us to obtain a LI score for each NNEST, and then we could categorize them into groups with very low, low, middle, high, and very high linguistic insecurity level.

The majority of the participants had a similar answer to the first two questions which were about interacting with native English speakers. Three participants stated that they feel uncomfortable communicating with natives. Examining their questionnaire paper makes it clear that one of them is a freshman at the university and does not have an ELT background. Other two teachers are novice teachers who have studied engineering and pure mathematics at the university and ELT is not their field of profession. In case of experienced teachers, they feel more secure teaching vocabulary and pronunciation or correcting writing papers. Novice teachers or less-experienced EFL teachers are more likely to have difficulties in teaching these sections. Almost all of the teachers, even the experienced ones, agree that having an English nickname and pretending to be native English speaker is beneficial in gaining learners

trust. Surprisingly, the age and EFL experience of the teachers had no influence on their preference in choosing senior or junior classrooms since the participants had different answers with no regard to their EFL background, age, and years of teaching experience. Most of the participants who feel that they need more improvement with their English are novice teachers or teachers with no training experience. The youngest participant, who is 21 years old, does not feel the need to improve her English. She has been living in London for eight years and although her field of study is not English and she does not have any ELT background, she feels quite comfortable and in some cases, less insecure than the other teachers whose subject is English language teaching. When it comes to grammar, the participants feel more comfortable compared to other components which are vocabulary and pronunciation. Experienced teachers and most of the novice teachers, who have studied English language teaching at university, feel confident about grammar teaching. Questions 9 and 12 are about the need to improve English and linguistic competence. Most of the participants agreed that they will appreciate the opportunities to improve their linguistic competence, and as expected, the two most experienced and eldest members declared that they do not need linguistic improvement. Generally, most of the teachers would like to attend teacher training courses, except the two participants who did not feel necessity to improve their linguistic competence and one other teacher who the researcher personally knows and she believes the reason for this answer is his overloaded work life.

In general, the results of the questionnaire revealed that in general, the teachers who feel less comfort and higher linguistic insecurity while teaching in EFL classrooms are the novice teachers with less ELT background, or the teachers whose main subject is not English language teaching. The reason for this may be the feeling of owning insufficient general English competence because in case of the youngest teacher who has been grown up in England, we saw that she feels less insecure than the other teachers who have studied ELT at university and have never been to English-speaking countries. It is quite obvious that experience and age can have a great impact on teachers feeling of security and comfort as the eldest and most experienced teachers do not feel linguistic insecurity as much as the young and novice ones.

In this respect, we categorized the data from questionnaires and demonstrated it in the table below. Figure 2 shows the linguistic insecurity of non-native teachers according to their answers to the questionnaire.
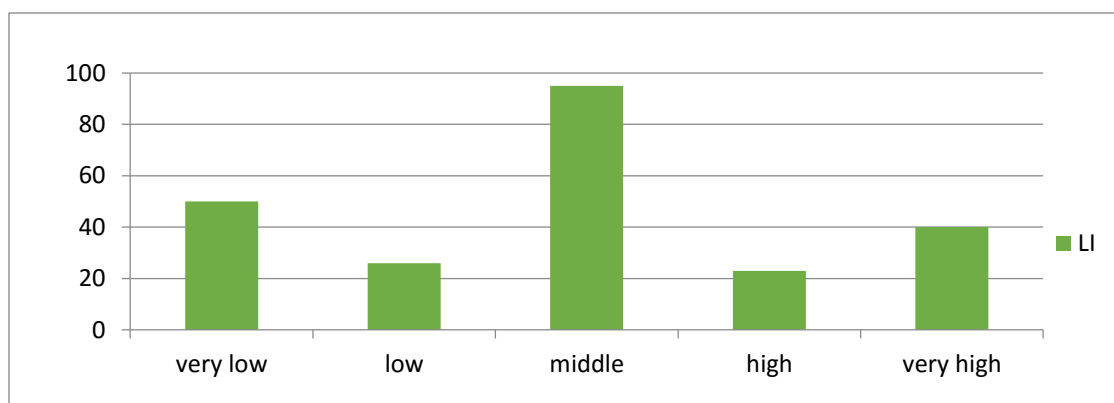
Figure 2. Teachers' LI according to questionnaires

Hereby, it is seen that the answers mostly represent middle level of LI, whereas only a few, less than twenty, answers demonstrate low or high linguistic insecurity, and finally the degree of answers which present very low linguistic insecurity is higher than that of the answers which presents very low LI degree.

However, the figure above shows only the questionnaire results. To obtain a more accurate LI degree for each participant, interviews with eight open-ended questions were applied.

4.2.2 Interview Analysis

As mentioned in the methodology section, each participant separately was interviewed by the researcher and all the interviews were recorded and investigated later by the researcher and one colleague from the workplace who is a linguist. The questions and the categorization of the answers have been investigated in terms of content validity.

Following Creswell's Transformative Design, the researcher needed to develop a scheme of categories relevant to the research question. Categorization is the process of structuring and condensing data by grouping the qualitative materials in theoretically insightful ways. A deductive-inductive procedure was conducted in developing categories. As a starting point for the development of adequate categories, the researcher began by reviewing existing coding schemes and then she chose the most comprehensive of them. This category scheme was supposed to be the theoretical foundation. All the interviews and formatted main categories were investigated. Going to details and depending on the kind of the questions, the researcher formulated subcategories. Throughout this process, based on theoretical consideration,

54

subcategories were changed, eliminated, added, or collapsed into new categories. At the end of the coding round the researcher was able to encode the answers and put them into adequate categories regarding the theoretical outline, main categories and subcategories.

QUESTION1. The first question in the interview was "*Do you think you have received enough teacher training courses related to your EFL teaching?*" Attending teacher training courses seem to have significant influence on teachers' security feeling as most of the non-native teachers participating in this research study are from other fields rather than ELT and most of them do not have EFL certificates. Some of them are university students with high English level and some are immigrants who have lived in English speaking countries but they have not attended any courses relevant to ELT.

Most of the participants believe that they have received enough teacher training courses, nevertheless, they appreciate attending courses particularly the ones with certifications and diplomas. Three out of eighteen teachers believe that they do not need any more courses, and they are the participants with the most teaching experience. We categorized the answers into groups and the results were as following:
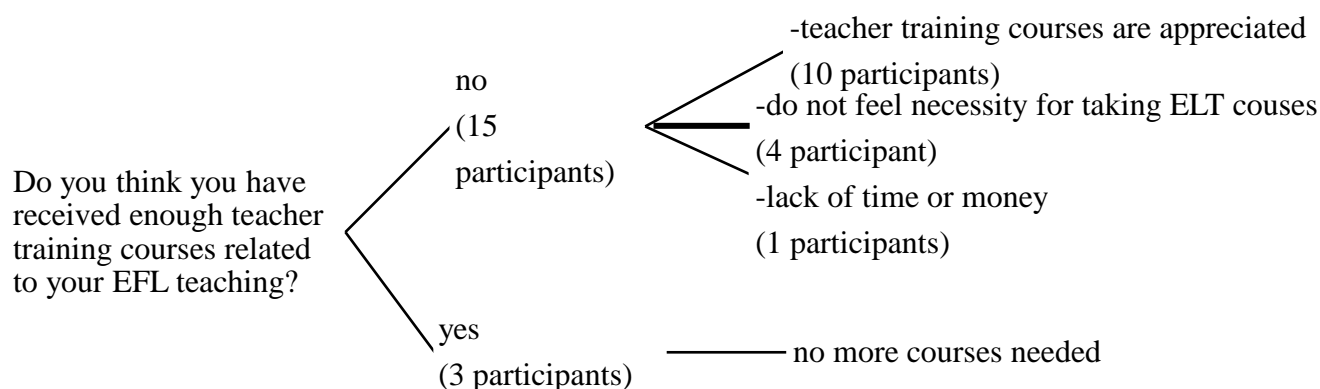
Figure 3. Teacher Participants' opinions about training courses (Interview question 2)

As shown above, not all the participants who answered "no" appreciate taking courses. Four participants, who had not received teacher training courses and do not feel the necessity to attend ELT courses, seem to have very low level of linguistic insecurity. Also, the three teachers who feel quite confident to refuse attending courses must be feeling secure.

55

QUESTION2. The second question was "*Have you ever felt stressed about possible grammatical, vocabulary, or pronunciation questions in the class from learners?*" There were a variety of answers for this question. The younger the teachers are, the more terrified they are when facing new grammatical, vocabulary or pronunciation questions from the learners. Experienced teachers feel less stressed, and they are likely to be confident about managing different situations especially with disruptive learners, whereas novice teachers do not feel confident when exposed to questions. Among the components above, grammar is the most terrifying one and difficult to explain according to the participants. Teachers who answered "yes" seem to feel linguistic insecurity in resembling situations and "no" answers mean low linguistic insecurity.
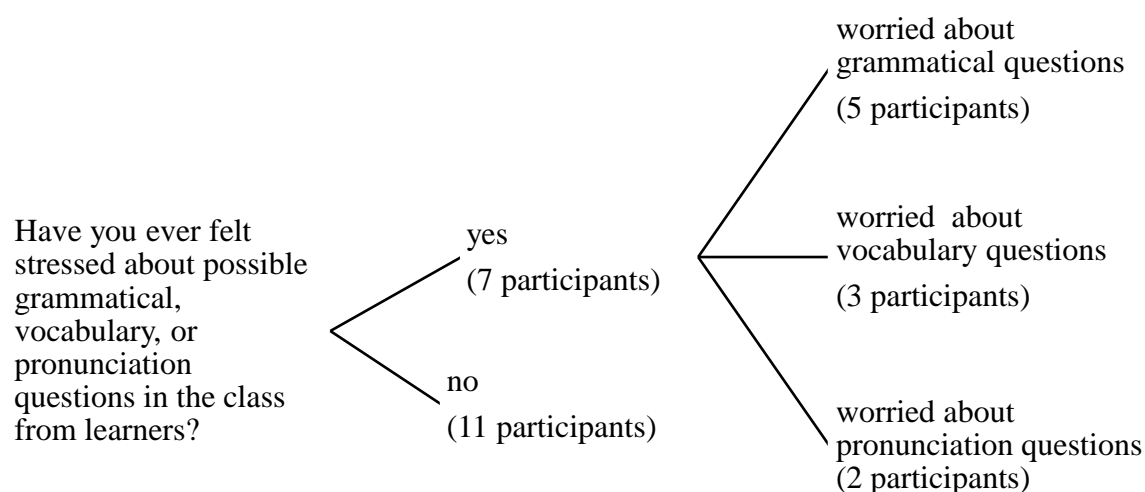
Figure 4. Teacher participants' answers to question 2

QUESTION3. "*What makes you feel stressed or insecure in the classroom?*" There were a variety of answers to this question. Some said that most of the time *nothing* can make them feel stressed, but they are likely to get the willies, get bored, get frustrated, lose temper, etc. They believed that after a while, they get used to the repetitive questions, situations, problems, etc., and they seldom get excited or stressed because of new situations. These were two experienced teachers, one originally Spanish teacher who had lived in England for a couple of years, two middle-aged Turkish male teachers, and surprisingly, one very young Turkish female teacher with only one year of experience. The others had different answers as following: learners with high level of English knowledge, being observed by supervisor, new

56

situations, disruptive students, difficult grammatical questions, English equivalent of Turkish words or vice versa, adult students, irregular vocabulary or grammatical rules, unfamiliar materials in course books, hyperactive students, senior learners, students with troublemaker parents, are drill sergeant parents.

Indeed, the researcher has categorized the statements and the factors above into the main and sub-categories for teacher's linguistic insecurity and teacher's anxiety. Therefore, she was able to work on the factors related to linguistic insecurity only.

In this section, the necessity to explain the minor differences between teachers' linguistic insecurity and teachers' anxiety is felt. In the case of English teachers, teacher anxiety and linguistic insecurity have different sources and definitions. Klanrit and Sroinam (2012) conducted a research study with 673 English teachers from three provinces of Thailand to investigate the sources and components of teachers' anxiety in using English in the language classroom. They found out that four main sources cause English teachers' anxiety in the classroom. The first factor is the teachers' high expectation about students' language limitation and low motivation. They explain that teachers often lack realization of when and how to use English in the classroom. The second factor is medium level concerns about students' attitudes towards studying English. They think that a language learner is always anxious about error correction in the classroom, and since the teacher is instructing in a non-native language with possible difficulties using the language, if he/she makes a mistake, it can be quite embarrassing and a source of anxiety for teacher as well. The third factor was low level concerns about teachers' language proficiency. And the fourth factor is medium level concerns about teaching and learning management. Their study reveals that Thai teachers believe that students might not be able to understand them when the target language is used and as the number of students is large and the proficiency levels are quite different, they prefer to use their native language in teaching grammar. Apparently English teachers' anxiety in the classroom can be defined as their worries about time and class management, teaching and learning procedure, students' attitude and these kind of psychological worries, whereas, the notion of linguistic insecurity refers to teachers' worries and stresses related to linguistics. As said before, in the literature review section, LI is defined as the lack of confidence of non-natives when they speak or write. They may find their knowledge of language insufficient or may feel stressed about some particular skills or components when writing or speaking, while foreign language anxiety is totally about acquisition of the language.

QUESTION4. *"Do you usually feel anxious about being observed by your supervisor or subject teacher? If yes, why?"* A dirty little secret: teachers hate to be observed and principals hate to do observations. No matter how long you have been teaching and no matter what your level of confidence in your craft is, you're nervous, the kids are nervous, and breathe a huge sigh of relief when the supervisor leaves. No matter what the purpose of the observation is, to work with the teacher to improve their practice and effectiveness or to evaluate teacher's performance, it seems to be irritating and nerve-breaking.

However, the answers to this question did not surprise me but the number of participants who said "yes" was really surprising. Novice English teachers are likely to get stressed or worried about being observed, generally in teaching particular skills or components such as grammar or pronunciation. But in the case of experienced teachers, they were not expected to have this much "yes" answers and even more interestingly, also the oldest and at the same time the most experienced teacher answered "yes".
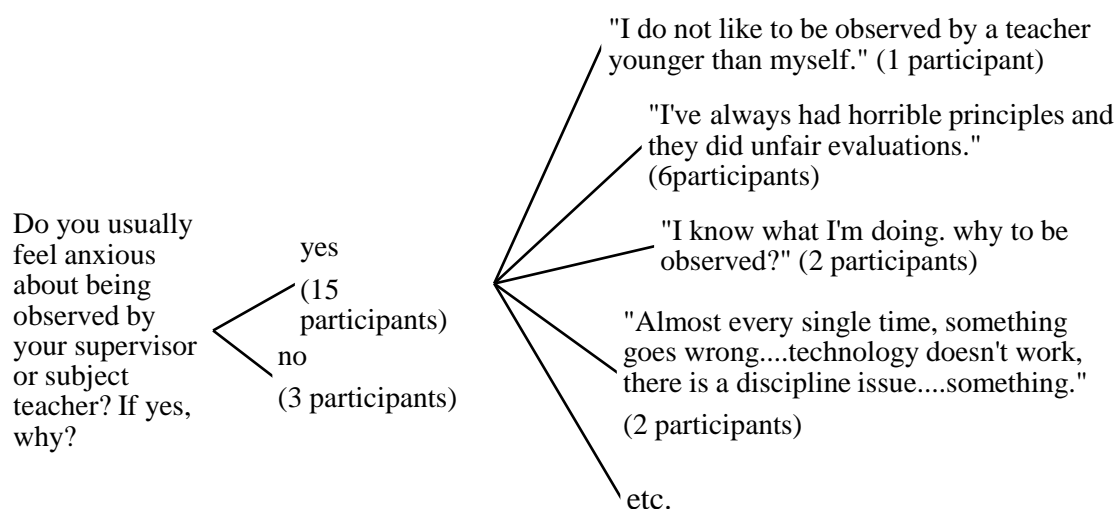
Figure 5. Teacher participants' feeling about being observed (Interview question 4)

This question seems a little related to teacher's anxiety as it can demonstrate class management or teacher proficiency, but according to linguistic insecurity's description, it can represent teachers' stress which does not only belong to EFL teachers, but also can include teachers from other fields either. Therefore, the "yes" answers are representing high level of LI and "no" answers mean low level of LI. As seen in the figure above, there are different

58

reasons that makes teachers find observing sessions dreadful and irritating. Unfair evaluation is the factor most teachers complain about and some of them stated that they do not really care about feedbacks because they find them too cliché and repetitive. Some teachers said that they do not know why, but they hate being observed by a peer. One of them believes that the total observing idea is a stupid one because even if someone is a bad teacher, they will not be bad on observation days. Only three teachers said that anyone is welcome to observe their class and they really do not feel nervous or pressured when observed. One of them said that he always learns something or is reminded of something he should be doing and he was not.

QUESTION5. *"When teaching, which skills or components are you more productive in?"*

This question was not asked to assess the participants' LI, but to check their favorable skill or component. Since the aim of the study is to find the relationship between the non-native teachers' linguistic insecurity and learners' productive skills, and as we have hypothesized that teachers with high level of LI do not spend enough time on pronunciation, speaking and writing sections, so we needed to know the parts that teachers feel better when teaching. Answers to this question are shown in figure 6.

Vocabulary seems to be participants' most favorite component to teach, while pronunciation is the least favorite one. In the case of skills, most teachers prefer teaching reading sections. Looking at the figure we can see that they like teaching reading prior to writing, and listening prior to speaking. In other words, the participants feel better teaching receptive skills rather than productive skills.
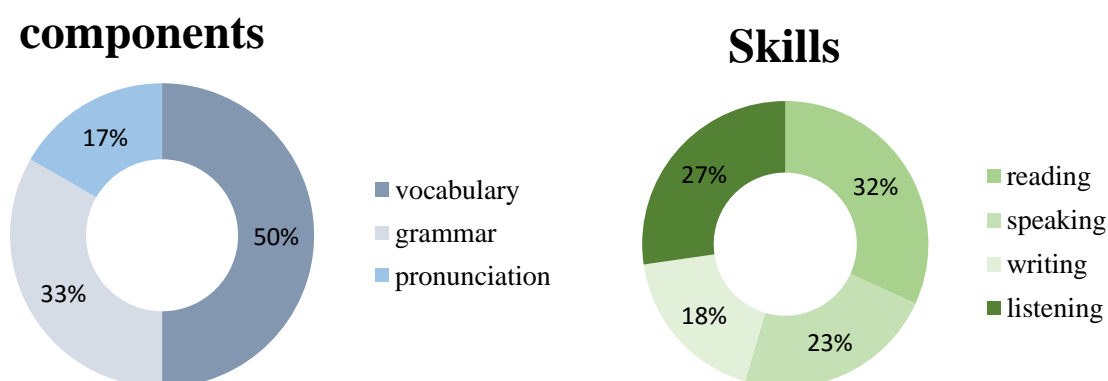
Figure 6. Teacher participants' favorite skills and components (Interview question 5)

QUESTION6. *"Do you think you can meet the needs of all kinds of learners? Which group of learners do you feel more comfortable with?"*

Teaching adults is a very different experience from teaching children. The same approach cannot be used although you'll find that some of the techniques overlap. Adults are expected to bring vast amounts of prior knowledge to the classroom and children are likely to bring their limitless enthusiasm and curiosity. Adult learners and kids learn in different ways depending on their abilities, preferences, interests, and learning styles. Adult learners have their specific needs and they value learning through certain conditions like: a clear purpose, a safe learning environment, a sense of learning something new, opportunities to interact with other learners, enough time to talk, etc. And they do not enjoy certain issues like being passive during lectures, overloaded PowerPoint slides, overcrowded agendas, lack of support and follow-up, unnecessary physical needs, etc. Meeting all these requirements needs years of experience and high level of knowledge not only about class management but also about teaching techniques and methods. But being a good adult learners' instructor does not mean that you are a good teacher for young learners. Teaching children is not all about fun and games all the time. English teachers who teach children encounter challenges and difficulties. Teaching children demands a great deal of creativity, and energy and you are most likely to feel exhausted after every class. You will need materials and preparation every single session. You should not let them get bored. You need to be prepared to deal with parents and many other criteria. We can conclude that teaching children is different from teaching adult learners in terms of class activities, learner motivation, class management, learning expectations, required techniques and method, and etc. Therefore, EFL teachers may feel comfortable dealing with particular group of learners. Some aged teachers feel better teaching adult or senior learners while novice teachers seem to feel comfortable to start their career teaching children. But based on my personal experience as an EFL teacher, I see my novice colleagues prefer to start their career by teaching children; then as they get more and more experienced, they feel comfortable moving to senior classes and after some years, they say that they like teaching adult learners better because they keep their language dynamic and they also prefer not to spend too much energy in young learners classroom. By all means, there are specific individuals with different interests. For instance, some teachers personally do not like teaching children neither in the beginning of their career nor years after. In contrary, some teachers prefer to deal with children during their whole professional life. The language

institute, in which this research study was conducted, based its general policy on being able to teach all age groups except for some TOEFL and IELTS instructors.

However, the answers to this question are shown in figure below. In addition to personal interests, linguistic insecurity has an influence on teachers' preference of learner groups. Six out of eighteen teachers stated that it makes no difference for them to be teaching young learners or adult learners. Nine teachers liked better teaching adults and only three teachers preferred teaching kids only. Nevertheless, all of the participants believed that they can meet needs of all kind of learners, which means they feel low linguistic insecurity in this case. But the participants whose answer is "makes no difference" seem to have the lowest level of LI.

Do you think you can meet the needs of all kinds of learners? which group of learners do you feel more confortable with? ──────── yes (18 participants)

I prefer senior learners and adults (9 participants)

I prefer young learners (3 participants)

makes no difference (6 participants)
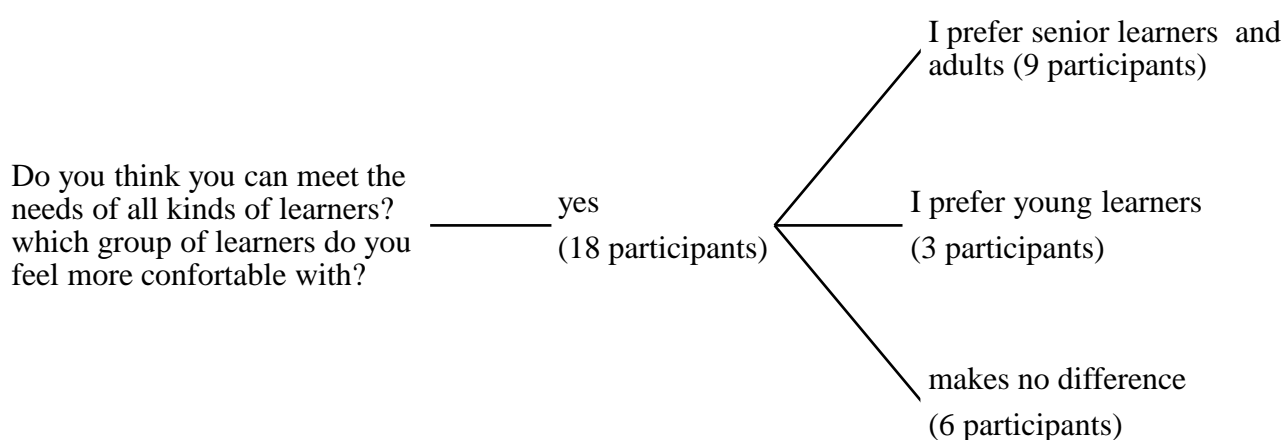
Figure 7. Teacher participants' answers to question 6

QUESTION7. *"In your opinion, do your students follow the lessons enthusiastically?"* Dictionary entries describe enthusiasm as a feeling of great excitement or interest for a subject, and also the experience of emotional and affective states. Thus, the commonly used descriptive terms with reference to enthusiasm are passion, excitement, keenness, interest, obsession, and craze. There are a variety of techniques, strategies, and macrostrategies which EFL teachers can employ in the classroom in order to motivate learners and to raise their interest. The teacher participants were asked if they think that their students follow the sessions enthusiastically and their answers are as shown in chart below:
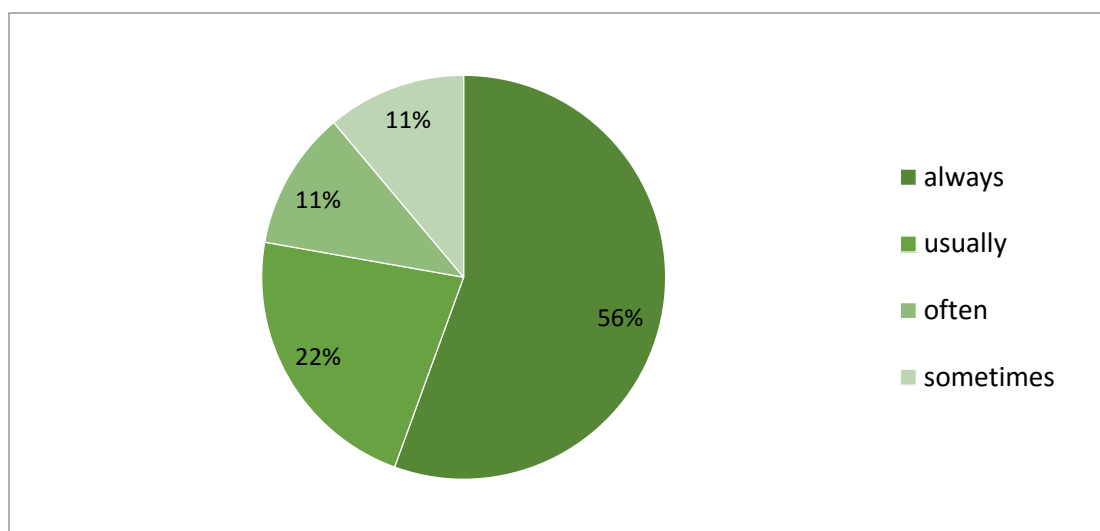
Figure 8. Teacher participants' answers to question 7

As shown in the pie above, most of the teachers believe that their learners are interested in their EFL classes (very low LI), four teachers answered usually (low LI), two answered often (middle LI), and two teachers answered sometimes (high LI).

Learners may lose a certain measure of their initial enthusiasm about the language and the English lessons as they proceed and the initial enthusiasm wears off somewhat as the lessons become more of a routine. The learners realize that learning a language is not just fun but also hard work and that can make them lose their motivation. There are different techniques that an English teacher can apply to keep his learners motivated such as encouraging the students, getting them involved in class activities, and drawing connections to real life. Different teachers may use different techniques and strategies to motivate their students, but it is obvious that motivated students are more excited to learn and participate which means the final outcome will be better than unmotivated students.

After analyzing interview data and accumulating the results with the data from questionnaires, all the data were gathered and displayed in table 9 in order to simplify the analyzing process:

Table 9

Questionnaire Data, Interview Results, and Proficiency Test Scores

No.	Teacher's code	Gender	Nationality	Mother tongue	Age	Experience (year)	Proficiency test score	LI Level

1	F.G.B.	F	Iranian	Azeri	34	12	107	Very low
2	S.N.E.	M	Turkish	Turkish	30	4	81	Middle
3	C.L.	M	Nigerian	Housa	25	2	114	Low
4	J.D.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	2	99	High
5	J.N.	F	Turkish	Turkish	21	1	80	High
6	L.B.A.	M	Turkish	Turkish	22	2	80	High
7	G.E.D.	F	Iranian	Azeri	28	7	111	Low
8	SH.S.	M	Mexican	Spanish	26	2	114	Very low
9	D.A.	M	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	77	Very high
10	A.N.	M	Iranian	Persian	42	21	117	Very low
11	T.H.A.	F	Bosnian	Bosnian	26	2	87	Middle
12	D.V.	M	Nigerian	Housa	25	1	84	High
13	D.N.	F	Turkish	Turkish	27	2	81	High
14	O.R.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	77	High
15	N.A.	F	Maldivian	Dhivehi	27	3	107	Very low
16	C.E.	F	Turkish	Turkish	25	2	85	High
17	D.K.	F	Turkish	Turkish	23	1	77	Very high
18	J.E.	M	Spanish	Spanish	25	3	91	Very low

4.3 Research Question 1

Do novice NNS English teachers feel more linguistic insecurity than experienced NNS English teachers?

In order to answer our first research question we need to investigate the relationship between experience and linguistic insecurity. In this regard, correlation test was used to examine the relationship between the two variables.

Table 10

Experience and LI Correlation

		Experience	LI
Experience	Pearson Correlation	1	-.568
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014
	N	18	18
LI	Pearson Correlation	-.568	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	
	N	18	18

As seen in the table, there is a negative correlation (correlation coefficient= -.568) between NNESTs' experience and LI and according to 2-tailed significance value (0.05), this relationship is significant (p-value = 0.014 < 0/05). It means the more experienced the NNESTs are, the less linguistic insecurity they are supposed to feel.

4.4 Research Question 2

a) Does non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity affect learners' productive skills?

b) How does non-native English teachers' LI affect learners' productive skills?

After examining the linguistic insecurity level of the participants, and after investigating learners' writing and speaking scores, the researcher studied the relationship between NNEST's linguistic insecurity and learners' productive skills via SPSS software 23.0 version.

The researcher used one-way ANOVA to determine whether there is significant relationship between the means of the groups. The descriptive table below shows the mean, standard deviation and confidence intervals for the dependent variable (LI of NNESTs) for writing and speaking scores of learners.

Table 11

Descriptive Data and Means of Groups

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
Writing.score	very low	5	40.2000	3.90976	1.74850	36.12	45.72
	low	2	41.1650	.20506	.14500	41.02	41.31
	middle	2	41.6950	.88388	.62500	41.07	42.32
	high	7	44.8014	3.57876	1.35264	38.22	48.43
	very high	2	41.1900	4.21436	2.98000	38.21	44.17
	Total	18	42.3728	3.66302	.86338	36.12	48.43
Speaking.score	very low	5	43.8880	2.26362	1.01232	41.50	46.32
	low	2	40.5200	5.48715	3.88000	36.64	44.40
	middle	2	43.4650	.21920	.15500	43.31	43.62
	high	7	41.9943	3.29991	1.24725	35.59	45.45
	very high	2	41.9200	5.16188	3.65000	38.27	45.57
	Total	18	42.5117	3.11005	.73305	35.59	46.32

According to the one-way ANOVA test below, there is no significant relationship between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and students' scores in writing and speaking sections. It is seen that for writing scores the significance value (p) is 0.26 which is more than 0.05, and in the speaking section it is 0.73. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no statistically significant relationship between LI and productive skills' scores.

Table 12

Productive Scores and LI ANOVA Test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Writing.Score	Between Groups	71.527	4	17.882	1.485	.263
	Within Groups	156.574	13	12.044		
	Total	228.101	17			

Speaking.Score	Between Groups	21.797	4	5.449	.497	.739
	Within Groups	142.634	13	10.972		
	Total	164.431	17			

4.5 Research Question 3

Does gender have any effects on NNSTs linguistic insecurity?

In order to examine the relationship between NNESTs' gender and their linguistic insecurity, Pearson correlation test was used. As seen in table 13, there is a negative correlation between the two variables, but according to 2-tailed significance value (0.05), this relationship is not significant (p-value = 0.428 > 0.05). In other words, we can say that the level of linguistic insecurity does not depend on gender, and both male and female non-native English teachers may have the same level of LI.

Table 13

LI and gender Correlation

		LI	gender
LI	Pearson Correlation	1	-.199
	Sig. (2-tailed)	18	.428
	N		18
gender	Pearson Correlation	-.199	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.428	
	N	18	18

4.6 Supplementary Findings

4.6.1 The Relationship between Experience and Proficiency Test Score

In addition to the research questions, the collected data helped us gain some additional findings limited to this research study. With a subject group of eighteen teachers, it must be mentioned that the findings must be treated with caution in terms of generalization.

The correlation test below shows the relationship between the experience of non-native English teachers and their proficiency test score. Pearson Correlation Test shows that there is a positive correlation between the variables and the p-value (0.05) shows that this relationship is significant (p-value = 0.011 < 0.05). In this study, more experienced teachers feel less linguistic insecurity than novice teachers.

Table 14

Experience and PTS Correlation

		Experience	PTS
Experience	Pearson Correlation	1	.586
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.011
	N	18	18
PTS	Pearson Correlation	.586	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	
	N	18	18

4.6.2 The Relationship between Age and Linguistic Insecurity

According to the correlation between age and linguistic insecurity of participants, there is not a significant relationship between the two variables, and the factor of age does not influence non-native teachers' linguistic insecurity level.

Table 15

Age and LI correlation

		age	LI
age	Pearson Correlation	1	-.378
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.122
	N	18	18
LI	Pearson Correlation	-.378	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	
	N	18	18

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

In the previous chapter the results were shown, and in this chapter the findings of the present research study are discussed in term of the relationship between native and non-native English speaking teachers and their learners' speaking and writing scores, and the influence of age, gender, and experience on NNESTs' linguistic insecurity. In some cases, the findings are in line with the previous studies, but in other cases, they are not in line with our expectations.

5.1 NNESTs' Experience and Linguistic Insecurity

One of the purposes of this study was to examine the relationship between non-native English speaking teachers' linguistic insecurity and their experience of teaching. From this point of view, this may be one of the first studies to investigate linguistic insecurity on NNESTs, and that is the reason I could not find any similar studies in the literature dealing with NNESTs' experience of teaching. In French literature, Roussi (2009) studies the linguistic insecurity of Greek speaking teachers of French and its effect on teaching process. She does not deal with the relation between their experience and their linguistic insecurity. However, most of the non-native French teachers participating in that study seemed to feel linguistic insecurity in some particular fields, and they also use similar strategies in similar situations regardless of their ages.

In the present research study, with the help of Pearson Correlation Test and using SPSS software, we showed that there is a negative correlation between the linguistic insecurity of the non-native English speaking teachers participating in this study and their experience. In other words, the more experienced the NNESTs are the less linguistic insecurity they are supposed to feel. This might be sourced from their knowledge of not having been received enough teacher training courses, not having lived in English speaking countries, feeling stressed about possible grammatical, vocabulary, and pronunciation questions, etc. In this study, I observed the youngest teacher who felt less linguistic insecurity in comparison to older teachers. After investigating her questionnaire, I realized that she has lived in England for several years with her family, and despite attending no teacher training courses, she is highly confident in herself and she even does not appreciate attending training courses. The

other group who feel the lowest linguistic insecurity in EFL classrooms are the oldest or rather the most experienced teachers.

5.2 NNESTs' Gender and Linguistic Insecurity

A review of the literature shows that females are likely to feel more linguistic insecurity than men (Owens and Baker, 1984). Before, Labov in his famous New Yorkers study had shown that women display more linguistic insecurity than men. In the present research study, with eight male and ten female teacher participants, the findings are not consistent with the previous studies as there was not a significant different between the level of linguistic insecurity between the two groups. It means that the level of linguistic insecurity does not depend on gender, and both male and female non-native English teachers may feel the same level of LI.

5.3 Native and Non-native English Teachers: Any Difference?

Renandya (2013) believes that one of the most important factors that affects the success or failure of foreign language learning is input. In an EFL classroom, language input refers to written or oral language that a learner receives. He explains that comprehensible, abundantly and reliably available input will be beneficial for the language development. It means that insufficient and distorted input will cause perturbation during the learning process. This can show the inevitable role of the quality of input, and it can illuminate the importance of the controversial discussion on native and non-native teachers.

In the literature review section, we explained the critical debate on native and non-native English teachers and the advantages and disadvantages of being a non-native English teacher. I explained the most challenging problems that NNESTs face not only in looking for jobs but also in the eyes of learners or administrators. It is mostly believed that a native speaker is always the best teacher of English (Tamopolsky, 2008) and therefore, learners and authorities prefer to be taught or to employ NESTs for teaching positions in EFL classrooms.

On the other hand, a lot of studies have been conducted to show that despite the differences between NNESTs and native English speaking teacher, there are cases in which non-native

English teachers have been showing better performance (e.g. Solhi & Rahimi, 2013; Seidlhofer, 1999; Tamopolsky, 2008; etc.).

However, in this research study we did not deal with the differences between native and non-native English speaking teachers; however, we examined the performance of non-native English teachers, and accordingly all of teacher participants were NNESTs. The main objectives of this study were to measure the linguistic insecurity of the non-native English teachers, and then to investigate its impact on learners' writing and speaking scores. Consequently, we could find out whether the learning process is influenced by non-native teachers' linguistic insecurity or not. In this regard, we also incorporated other factors like age and experience.

According to the one-way ANOVA test, there was no significant relationship between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and the learners' scores in productive skills. It must be taken under consideration that there might be different factors affecting learning process and learners' scores, but we only investigated the role of linguistic insecurity as the aim of this study.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

By virtue of their own experience as English language learners and their training and experience as teachers, the qualified and trained NNESTs can contribute in meaningful ways to the field of English language teaching. Recently, a lot of efforts have been made in order to give NNESTs a voice in their profession and to recognize their position as equal partners in the field of ELT. However, there is still a native speaker fallacy trying to magnify the role of NESTs in English classrooms and to minify the concept of NNESTs reproaching their EFL background. One of the results of this profession related discrimination is linguistic insecurity.

Linguistic insecurity of speaker has been studied since 1960s. This issue has been discussed through different aspects. The concept began in 1962 by Haugen who used the term *Schizoglossia*. William Labov took over the theory of Haugen in 1964, and he was the first to define linguistic insecurity with regard to pronunciation and then he introduced linguistic insecurity related to social positions. Afterwards, many other linguists studied and defined linguistic insecurity from different points of view. In the 1990s, Francard introduced the notion of linguistic insecurity in its francophone dimension, and he believed that the cultural background which is expressed and marked by linguistic variation can cause a feeling of linguistic insecurity perceived as linguistic inferiority. As the notion of linguistic insecurity addresses the speakers of the language, the researcher decided to implement the notion in case of non-native English teachers. The researcher chose to conduct the research study among friends and colleagues so that she could be a part of the corpus.

In the present research study, we addressed NNESTs linguistic insecurity in EFL classrooms and the influence of this feeling on learners' productive skills. The age, experience, gender, linguistic insecurity and proficiency of NNESTs along with the writing and speaking scores of learners were investigated using SPSS software.

The previous studies which have investigated the relationship between English teachers' anxiety, stress, and feeling of insecurity, produced mixed results. In contrast to some research

studies (e.g. Hismanoglu, 2013), these findings show that gender does not have an influence on NNESTs linguistic insecurity, and both male and female teachers are exposed to feel the same level of LI. In some similar studies, in general females were feeling more stress or insecurity than their counterparts, but the results of our study does not support those findings.

The results of this study are in line with Aslrasouli et. al (2014) because they showed that both male and female EFL teachers are likely to feel high levels of tension in their job regardless of their gender.

The most impressive factor, according to the findings of this study, is experience. Experienced NNESTs feel less linguistic insecurity than the novice ones. But in some cases, other factors had bigger impact than experience. For example, the youngest teacher who had lived in England for years felt very little LI even though her subject is not English teaching but engineering.

The main objective of the present research study was to investigate the relationship between the linguistic insecurity of non-native English teachers and their learners' productive skills. The results revealed that there is not a significant relationship between learners' scores in writing and speaking sections with non-native English teachers' linguistic insecurity. According to the data, teacher participants felt different levels of linguistic insecurity, but this negative feeling does not have a considerable effect on learners' productive skills. However, there may be several factors which can affect the teaching outcome, but this research study is the first to examine the relationship between NNESTs' linguistic insecurity and learners' productive skills.

REFERENCES

Adams, E. (2001). A proposed causal model of vocational teacher stress. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, *53*(2), *223-246.* Retrieved from

http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/13636820100200153

Ameen, E. C., Guffey, D. M., & Jackson, C. (2002). Evidence of teaching anxiety among accounting educators. *Journal of Education for Business, 78*(1), 16-22.

Ammon, U. (2003). The international standing of the German language, in J. Maurais & M. Morris (eds.), *Languages in a Globalising World, 231-249.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in Language Learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Aslrasouli, M. & Saadat P.V., M. (2014). An Investigation of Teaching Anxiety among Novice and Experienced Iranian EFL Teachers across Gender. *International Conference on Current Trends in ELT. Procedia. Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98, 304-313.* Retrieved from

http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042814025129

Baltaş, Z. (2002). *Verimli iş hayatının sırrı.* İstanbul: Remzi.

Baron, D.E. (1976). Linguistic insecurity: The effect of attitudes toward language on language production. Flowers of Evil. *Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association.*

Baruah, T.C. (1985). *The English Teacher's Handbook.* New Delhi: Sterling.

Benke, E. & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behavior between native and non native speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession*, (pp. 195-215). New York: Springer.

Bretegnier, A. (1996). L'insécurité linguistique: objet insécurisé? Essai de synthèse et perspectives. In D. de Robillard and M. Beniamino (Ed.), *Le Français dans l'espace francophone. Description linguistique et sociolinguistique de la francophonie*, , 903-19. Paris: Honoré Champion éditeur.

Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P., & Pincas, A. (1980). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language.* London: Rutledge.

Brown, J.D. (2001). *Using Surveys in Language Programs.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Brown, H.D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brutt-Griffler, J. (2002). *World English: A Study of Its Development*. (Volume 34 of Bilingual education and bilingualism). London: Multilingual Matters.

Bucci, W, & Baxter. M. (1984). Problems of Linguistic Insecurity in Multicultural Speech Contexts. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 433*, 185-200.

Bueno, A, D. Madrid and N. McLaren, (eds). (2006) *TEFL in Secondary Education.* Granada: Editorial Universidad de Granada.

Butler, Y.G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary school teachers   need to   attain in order to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly, 38,* 245–278.

Butler, Y.G. *(*2007). How are non-native English-speaking teachers perceived by young learner*?. TESOL Quarterly*, *41,* 731-755. Retrieved from http://repository.upenn.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1192&context=gse_pubs

Calvet, L.-J. (1999). *Pour une ecologie des langues du monde*. Paris: Plon.

Calvet, L.-J. (2006). *Towards an ecology of world languages*. Cambridge: Polity.

Canagarajah, A. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University.

Cheng, Y. S. (2002). Factors associated with foreign language writing anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, *35*, 647-656.

Cheng, Y. S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiatin writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, *49*, 417-449. Retrieved from

http://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/FACTORS-ASSOCIATED-WITH-ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-LANGUAGE-UNIVERSITY-STUDENTS%E2%80%99-WRITING-ANXIETY.pdf

Cheung, Y. L. (2002). The attitude of university students in Hong Kong towards native and nonnative teachers of English. Master's thesis, The Chinese University of Hong Kong.

Coates, T., & Thoresen, C. (1976). Teacher anxiety: A review with recommendations. *Review of Educational Research, 46(2),* 159-184.

Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching, *TESOL Quarterly*, *33*, 185–209.

Cook, V. (2007). The goals of ELT: reproducing native-speakers or promoting multi competence among second language users? In Cummins, J. and Davison, C. (Ed.), *Intercultural handbook of English language teaching,* 237-248.

Crystal, D. (1997). The language that took over the world. Cambridge University   Press, Cambridge. Retrieved from http://www.davidcrystal.com/DC_articles/English39.pdf

Dang, R. & Gupta, R (1994). A study of Role Stress, behavior patterns and gender Among Teachers. *Journal of the India Academy of applied Psychology*, *20, 183-188.*

De Robillard, D. (1996). Le concept d'insécurité linguistique: à la recherche d'un mode d'emploi. In *Français Régionaux et Insécurité Linguistique*, ed. C. Bavoux, 55-76. Paris: L'Harmattan.

De Von, H. A., Block, M. E., Moyle-Wright, P., Ernst, D. M., Hayden, S. J., Lazzara, D. J. et al. (2007). A Psychometric Toolbox for Testing Validity and Reliability. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, *39* (2), 155-164.

Eckert, P. & McConnell-Ginet, S. (2003). *Language and gender.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Edworthy, A. (1988). Teaching can damage your health [feature on a research report]. *Education 8 January.*

Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *Modern Language Journal*, *74,* 311-317.

Eisenstein, M., & Berkowitz, D. (1981). The effect of phonological variation on adult learner comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 4,* 75-80.

Ellis, R. (2005). *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University.

Ewald, J. D. (2007). Foreign language learning anxiety in upper-level classes: Involving students as researchers. *Foreign Language Annals*, *40*(1), 122-142.

Feldmann, L., list, T., John, M.T., and Bondemark, L. (2007). Reliability of a questionnaire assessing experiences of adolescents in orthodontic treatment. *Angle Orthod*, *77*(2), 311-317.

Francard, M. (1989). Insécurité linguistique en situation de diglossie. Le cas de l'Ardenne belge. *Revue québécoise de linguistique théorique et appliquée* 8, 2, 133-63.

Francard, M. (1993a). Trop proches pour ne pas être différents. Profils de l'insécurité linguistique dans la Communauté française de Belgique. *Cahiers de l'Institut de linguistique de Louvain* 19 (3/4), 61-70.

Francard, M. (1993b). *L'insécurité linguistique en Communauté française de Belgique*. Brussels: Service de la Langue Française.

Francard, M. (1997). Insécurité linguistique. In *Sociolinguistique. Concepts de base*, ed. M. Moreau, 170-76. Sprimont: Pierre Mardaga éditeur.

Gagliardi, C. & Maley, A. (2010). EIL, ELF, Global English: Teaching and Learning Issues. Linguistic Insights. Switzerland: Bern.

Gardner, L. E., & Leak, G. K. (1994). Characteristics and correlates of teaching anxiety among college psychology teachers. *Teaching* of *Psychology,* February, 28-32.

Gonzalez, G. (2011). Spanish heritage language maintenance: The relationship between language use, linguistic insecurity and social networks. PhD Dissertation. The University of Arizona. Retrieved from

http://arizona.openrepository.com/arizona/bitstream/10150/144600/1/azu_etd_11516_sip1_m.pdf

Greenglass, E. R., & Burke, R. J. (2003). Teacher stress. In M. F. Dollard, A. H. Winefield, & H. R. Winefield (Eds.), *Occupational stress in the service professions,* 213-236. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Gregersen, T. S. (2003). To err is human: A reminder to teachers of language- anxious students. *Foreign Language Annals*, *36* (1), 25–32.

Griffin, R.W. (1990). *Management* (3rd Ed.). Boston : Houghton Mifflin Co.

Gueunier, N., Genouvrier É. Et Khomsi A. (1978). *Les Français devant la norme: Contribution à une étude de la norme du français parlé.* Éditions Honoré Champion 7, Quai Malaquais, Paris.

Gupta, N. (1981). Some sources and remedies of work stress among teachers. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED211496.pdf (August 12 2010)

Harmer, J. (2004*). How to Teach Writing.* Harlow: Longman.

Harmer, J. (2005). The Practice of English Language Teaching (3rd Ed.). Essex: Longman.

Harmer, J. (2007). The Practice of English Language Teaching. 4th ed. London: Longman.

Hismanoglu, M. (2013). Does English Language Teacher Education Curriculum promote CEFR Awareness of Prospective EFL Teachers? *3rd World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Educational Leadership. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences. 93, 938-945.* Retrieved from

http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042813034101

Horwirz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B.& Cope, J. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal,* 70 (2), 125-132.

Huspek, M. (1986). "Linguistic Variation, Context, and Meaning: A Case of -Ing/in' Variation in North American Workers' Speech." *Language in Society,* 15 (2), 149-63.

İpek, H. (2007). *Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety*. Eskişehir: T.C. Anadolu University Publication, No: 1730.

Jenkins, J. (2004). ELF at the gate: the position of English as a Lingua Franca. *IATEFL*, Liverpool Conference Selections.

Jepson, E. & S. Forrest. (2006). Individual contributory factors in teacher stress: The role of achievement striving and occupational commitment. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 183-197.

Jessner, U. (2008).Multi-competence approaches to language proficiency development in multilingual education. In Hornberger, H, N. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and Education,* 91-103. Springer.

Kachru, B.B. (1996). *Models for nonnative Englishes. In The Other Tongue: English across Cultures.* (2nd Ed.) Edited by Braj B. Kachru. Delhi: Oxford University Press, 48-74.

Kamhi-Stein, L., A. Aagard, A. Ching, M.-S. A. Paik & L. Sasser. (2004). Teaching in kindergarten through grade 12 programs: perceptions of native and nonnative English speaking practitioners. In Kamhi-Stein (ed.), 81-99.

Kim, S. Y., & Kim, J. H. (2004). When the learner becomes a teacher: Foreign language teaching anxiety as an occupational hazard. *English Teaching, 59*(1), 165-186.

Klanrit, P. & Sroinam, R. (2012). EFL teachers' anxiety in using English in teaching in the language classroom. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2(6). 493 -496.

Klassen, R. M. & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(3), 741-756.

Kreitner, R. & A. Kinick.(1992). *Organization Behavior*. USA: Richard Irwin Inc.

Kumar, D. & Deo, J. M. (2011). Stress and work life of college teachers. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology,* 37, 78-85.

Labov, W. (1966). *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Labov, W. (1990). The intersection of sex and social class in the course of linguistic change. *Language Variation and Change* , 2, 205-254.

Labov, W. (2006). *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. 2nd ed. Cambridge UK and New York: Cambridge University.

Langan, J. (2001). *College writing skills with readings.* Singapore: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J.M. (2005). The nativeness factor: An analysis of student`s pereferences. *International journal of Applied linguistics,* 148, 21-43. Retrieved from

http://laslab.org/upload/the_nativeness_factor:_an_analysis_of_student%C2%B4s_preferences.pdf

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J.M. (2002). University students` perception of native and non native speaker teachers of English. *Language Awareness*, *11,* 132-142. Retrievedfrom

http://laslab.org/upload/university_students%E2%80%99_perceptions_of_native_andnon-native_speaker_teachers_of_english_(2002)_.pdf

Laughlin, A. (1984). Teacher Stress in Australian Sellting: the Role of Biographical Mediators. *Educational Education*, *64, 164-168.*

Lee, K. (2002). Investigation into teacher proficiency for communicative English teaching in elementary schools. *Primary English Education, 8*, 235–264.

Luthans, F. (1994). *Organizational Behavior.* Boston: McGraw Hill Publishing.

Lynn, M.R. (1996). Determination and Quantification of Content Validity. *Nursing Research*, *35*, 382-385.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature. *Language Learning*, *41*(1), 85-117.

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning,* 44, 283–305.

Mahboob, A. (2003). *Status of non-native English speaking teachers in the United States.* Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation. Indiana University, Bloomington, N.

Matsuda, P.K. & Matsuda, A. (2001). Autonomy and collaboration in teacher education: Journalsharing among native and nonnative English- speaking teachers. *CATESOL Journal, 13* (1), 109-121. Retrieved from

http://www.catesoljournal.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/CJ13_matsuda.pdf

Maum, R. (2002). Nonnative-English-speaking teachers in the English teaching profession. ERIC Digest. July 31. Retrieved from

http://www.cal.org/resources/Digest/digest_pdfs/0209maum.pdf

Medgyes, P. (1983). The schizophrenic teacher. *ELT Journal*, 37(1), 2–6.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more?.*ELT Journal*, *46*(4), 340-349, Oxford University. Retrieved from

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249252344_Native_or_non-native_Who's_worth-more

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The Non-Native Teacher.* London: Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a non-native speaker. *Teaching Pronunciation,* 429 -442. Retrieved from

http://teachingpronunciation.pbworks.com/f/When+the+teacher+is+a+nonnative+speaker.PDF

Merç, A. (2004). *Reflections of pre-service EFL teachers throughout their teaching practicum. What has been good? What has gone wrong? What has changed?* (Unpublished master's thesis). Anadolu University, Eskişehir.

Moreau, M.-L., (1994), Nous avons la langue trop épaisseou comment être un francophone sénégalais, revue linguistique de Louvain. *L'insécurité linguistique dans les communautés francophones périphériques, 20,* 45-56.

Moussu, L.M. (2006). *Native and nonnative English-speaking English as a second language teachers: student attitudes, teacher self-perceptions, and intensive English administrator beliefs and practices.* Ph.D. Dissertation, Purdue University, United States. Retrieved from

http://www.tirfonline.org/wpcontent/uploads/2011/05/TIRF_DDG_2005_Moussu_Complete.pdf

Moussu, L. (2002). *English as a second language students' reactions to non-native English speaking teachers.* Unpublished M.A. thesis. Brigham Young University, Utah.

Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative Syllabus Design.* Cambridge: CUP.

Nahavandi, A. & Malekzadeh, A. R. (1999). *Organizational Behavior: Person-Organization Fit.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Nemtchinova, E. (2005). Host teachers' evaluations of nonnative-English-speaking teacher trainees: A perspective from the classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(2), 235-261. Retrieved from

http://www.readcube.com/articles/10.2307%2F3588310?r3_referer=wol&tracking_action=preview_click&show_checkout=1&purchase_referrer=onlinelibrary.wiley.com&purchase_site_license=LICENSE_DENIED

Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(1), 131-151.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*, 589–613.

Oakes, L. (2007). "Whose French? Language Attitudes, Linguistic Insecurity and Standardization in Quebec." *Language issues in Canada: multidisciplinary perspectives.* Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Pub. 64-86.

Oliveira, L. C, & Richardson, S. (2001). Collaboration between native and nonnative English-speaking educators. *The CATESOL Journal, 73*(1), 123-134.

Olshtain, E. (2001). Functional tasks for mastering the mechanics of writing and going just beyond. In M. Celce-Murcia, *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*.NY: Heinle & Heinle Inc. p.231.

Owens, Thomposon W., & Paul M. Baker. (1984). Linguistic Insecurity in Winnipeg: Validation of a Canadian Index of Linguistic Insecurity. *Language in Society, 13* (03), 337-350.

Phillipson R. (1992). *Linguistic Imperialism*. Oxford University.

Pilot, D., & Hunger, B. (1999). *Nursing Research: Principals and Methods.* Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Pratt, M.L., (1987). "Linguistic Utopias" *In* Nigel Fabb et al., *The Linguistics of Writing: Arguments between Language and Literature*. Manchester: Manchester University .

Price, M. L. (1991). The subjective experience of foreign language anxiety: Interview with highly anxious students. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 101–108). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Putter, (2003). Stress factors among teachers in schools of industry. University of Zululand. Retrieved from

http://uzspace.uzulu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10530/35/Stress+Factors+among+Teachers+in+Schools+of+Iindustry++L.+Putter.pdf;jsessionid=CE861C5409FFB81B5A8B46232F31C7BE?sequence=1

Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System*, *30,* 85-105.

Renandya, W. A. (2013). Essential factors affecting EFL learning outcomes. *English Teaching, 68(4), 23-41.* Retrieved from

http://www.academia.edu/4099239/FLAMINGOS_-_Essential_Factors_Affecting_EFL_Learning_Outcomes

Richards, J.C. & C. Lockhart, (1994). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Richards, J.C., & Renandya, W. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching*. New York: CUP.

Ross, R.R., & Altmaier, E.M. (1994). *Intervention in Occupational Stress: A Handbook of Counseling for Stress at Work.* California: Sage.

Roussi, M. (2009) L'insécurité linguistique des professeurs de langues étrangères non natifs: le cas des professeurs grecs de français. Thèse, Université La Sorbonne Nouvelle, Paris3. Retrieved from

http://tel.archivesouvertes.fr/docs/00/78/73/05/PDF/2009PA030082.pdf

Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester.

Saito, Y., Horwitz, E., & Garza, J. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 83,* 202-218.

Sano, H. (2002). The world's lingua franca of science. *English Today, 18, 45-49.*

Seidlhofer, B. (1999). Double standards: Teacher education in the Expanding Circle. *World Englishes,18 (2), 233–45.*

Selinker, L. & U. Lakshmanan (1992). Language and fossilization. In S. Gass and S. Selinker (Eds.), *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, (pp. 197-216). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sellers, V. (2000). Anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, *33, 512-521.*

Shillingford-Butler, M. A., Patel, S. H., & Ngazimbi, E. E. (2012). The role of the professional school counselor in reducing teacher anxiety. In G. R. Walz, J. C. Bleuer, & R. K. Yep (Eds.), *Ideas and research you can use: VISTAS 2012* (pp. 1-10). Retrieved from

http://www.counseling.org/resources/library/vistas/vistas12/Article_58.pdf

Smith, D. & Milstein, M.N. (1984). Stress and teachers: Old wine in new bottles. *Urban Education*, 19, 39-51.

Solhi, M. & Buyukyazi M. (2012). Mismatches between Teacher Intention and Learner Interpretation; significance of non-native speaker teacher of English. Paper presented in 7th International ELT Research Conference. Çanakkale, Turkey.

Solhi, M. & Rahimi, A. (2013). Self-perception of Non-native Speaker Teacher of English in the Expanding Circle. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences,* 4(4), 863-869. Retrieved from http://www.irjabs.com/files_site/paperlist/r_761_130422105019.pdf

Tang, C. (1997). On the power and status of nonnative ESL teacher, *TESOL Quarterly, 31,* 577-580.

Tarnopolsky, O. (2008). Nonnative speaking teachers of English as a Foreign Language. In N. V. Deusen-Scholl, & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), Encyclopedia of language and education (4), *Second and foreign language education,* 309-321. New York, NY: Springer.

Tauroza, S., & Luk, J. (1997). Accent and second language listening comprehension. *RELC Journal, 28,* 54–71.

Travers, C. J. & Cooper, C. L. (1996). *Teachers under Pressure: Stress in the Teaching Profession. UK*: Psychology.

Trudgill, P. (1974). *The Social Differentiation of Engiish in Norwich*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Trochim, W.M.K. (2001). *The Research Methods Knowledge Base.* Cincinnati: Atomic Dog.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching, practice and theory.* Cambridge University .

Varda, P. & Akhtar, S. (1989). A Study of Extra Organizational Stress. Paper presented at *the National Seminar on Anxiety, stress and Depression in Modern Life, Patiala.*

Veronica, D. (2011); Stress and Job Satisfaction among University Teachers; *International Conference of Scientific Paper AFASES, Brasov, 26-28.*

Villalobos Ulate, N. (2011). Insights towards native and non-native ELT educators. Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature, *4* (1), 56-79.

Wegener, D. T., & Fabrigar, L. R. (2003). Constructing and evaluating quantitative measures for social psychological research. In C. Sansone, C. C. Morf & A. T. Panter (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of methods in social psychology* (pp. 145-172). Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Widdowson, H.G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 28,* 377–389. Retrieved from

http://engres.ied.edu.hk/academicWriting/EiL_reader/theOwnershipOfEnglish_H-G-Widdowson.pdf

Wilcox, G.K. (1978). The effect of accent on listening comprehension: A Singapore study. *English Language Teaching Journal, 32,* 118–127.

Winford, D. (1978). "Phonological Hypercorrection in the Process of Decreolization – the Case of Trinidadian English." *Journal of Linguistics*, *14* (2), 277-291.

Young, D. J. (Ed.). (1999). *Affect in foreign language and second language learning*: *A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Yuksel, I. (2008). Pre-service teachers' teaching anxiety: Its reasons and coping strategies. *Proceedings of the IASK international conference: Teaching and learning 2008,* 335 344.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

I am conducting a research study in which I will be investigating the linguistic insecurity of non-native English teachers. The information gathered from this study will be used only for my project and all will remain anonymous.

Thank you,

Giti Ehtesham Daftari

Name (optional): ....

Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

Age: ....

What is your first (native) language? ....

How long have you been teaching English?...

Which other languages do you use when teaching English (if any)?
....

1.Which of these qualifications do you hold? Please tick ALL that apply

- ☐ PGCE in ESOL
- ☐ RSA CTEFLA/Cambridge CELTA/Trinity College Cert TESOL
- ☐ RSA Cert TESLA
- ☐ Other initial/pre-service Certificate
- ☐ RSA Diploma in TEFL/Cambridge DELTA/Trinity College
- ☐ Dip TESOL
- ☐ Other TEFL Diploma
- ☐ Master's degree in TEFL, Applied Linguistics or related subject
- ☐ Other TEFL or TESL
- ☐ None
- ☐ Please specify..................................

2.If you have no formal TEFL or TESOL qualification, what training have you received?
....

3.In the last 2 years, have you attended any pre-service or in-service training or workshop related to your ESOL teaching? Yes ...... No......, please specify...

Please circle the answer which most closely matches your everyday. Note that each choice includes a percentage. A always (99%) B almost (87%) C usually (75%) D half the time (50%) E sometimes (25%) F rarely (12%) and G never (1%). If you have no ideas, leave it blank.

1	I lose information when I listen to a conversation between some native English speakers.	A B C D E F G
2	I feel uncomfortable when talking to a native English speaker.	A B C D E F G
3	I spend less time than expected on speaking sections from textbook, because I feel I may lack enough vocabulary to meet students' demand.	A B C D E F G
4	I feel stressed when teaching the pronunciation sections.	A B C D E F G
5	I feel difficulties in correcting students' writing papers.	A B C D E F G

6	I think students lose trust in me when I can't find English equivalent of a word.	A B C D E F G
7	I believe that selecting an English nickname and pretending to be a native English teacher is a good idea because students will trust in me better.	A B C D E F G
8	I feel more comfortable with junior students than seniors.	A B C D E F G
9	I believe that I need more improvement with my English.	A B C D E F G
10	I do not feel confident when I teach.	A B C D E F G
11	There is so much I do not know about grammar. I am terrified that my Students ask me questions.	A B C D E F G
12	I would like to have more opportunities to improve my linguistic competence.	A B C D E F G
13	I appreciate attending teacher training courses.	A B C D E F G

Your feedback is critical and greatly appreciated!

APPENDIX B. Questionnaire Results

No.	Statement	A (1%)	B (12%)	C (25%)	D (50%)	E (75%)	F (87%)	G (99%)
1	I lose information when I listen to a conversation between some native English speakers.	6	7	4	0	0	1	0
2	I feel uncomfortable when talking to a native English speaker.	6	4	4	4	0	0	0
3	I spend less time than expected on speaking sections from textbook, because I feel I may lack enough vocabulary to meet students' demand.	7	5	4	2	0	0	0
4	I feel stressed when teaching the pronunciation sections.	2	2	7	6	1	0	0
5	I feel difficulties in correcting students' papers.	5	2	4	4	2	1	0
6	I think students lose trust in me when I cannot find English equivalent of a word.	3	0	1	2	4	4	4
7	I believe that selecting an English nickname and pretending to be a native English teacher is a good idea because students will trust in me more.	0	0	0	5	2	5	6
8	I feel more comfortable with junior students than seniors.	5	0	0	7	0	0	6
9	I believe that I need more improvement with my English.	2	0	0	3	0	4	9
10	I do not feel confident when I teach.	9	5	1	2	0	0	1
11	There is so much I do not know about grammar. I am terrified that my students ask me questions.	2	1	6	6	1	2	0
12	I would like to have more opportunities to improve my linguistic competence.	1	0	0	2	7	6	2
13	I appreciate attending teacher training courses.	2	0	0	4	0	0	12

APPENDIX C. Interview Questions

Question 1. Do you think you have received enough teacher training courses related to your EFL teaching?

Question 2. Have you ever felt stressed about possible grammatical, vocabulary, or pronunciation questions in the class from learners?

Question 3. What makes you feel stressed or insecure in the classroom?

Question 4. Do you usually feel anxious about being observed by your supervisor or subject teacher? If yes, why?

Question 5. When teaching, which skills or components are you more productive in?

Question 6. Do you think you can meet the needs of all kinds of learners? which group of learners do you feel more comfortable with?

Question 7. In your opinion, do your students follow the lessons enthusiastically?

APPENDIX D. Teachers' Proficiency Test Scores

	Teacher	Reading score	Listening score	Speaking score	Writing score	Overal score
1	F.G.B.	28	26	27	26	107
2	N.A.	26	27	28	26	107
3	C.L.	29	29	28	28	114
4	J.D.	26	24	27	22	99
5	J.N.	20	21	25	20	80
6	L.B.A.	19	20	21	16	80
7	G.E.D.	27	26	28	28	109
8	SH.S.	29	28	30	27	114
9	D.A.	17	20	21	19	77
10	A.N.	30	30	29	28	117
11	T.H.A.	24	21	23	19	87
12	D.V.	23	22	20	19	84
13	D.N.	20	20	24	17	81
14	O.R.	19	20	21	17	77
15	S.N.E.	20	21	23	17	81
16	C.E.	21	22	24	18	85
17	D.K.	17	20	21	19	77
18	J.E.	29	21	23	18	91
	Out of	**30**	**30**	**30**	**30**	**120**

APPENDIX E. Learners' Writing and Speaking Scores

No.	Learner's name	Level	Teacher code	Midterm writing score	Final exam writing score	First interview	Second interview
1	Tugce Sirin K.	B1	J.N.	50	50	50	47
2	Aytac Y.	B1	J.N.	48	50	50	50
3	Betul B.	B1	J.N.	45	50	50	43
4	Gozde M.	B1	J.N.	50	50	50	49
5	Eda S.	B1	J.N.	50	49	50	46
6	Idris D.	B1	J.N.	36	48	42	50
7	Ziya K.	B1	J.N.	27	40	40	50
8	Alican H.	B1	J.N.	31	45	46	44
9	Ahmet Sami K.	B1	J.N.	49	50	50	41
10	Ceren A.	B1	L.B.A.	34	41	36	42
11	Mert Efe K.	B1	L.B.A.	38	41	31	40
12	Ece Naz H.	B1	L.B.A.	23	34	35	38
13	Sefa S.	B1	L.B.A.	46	45	38	47
14	K.Mehmet O.	B1	L.B.A.	42	50	40	44
15	Seda L.	B1	L.B.A.	18	36	35	46
16	Furkan R.	B1	L.B.A.	45	48	39	48
17	G.Simay D.	B1	L.B.A.	21	36	30	32
18	Zeynep Hatice T.	B1	L.B.A.	33	48	37	41
19	F.Eda D.	B1	L.B.A.	41	47	38	45
20	Asuman B.	B1	L.B.A.	28	39	30	36
21	Ugur S.	B1	Sh.S.	34	42	30	39
22	Busra D.	B1	Sh.S. 93	25	40	32	35

23	Yasin L.	B1	Sh.S.	41	47	40	37
24	Dilek A.	B1	Sh.S.	40	42	39	48
25	Mustafa Ozkan E.	B1	Sh.S.	43	36	40	41
26	Idil Yagmur O.	B1	Sh.S.	28	35	36	33
27	Hilmi T.	B1	Sh.S.	36	45	41	43
28	Azra H.	B1	G.E.D.	42	47	50	50
29	Merve B.	B1	G.E.D.	38	41	50	47
30	Baris M.	B1	G.E.D.	34	46	40	41
31	Mehmet Arda V.	B1	G.E.D.	40	49	43	45
32	Hatice C.	B1	G.E.D.	39	41	33	37
33	Haluk Firat G.	B1	G.E.D.	23	39	37	39
34	Sumeyye L.	B1	G.E.D.	27	43	30	38
35	Eser M.	B1	G.E.D.	45	50	49	48
36	Eylul S.	B1	G.E.D.	29	48	35	40
37	Arda H.	B1	G.E.D.	41	50	37	36
38	Tuana Irem R.	B1	G.E.D.	36	46	41	45
39	Aliriza N.	B1	G.E.D.	48	50	39	41
40	Yagmur Z.	B1	S.N.E.	31	41	38	43
41	Atila M.	B1	S.N.E.	39	40	43	48
42	Zehra Beril H.	B1	S.N.E.	44	50	42	47
43	Cagil M.	B1	S.N.E.	50	41	46	50
44	Zehra Yildiz D.	B1	S.N.E.	31	44	34	46
45	Cansu L.	B1	S.N.E.	47	38	45	48
46	Emir Bora O.	B1	S.N.E.	29	38	36	47
47	Atacan U.	B1	S.N.E.	50	50	48	50
48	Figen R.	B1	S.N.E.	39	45	40	45

49	Harun K.	B1	S.N.E.	27	42	37	44
50	Nurullah O.	B1	C.L.	48	41	35	42
51	Onur B.	B1	C.L.	44	45	40	47
52	Merve K.	B1	C.L.	39	35	41	40
53	Fatma B.	B1	C.L.	35	41	40	32
54	Zulal D.	B1	C.L.	50	50	42	43
55	Tolga S.	B1	C.L.	28	34	42	40
56	Sibel O.	B1	C.L.	47	49	45	43
57	Yigit R.	B1	C.L.	32	36	37	39
58	Semih P.	B1	C.L.	40	41	45	49
59	Beyza O.	B1	D.K.	46	43	42	45
60	Cetin D.	B1	D.K.	37	40	33	40
61	Ceren D.	B1	D.K.	49	50	49	48
62	Ali Orhan F.	B1	D.K.	50	50	48	50
63	Kerem N.	B1	D.K.	33	42	37	39
64	Kevin S.	B1	D.K.	50	47	50	49
65	Yasin G.	B1	D.K.	38	48	45	42
66	Fatih N.	B1	D.K.	29	36	35	41
67	K Mumine.	B1	D.K.	50	44	47	49
68	Seda L.	B1	D.K.	49	50	50	47
69	Meltem O.	B1	J.E.	45	50	42	46
70	Ozan K.	B1	J.E.	47	50	50	49
71	Melike H.	B1	J.E.	39	46	49	41
72	Ugurkan D.	B1	J.E.	50	50	50	47
73	Mehmed P.	B1	J.E.	48	50	50	43
74	Bora D.	B1	J.E.	50	50	50	50

75	Rabia U.	B1	J.E.	35	44	48	45
76	Yilmaz H.	B1	J.E.	38	50	42	48
77	Maria U.	B1	J.E.	42	48	44	44
78	Zeynep D.	B1	J.E.	29	41	44	45
79	Ferhat K.	B1	D.N.	50	50	46	50
80	Alihan D.	B1	D.N.	50	49	50	50
81	Merve A.	B1	D.N.	34	41	43	50
82	Sema A.	B1	D.N.	47	50	49	50
83	Dursun Gul Nihal . Y	B1	D.N.	50	50	49	50
84	Yunus O.	B1	D.N.	44	46	50	50
85	Ebru H.	B1	D.N.	49	50	50	50
86	Tahir Anil G.	B1	D.N.	26	38	40	45
87	Ada T.	B1	D.N.	40	46	42	50
88	Hilal M.	B1	D.V.	50	50	50	50
89	Ufuk U.	B1	D.V.	50	49	50	50
90	Serdar K.	B1	D.V.	45	50	50	50
91	Meryem R.	B1	D.V.	50	48	50	50
92	Ahmet Fatih O.	B1	D.V.	38	40	44	50
93	Esra T.	B1	D.V.	47	50	50	50
94	Ozge O.	B1	D.V.	50	50	50	50
95	Sarp B.	B1	D.V.	42	47	50	50
96	Sinem O.	B1	C.E.	49	50	50	48
97	Mustafa D.	B1	C.E.	50	50	50	47
98	Anil H.	B1	C.E.	44	48	50	50
99	Ayse S.	B1	C.E.	37	49	50	45

100	Cagla K.	B1	C.E.	50	44	50	49
101	Elfin Su E.	B1	C.E.	31	45	48	47
102	Eylul K.	B1	C.E.	45	40	45	42
103	Yavuz O.	B1	C.E.	43	40	46	46
104	Ayse Gizem G.	B1	O.R.	49	50	42	40
105	Berat O.	B1	O.R.	50	50	44	50
106	Baris K.	B1	O.R.	34	46	45	49
107	Berk D.	B1	O.R.	50	50	43	50
108	Abdullah Zahid K.	B1	O.R.	47	50	50	50
109	Hatice Kubra I.	B1	O.R.	38	40	44	48
110	Zehra O.	B1	O.R.	50	50	41	50
111	Medine Reyhan O.	B1	O.R.	50	47	50	50
112	Pelin B.	B1	O.R.	41	50	45	40
113	Mehtap G.	B2	Sh.S.	41	50	50	48
114	Lutfu I.	B2	Sh.S.	38	47	50	50
115	Omer Halil B.	B2	Sh.S.	42	45	50	44
116	Nazli Ceyda T.	B2	Sh.S.	35	46	48	50
117	Arzu D.	B2	Sh.S.	49	50	50	47
118	Osman K.	B2	Sh.S.	37	41	45	46
119	Nihan P.	B2	Sh.S.	50	50	50	48
120	Lale K.	B2	T.H.A.	38	40	35	42
121	Bora H.	B2	T.H.A.	42	46	40	44
122	Sebnem Tugba A.	B2	T.H.A.	35	42	39	43
123	Yagiz E.	B2	T.H.A.	49	47	41	50
124	Faruk Ali N.	B2	T.H.A.	26	35	37	42
125	Buse I.	B2	T.H.A.	39	47	35	41

126	Rana Z.	B2	T.H.A.	28	39	34	40
127	Semra A.	B2	T.H.A.	50	50	48	50
128	Fatmagul F.	B2	T.H.A.	33	41	36	45
129	Ayse Beril K.	B2	T.H.A.	49	43	40	42
130	Halit G.	B2	O.R.	31	44	44	45
131	Alptekin A.	B2	O.R.	39	41	45	40
132	Fatih O.	B2	O.R.	47	45	44	40
133	Cihan O.	B2	O.R.	50	49	50	50
134	Simge U.	B2	O.R.	35	48	40	41
135	Ezgi A.	B2	O.R.	50	50	48	50
136	Bekir G.	B2	O.R.	46	50	50	50
137	Nehir I.	B2	O.R.	50	50	50	50
138	Canan S.	B2	O.R.	50	50	50	50
139	Gokay G.	B2	O.R.	28	40	43	45
140	Yagiz Okan N.	B2	D.A.	28	37	37	35
141	Selma A.	B2	D.A.	35	39	39	38
142	Hanife Busra O.	B2	D.A.	38	44	44	42
143	Arzu Simay P.	B2	D.A.	41	46	46	40
144	Omer S.	B2	D.A.	25	41	41	39
145	Pelin Y.	B2	D.A.	47	43	43	42
146	Kadriye O.	B2	D.A.	36	45	45	35
147	Can Berk A.	B2	J.D.	36	40	38	45
148	Elifnur G.	B2	J.D.	42	43	35	39
149	Abdullah C.	B2	J.D.	27	34	39	35
150	Dilek T.	B2	J.D.	39	45	40	43
151	Hanife Busra T.	B2	J.D.	46	48	39	47

152	Ebru H.	B2	J.D.	38	50	42	48
153	Halil O.	B2	J.D.	43	49	41	45
154	Cemal Cetin Y.	B2	J.D.	29	37	35	37
155	Dilara O.	B2	J.D.	50	50	48	50
156	Zeynep L.	B2	J.D.	46	44	42	43
157	Ibrahim K.	B2	J.D.	35	41	38	47
158	Kaan Halil B.	B2	L.B.A.	34	40	30	37
159	Tuana Ilkim F.	B2	L.B.A.	40	42	34	32
160	Sukru K.	B2	L.B.A.	29	35	38	43
161	Zahide F.	B2	L.B.A.	37	36	41	46
162	Ismail T.	B2	L.B.A.	41	36	30	31
163	Doruk H.	B2	L.B.A.	28	35	34	39
164	Meltem H.	B2	L.B.A.	31	44	32	42
165	Hasan T.	B2	L.B.A.	24	37	25	36
166	Cemal K.	B2	D.K.	36	39	35	38
167	Hale S.	B2	D.K.	30	37	37	31
168	Seda G.	B2	D.K.	42	47	45	40
169	Osman H.	B2	D.K.	39	45	41	42
170	Emre Sahin Y.	B2	D.K.	28	39	40	38
171	Merve H.	B2	D.K.	22	26	39	35
172	Begum U.	B2	D.K.	43	41	40	34
173	Sefa M.	B2	D.K.	50	48	45	46
174	Mehmet Ali V.	B2	D.K.	35	32	30	43
175	Y Emel.	B2	D.V.	49	45	40	41
176	Filiz R.	B2	D.V.	35	46	38	40
177	Yusuf B.	B2	D.V.	39	43	40	40

178	Hakan D.	B2	D.V.	21	35	37	38
179	Hanseref U.	B2	D.V.	47	50	50	50
180	Aslihan H.	B2	D.V.	50	50	44	46
181	Zeynep B.	B2	N.J.	30	37	40	42
182	Salih G.	B2	J.N.	42	44	48	50
183	Aynur Z.	B2	J.N.	47	44	48	50
184	Burak K.	B2	J.N.	33	39	45	42
185	Yigit Bora L.	B2	J.N.	50	48	50	50
186	Hande P.	B2	J.N.	26	35	44	45
187	Azra H.	B2	J.N.	28	40	40	36
188	Onur A.	B2	J.N.	39	45	48	50
189	Fahriye K.	B2	J.N.	44	48	50	50
190	Tugce B.	B2	J.E.	42	47	50	48
191	Fatma Busra E.	B2	J.E.	45	46	50	50
192	Elif K.	B2	J.E.	50	50	50	50
193	Mert O.	B2	J.E.	50	44	50	49
194	Dilek K.	B2	J.E.	48	45	48	50
195	Feyza H.	B2	J.E.	46	49	50	45
196	Damla I.	B2	J.E.	34	40	44	47
197	Yigit O.	B2	J.E.	49	50	50	50
198	Cihan F.	B2	J.E.	38	45	46	50
199	Fatih C.	B2	J.E.	29	41	40	42
200	Ozge S.	B2	D.N.	50	45	48	46
201	Elifnur G.	B2	D.N.	50	50	46	50
202	Sinem P.	B2	D.N.	39	43	43	42
203	Ozgur K.	B2	D.N.	45	41	47	39

204	Atacan O.	B2	D.N.	38	40	40	44
205	Osman U.	B2	D.N.	50	50	50	50
206	Gizem O.	B2	D.N.	50	48	49	50
207	Kaan Y.	B2	D.N.	32	44	46	41
208	Damla M.	C1	F.G.B.	50	47	41	48
209	Zuhal S.	C1	F.G.B.	49	45	40	50
210	Batuhan E.	C1	F.G.B.	26	39	42	49
211	Aslihan M.	C1	F.G.B.	30	38	32	44
212	Gamze H.	C1	F.G.B.	50	49	44	46
213	Gokhan A.	C1	F.G.B.	37	40	49	40
214	Furkan A.	C1	A.N.	33	25	32	32
215	Aysu Beren M.	C1	A.N.	40	41	38	41
216	Alime Y.	C1	A.N.	47	43	34	35
217	Fatos M.	C1	A.N.	26	29	22	39
218	Riza B.	C1	A.N.	39	30	26	32
219	Hasim N.	C1	A.N.	45	40	48	50
220	Bilge T.	C1	C.L.	35	35	39	43
221	Hanife S.	C1	C.L.	29	32	30	31
222	Ayhan D.	C1	C.L.	40	36	34	38
223	Sedef O.	C1	C.L.	37	42	30	44
224	Kamil Y.	C1	C.L.	41	42	35	31
225	Omer Tugrul H.	C1	C.L.	22	37	30	36
226	Zekiye Y.	C1	C.L.	48	47	40	42
227	Hasan B.	C1	G.E.D.	45	40	41	46
228	Pelin H.	C1	G.E.D.	42	41	38	43
229	Nazli Ela O.	C1	G.E.D.	36	39	44	49

230	Cansu K.	C1	G.E.D.	50	48	47	50
231	Ozan H.	C1	G.E.D.	50	50	46	50
232	Cihan R.	C1	G.E.D.	48	45	42	50
234	Melike P.	C1	G.E.D.	33	34	47	47
235	Murat O.	C1	G.E.D.	41	47	43	49
236	Aysun H.	C1	N.A.	37	42	40	42
237	Bilal N.	C1	N.A.	25	40	38	35
238	Hilmi C.	C1	N.A.	34	30	41	35
239	Serhat A.	C1	N.A.	40	43	39	48
240	Bunyamin G.	C1	N.A.	43	47	45	40
241	Eylul U.	C1	N.A.	28	39	36	33
242	Nihan P.	C1	N.A.	36	33	41	43
243	Guney A.	C1	T.H.A.	47	45	42	45
244	Burcin B.	C1	T.H.A.	42	46	45	45
245	Ayse Beril K.	C1	T.H.A.	45	41	44	50
246	Ezgi U.	C1	T.H.A.	38	40	35	42
247	Nursel P.	C1	T.H.A.	40	40	41	50
248	Fatma Seda H.	C1	T.H.A.	41	50	44	49
249	Meryem Sevval G.	C1	S.N.E.	33	41	45	50
250	Emir L.	C1	S.N.E.	46	43	50	44
251	Kenan B.	C1	S.N.E.	39	43	48	50
252	Ahmet Yusuf K.	C1	S.N.E.	22	37	42	47
253	Verda U.	C1	S.N.E.	31	42	50	46
254	Irem F.	C1	S.N.E.	39	45	50	50
255	Nur M Eda.	C1	S.N.E.	42	43	49	50
256	Kerem D.	C1	S.N.E.	40	40	46	43

257	Melih S.	C2	F.G.B.	49	47	38	41
258	Tugba C.	C2	F.G.B.	45	46	40	43
259	Ahmet Ziya O.	C2	F.G.B.	32	38	46	39
260	Abdullah K.	C2	F.G.B.	27	30	35	40
261	Sukran N.	C2	F.G.B.	50	50	47	48
262	Gulsemin P.	C2	F.G.B.	44	41	40	40
263	Semra Y.	C2	J.D.	30	32	40	40
264	Halil D.	C2	J.D.	41	47	41	46
265	Seyma H.	C2	J.D.	29	38	45	44
266	Kubra Hatice F.	C2	J.D.	39	31	43	48
267	Lavinya G.	C2	J.D.	45	49	44	40
268	Abidin R.	C2	J.D.	43	49	48	48
269	Fatma P.	C2	J.D.	48	49	44	47
270	Mehmet D.	C2	J.D.	21	38	40	47
271	Zeynep Ela U.	C2	J.D.	34	43	44	40
272	Emel D.	C2	A.N.	45	48	45	43
273	Derya B.	C2	A.N.	44	47	46	50
274	Ecenaz H.	C2	A.N.	44	41	40	47
275	Emir Salih T.	C2	A.N.	50	49	50	50
276	Nur O Sena.	C2	A.N.	27	36	42	45
277	Baris L.	C2	A.N.	48	48	50	50
278	Melih R.	C2	A.N.	43	50	50	48
279	Sevinc G.	C2	N.A.	38	42	40	43
280	Tolga B.	C2	N.A.	43	49	50	48
281	Duygu H.	C2	N.A.	43	40	47	50
282	Fatih K.	C2	N.A.	47	45	45	48

283	Dilara S.	C2	N.A.	39	41	50	49
284	Berna U.	C2	N.A.	35	41	46	50
285	Abdullah S.	C2	N.A.	25	38	40	44
286	Yagmur O.	C2	A.N.	44	40	40	48
287	Betul B.	C2	A.N.	40	42	40	50
288	Deniz U.	C2	A.N.	41	45	35	42
289	Muge K.	C2	A.N.	37	28	36	45
290	Omer S.	C2	A.N.	35	40	32	50
291	Gizem Selin P.	C2	A.N.	49	42	41	48
292	Zafer K.	C2	A.N.	44	45	48	50
293	Verda Zeynep S.	C2	C.E.	31	35	42	45
294	Emir Bora B.	C2	C.E.	40	42	47	50
295	Emirhan S.	C2	C.E.	30	28	40	48
296	Alperen I.	C2	C.E.	47	49	50	50
297	Merve O.	C2	C.E.	25	31	41	45
298	Hande F.	C2	C.E.	44	45	42	40
299	Ceren H.	C2	C.E.	43	40	36	42
300	Ilayda K.	C2	C.E.	37	42	44	41

APPENDIX F. Average of Productive Skills Scores

NO.	Teacher	Level	Writing Average	Speaking Average	Total Average
1	F.G.B.	C1	41.66	43.75	42.70
		C2	41.58	41.41	41.50
2	S.N.E.	B1	40.80	43.85	42.32
		C1	39.12	47.50	43.31
3	C.L.	B1	40.83	41.22	41.02
		C1	37.35	35.92	36.64
4	J.D.	B2	41.45	41.63	41.54
		C2	39.22	43.83	41.52
5	J.N.	B1	45.44	47.11	46.27
		B2	39.94	46	42.97
6	L.B.A.	B1	37.90	38.54	38.22
		B2	35.56	35.62	35.59
7	G.E.D.	B1	41.33	41.29	41.31
		C1	43.06	45.75	44.40
8	SH.S.	B1	38.14	38.14	38.14
		B2	44.35	48.28	46.32
9	D.A.	B2	38.92	37.49	38.21
		C2	44.28	46.85	45.57
10	A.N.	C1	36.50	35.75	36.12
		C2	40.42	46.42	43.42
11	T.H.A.	B2	40.95	41.20	41.07

		C1	42.91	44.33	43.62
12	D.V.	B1	47.25	49.62	48.43
		B2	42.50	42	42.25
13	D.N.	B1	45	48	46.5
		B2	44.68	45.68	45.18
14	O.R.	B1	46.77	46.16	46.47
		B2	44.65	46.25	45.45
15	N.A.	C1	36.92	39.71	38.32
		C2	40.85	43.21	42.03
16	C.E.	B1	44.68	47.68	46.18
		C2	37.85	44.14	41
17	D.K.	B1	44.05	44.30	44.17
		B2	37.72	38.83	38.27
18	J.E.	B1	45.10	46.35	45.72
		B2	44.4	47.95	46.17