An Exploration of EFL Teachers' Teaching Styles and Emotions

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Abstract
The present study aims at delving into English as foreign language (EFL) teachers' preferred teaching style and the emotions that they experienced in their classes. For this purpose, Grasha's Teaching Style Inventory (TSI) and Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) were used to investigate teaching style preferences and teachers' experienced emotions. In so doing, 200 EFL teachers from both public high schools and private language institutes of Iran took part in this study. Concerning teaching style preferences, facilitator and delegator styles were the two most frequent styles endorsed by EFL teachers and regarding emotion, enjoyment was the most and anger was the least dominant emotions EFL teachers experienced in their classes. In addition, the findings showed significant correlations between teachers' teaching styles and their emotions. The findings of the present study may provide information to be taken into consideration by policy makers, language-planners, curriculum designers, language instructors, as well as teachers.

Keywords: teaching style, teacher emotion, EFL teachers

INTRODUCTION

Every person has a particular and distinctive style of thinking, preferences, and ways of doing things which influence their behavior. In educational environment, teachers' personal qualities and attitudes that they employ in their teaching refer to their teaching styles. To Jarvis (2004), teaching style “includes the implementation of philosophy; it contains evidence of beliefs about values related to and attitudes toward all the elements of the teaching-learning exchange” (p. 40). This reflects all of teaching techniques, activities, and approaches that teachers employ in teaching a certain subject in the classroom (Cooper, 2001). In other words, teachers' teaching styles represent their behavior as they teach in the classroom. According to Hargreaves (1998), teaching as an emotional performance mirrors teachers’ own thoughts and the proceedings in
which those thoughts are implanted. That is to say, teachers’ teaching styles might be influenced by their emotions.

In their classrooms, teachers experience different emotions which affect their performance and students’ achievement. By reviewing previous studies, Frenzel (2014) identified seven discrete emotions teachers feel in their classes. They are enjoyment, pride, anger, anxiety, shame, boredom, and pity. As she concluded, these emotions are directly related to other affective-motivational constructs that teachers may encounter in the classroom. In this regard, Schutz and Lee (2014) highlighted the importance of understanding teachers’ emotions in order to have a better understanding of language teaching and learning. By the same token, Cowie (2011) stated that English language teaching is a highly emotional job. Thus, based on what was noted on the potent role of teacher emotions in teaching and learning processes, it seems essential to explore the factors that may be related to or may have some bearings on their emotional development.

Recently, the empirical studies have substantiated the dynamic interplay between the way teachers teach in their classrooms and many other variables such as: their content knowledge (Mewborn, 2001), self-efficacy (Tschannnen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), personality (Cooper, 2001), class management (Yilmaz & Çavas, 2008), sense of efficacy and reflectivity (Akbari, Kiany, Imani Naeeni, & Karimi Allvar, 2008), teaching context (Rahimi & Nabilou, 2010), as well as creativity and burnout (Ghanizadeh & Jahedizadeh, 2016).

The above mentioned studies highlight the contributing effect of teachers’ teaching style and some other variables; however, to the researchers’ best knowledge no study has ever considered the relationship between teachers' teaching style and their emotions in a single study. Thus, in the dearth of research in this domain, the present study was conducted to tap into the relationship between these two variables that are believed to be related to teachers' performance in the classroom, i.e., teaching style preferences and teachers’ emotions.

Due to the potent role of teachers in the realm of successful education the present study set out to answer the following questions:

1. What are the teaching style preferences of Iranian EFL teachers (both public and private sectors)?
2. What kinds of emotions do Iranian EFL teachers (both public and private sectors) experience in their classes?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ (both public and private sectors) teaching style preferences and their emotional experiences?
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Teaching Style

Teaching style reflects a teacher's personal behaviors and media used to transmit data to or receive it from his/her students (Kaplan & Kies, 1995). In Grasha’s view (2002), teaching style is the consistent behaviors of teachers in their relationships with their students. In the same line of inquiry, Cooper (2001) stated that teaching styles refers to the methods, activities, and techniques which a teacher uses in a class. Similarly, Kazemi and Soleimani (2013) defined teaching styles as "reflections of an amalgamation of teachers' theoretical assumptions and actual teaching practice" (p.194).

Leafing through literature on teaching style reveals that this issue has evolved in the 1990s. Those days, many universities offered whole year support services for teaching assistants that studied college teaching in different ways, including curriculum development, reflective teaching, theories of learning, motivation, and the non-teaching aspects of being a faculty member (Filonova, 2008).

Alike students who have different learning styles (e.g. seeing and hearing; reflecting and acting; reasoning logically and intuitively; memorizing and visualizing), teaching styles also vary. "Some teachers prefer lecturing in their classes; some others demonstrate or discuss; some focus on rules and others on examples; some emphasize on memory and others on understanding" (Felder & Henriques, 1995, p. 21).

The literature related to teaching styles reveal various categorizations of teaching styles with different terminologies to describe different styles of teaching. For instance, the categorization of teaching styles into Direct style (didactic) and Indirect style (student-centered) (Flanders, 1970), Formal-Informal (Bennett, Jordan, Long, & Wade, 1976), Open–Traditional (Solomon & Kendall, 1979), Intellectual Excitement-Interpersonal Rapport (Lowman, 1995), Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator, and Delegator styles (Grasha, 1996), are among some of the attempts made to clarify this construct better. Drawing on these categorizations, different measures of assessing teachers’ teaching style have also been developed.

In the present study, Grasha's model was utilized. Anthony Grasha is a professor of psychology at the University of Cincinnati and the co-author of a well-known learning style inventory, the Grasha-Riechmann Student Learning Style Scales as well as the Teaching Styles Inventory. Grasha identified five categorization for teaching style that represent typical orientations and strategies teachers use in their classes:

Expert

The teachers with expert style are concerned about maintaining status as an expert among students by transmitting information that students need. In fact, they are very knowledgeable in displaying detailed knowledge and challenging students to enhance their competence.
Formal authority

The teachers with formal authority style are like faculty members. They as the center of the class emphasize on acceptable standard, provide positive and negative feedback, establish learning goals for students, and supervise students with critical eyes toward standard practices and procedures.

Personal model

The teachers with personal model style act in a way that establish a model for students' thinking and behavior. They as prototypes encourage students to observe and use what seem effective in a teachers' point of view.

Facilitator

This type of teaching style emphasizes on the teacher-student interaction. By asking questions, developing options, suggesting alternatives, and encouraging them to develop criteria, the teachers help students to make informed choices. The ultimate goal is to develop the capacity for independent action, initiative, and responsibility in students.

Delegator

The teachers are concerned with developing students who work independently in an autonomous fashion. They act as resources and are available when students need their help.

More specifically, the theoretical background of this categorization could be traced back to the traditional dichotomy of teacher-centered and student-centered teaching styles (Grasha, 1996). Thus, the teachers with expert teaching style have the knowledge that students need and is concerned with transmitting correct information to students. The teachers with formal authority style are assumed as an expert in their field of study. They are concerned with providing feedback to students, establishing rules, and expectations. The teachers with the personal model style, assume themselves as models for their students and students are expected to emulate their approaches. On the other hand, the teachers with facilitator style focus on teacher-student interaction. They are good listeners who try to enhance teacher-student interactions and critical thinking. In this style, the teachers attempt to encourage their students to make informed decisions. The delegator teachers are characterized as a resourceful person who are available at the request of students. Fostering autonomy in learners is of primary significance for the delegator teaching style (as cited in Kazemi & Soleimani, 2013). The summary of this classification in terms of teacher-centered and student-centered can be observed in Table 1.
Table 1. Grasha's Teaching Style Classification: Teacher-Centered/ Student-Centered Styles (Adapted from Kazemi & Soleimani, 2013, p.194)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-Centered Styles</th>
<th>Student-Centered Styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Expert Style</td>
<td>The Facilitator Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Personal Model Style</td>
<td>The Delegator Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Formal Authority Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 1, the expert style, the personal model style, and the formal authority style are attributed to teacher-centered styles while the facilitator style and the delegator style are defined as student-centered styles.

In a teacher-centered classroom, students are passive learners with no control over their own learning; they are just recipients of teachers' knowledge and wisdom (Ahmed, 2013). That is, teachers as the center of the class make all decision concerning the curriculum. Teacher-centered learning inhibits students’ educational progress (Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009). As Huba and Freed (2000) described, students in a teacher-centered learning style, passively receive information; the emphasis is on acquisition of knowledge, and teacher’s role is to be primary information giver and evaluator. Contrarily, in a learner-centered classroom, learners play a considerable role in designing their own curriculums (Wolk, 2010). Students have the opportunity to make necessary decisions and judge about the relevance of the methods of teaching to their own lives and personal beliefs (Brown, 2007). In this situation, teachers play the role of a facilitator or guide who assist learners get good results. Similarly, Saulnier, Landry, and Wagner (2008) stated that in the learner-centered approach, learners are directly involved in the learning process and do more authentic assessment. The learner-centered approach is based on constructivist philosophy of teaching (Brown, 2007; Weimer, 2002). The learners in constructivism are learning by practicing and experiencing instead of depending on the teachers’ knowledge (Brown, 2007). According to Weimer (2002), in order to achieve learner-centered teaching it is necessary to change five areas. This areas are as follows: the choice of content, the instructor's role, responsibility for learning, the process of assessment, and the power relationship between teacher and learners.

Taken together, there are several factors pear to confine the expression of teaching styles. For example, the ability of the learner, building and maintaining relationships, and the teacher’s need to control over the task are three important factors based on the leadership and management literature applied to education (Hersey, Angelini, & Caracuhansky, 1982). The teacher's response to student learning styles, the students’ need to be controlled by teachers for doing classroom tasks, their abilities to deal with a subject requirement, and their attitudes toward building and keeping relationships, are among other determining factors. In all teacher-student relationships, learning style of each student is a crucial factor (Grasha, 1996; Grasha & Riechmann, 1975).

In the last few years, researchers and scholars reveal a mounting attention toward the momentous role of teaching style in relation to some other variables. For instance, in a study by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016) the relationships between EFL teachers’
teaching style, creativity and burn out were explored. In this study, a path analysis was
run to examine the causal associations. The findings revealed that teachers' creativity
predicts facilitator and delegator positively, but it predicts authority and expert in a
negative direction. Also, the significant role of teacher burn out in creativity was
concluded.

In another study by Mousapour Negari and Khorram (2015), the relationship between
Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their teaching styles was investigated.
The findings of the study revealed a positive significant correlation between Iranian EFL
teachers' emotional intelligence and their teaching styles. Out of five components of
emotional intelligence, four components (interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, and
stress management) could act as predictors for teachers' teaching styles.

By the same token, Iranian EFL teachers' teaching styles and the activities that they use
most frequently in their classes were investigated by Rahimi and Asadollahi, (2012).
Moreover, the difference between male and female teachers' teaching styles and the
relationship between teaching styles and teachers' experience as well as their age were
explored. According to the results of this study male and female teachers were different
in extroverting, sensing, and feeling styles of teaching; on the contrary, female teachers
used activities related to these styles more than their male counterparts. Also, the
findings indicated that EFL teachers' age and experience had a negative relationship
with sensing style and a positive relationship with thinking style of teaching.

**Emotion**

A cursory look at the exiting literature in this realm shows that the Latin origin of
emotion is *emovere*: which means to move out, to stir up (Hargreaves, 1998). That is to
say, every individual is moved or stir up by his/her feelings. The existing literature
offered a plethora of definitions for emotions. The term emotion was used in many ways
which show different theoretical viewpoints including physiological, philosophical,
historical, sociological, feminist, organizational, anthropological, and psychological
perspectives (Oatley, 2000). In spite of the fact that, there is no agreement on what
constitutes emotion by social and personality psychologists, many theorists
conceptualize emotion as multi-componential process (e.g. Frijda, 2001; Planalp, 1999).
It means that each emotion comprises a number unordered collections of components
which are evaluated by how an event is appraised and by component propensities
studied the components of emotion as appraisal, subjective experience, physiological
change, emotion expressions, and action tendencies. In like manner, a clinical
psychologist Izard (2010) referred to similar constituents. He utilized the terms
antecedent cognitive appraisal, cognitive interpretation, neural systems, and expressive
behavior. As another example, Zembylas (2004) referred to emotions as relational,
evaluative and political which are formed by the politics and power relations within a
school and broader society.
Different emotion components do not automatically come after each other. For instance, on the time of experiencing anger at a person, some people have an impulse to move toward that person (i.e., a form of action tendency) whereas others especially the Dutch, have an impulse to move away (Mesquita, Frijda, & Scherer, 1997). Also, on the time of experiencing fear, some people have higher heart rates while others may experience lower heart rates (Cacioppo, Klein, Berntson, & Hatfield, 1993).

Emotions penetrated into every aspect of the teaching and learning process thus, an understanding of the nature of emotions within the school context is of great importance. According to cognitive and social psychologists, emotions affect and shape teachers’ cognitions (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). As a result, emotions may have a crucial effect on motivation (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002), efficacy beliefs and goals (Kaplan, Gheen, & Midgley, 2002). Moreover, teachers’ emotions influence their memory, attention, and categorization (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Parrot and Spachman (2000) pinpointed three different influences of emotions on memory. First, stimulus which is accompanied with emotions is remembered more than stimulus which is unemotional (Mogg & Bradley, 1999). That is, a teacher may recall his interaction with an angry parent more than his usual interaction with a parent who has a normal meeting (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Second, intense emotions enhance memory to remember more details (Heuer & Reisberg, 1992). So a teacher probably remember his interaction with an impolite student but forget a polite student’s interaction. Third, emotions influence memory on the time of remembering information. For instance, perhaps a teacher remember his/her happy moments more than sad moments in the class (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Teacher emotional well-being in the context of high rates of teacher attrition, is considered critical (Fried et al., 2015). Consistent with this argument, Darling-Hammond (2001) and Woolfolk Hoy (2013) stated that teachers are “neither warned about nor prepared for” (p. 264) the emotional demands of their chosen career. This sometimes results in decisions to leave the profession (Richardson, Watt, & Devos, 2013). In order to understand teacher attrition better, researchers have investigated teacher well-being (Parker, Martin, Colmar, & Liem, 2012) and also teacher resilience (Day & Gu, 2009).

It is worth highlighting that one of the main theories which explains teachers’ emotional experiences is appraisal theory (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephen, & Jacob, 2009). According to Chang (2009), appraisal theory takes a cognitive approach toward emotions. That is, emotions are taken by judgments of events and situations. Key to this discussion, Frenzel et al. (2009) stipulated that five appraisals are the main antecedents of emotions. Among them, two appraisals are primary and three of them refer to secondary appraisals (Frenzel et al., 2009).

In studies couched in appraisal theory, primary appraisals refer to goal congruence and goal conduciveness. To what extent learners’ behaviors match teachers’ goal, indicates goal congruence (Frenzel, 2014). As Chang (2009) stated, teachers set some goals in
their classes. When these goals are achieved, positive emotions are intensified, on the other hand negative emotions are increased because these goals are not achieved (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Goal conduciveness refers to the degrees students' behavior contributes to the goals, even if a good result is not achieved (Frenzel, 2014). In this regard, the relationship between the teacher and the students is considered very important. That is to say, if teachers take more attentions about learners, higher level of relevance is experienced between them which in return refers to the learners' contribution to the teachers' goals (Chang, 2009). Secondary appraisals include coping potential (or control), accountability (or agency), and significance (Frenzel et al., 2009). Coping potential refers to whether teachers are able to achieve their goals (Frenzel, 2014). Accountability means who is in charge of success or failure in the case of achieving the goals. This appraisal is very dominant in forming anger (Frenzel et al., 2009). Goal significance refers to the significance of a teachers' specific goal to achieve or to avoid.

To get a clear view of the causes and effects of teacher emotions, Frenzel (2014) proposed a reciprocal model. This model presents the reciprocal relations between perceptions of students' behavior, goals for achievement behavior, appraisals, teachers' emotions, and teachers' instructional behaviors. According to her, this model studies teacher emotions from an achievement perspective and also addresses emotions from a particular outlook to teacher judgments based on the success or failure of their own teaching efforts. The theories behind this model are appraisal theory and attribution theory. Appraisals pertain to general cognitive judgments about situations and events.Attributions relate directly to judgments with concern to the perceived causes for events.

A main assumption of this model is that teachers' emotions are shaped due to their judgments regarding whether their classroom goals are consistent with students' behaviors in the class (Frenzel, 2014). This proposition, is in line with Sutton and Wheatley's (2003) and Chang's (2009) views on appraisal determinants of teacher emotions and burnout (as cited in Frenzel, 2014).

Depending on the academic subject and the students, teacher emotions vary (Frenzel et al., 2015). These assumptions are based on appraisal theories of emotions. That is, individuals' subjective judgments of situations (e.g. their expectancies, attributions, self-concepts, self-efficacy, subjective values, or goals) are significant for general emotion arousal (Roseman & Smith, 2001), and also apply to teacher emotions (Frenzel, 2014).

Hargreaves (1998) stipulated four interrelated points rooted in the sociological and social-psychological literature that are relevant to the ensuing empirical analysis of how emotions are situated and represented in teachers' relationships with their learners. These four points are as followed:

1. Teaching is an emotional practice;
2. Teaching and learning involve emotional understanding;
3. Teaching is a form of emotional labor, and
4. Teachers’ emotions are inseparable from their moral purposes and their ability to achieve those purposes. (p. 838)

In a qualitative study, Hagenauer and Volet (2014) explored university teachers’ emotions in the classroom. Participants were 15 university teachers in two Australian universities. In this qualitative design, the researcher used longitudinal analysis and two in-depth interviews were done with each teacher. They found that positive and negative emotions were experienced in different situations. Also, three themes with regards to emotions were identified. Firstly, it was about intrinsic values and desirable nature of professional teaching. Secondly, it was related to how much teachers’ expectations of students’ engagement were fulfilled. Finally, it was shown that teaching was partially controlled.

In like manner, Chang (2013) explored teachers’ emotions, appraisals, coping and emotion regulation strategies, and their effects on burnout. According to the findings, teachers’ cognitive appraisals affected unpleasant emotions which in turn affected coping strategies which also affected burnout. The findings indicated a direct effect on burnout which means experiencing negative emotions lead to burnout. Also, the results showed that emotion regulations partially predicted burnout.

**METHOD**

**Participants**

The participants of this study comprised 200 EFL English teachers, 100 EFL high school and 100 private institute teachers selected according to convenience sampling among EFL teachers teaching English at intermediate to upper intermediate levels in different cities of Iran. It was attempted to include teachers from different age groups, with different years of teaching experience, and of both genders to ensure generalizability.

The profile of the teachers is as follows:

High school teachers’ ages varied from 23 to 52 years old with 1 to 30 years of experience. They were 45 male and 55 female. Among them, 65 had majored in English language teaching, 26 in English translation, six in English literature, and three in linguistics. Seven teachers were PhD candidates, 36 held an MA degree or were MA students, and the rest had a BA degree.

Institute teachers were between 23 and 46 years old with 1 to 23 years of teaching experience. Out of 100 high school teachers, 32 were male and 68 were female. The majority had majored in different branches of English, i.e., English teaching (39), English translation (21), English literature (20), linguistics (11) and the rest had certificate in different majors except English with the necessary supplementary qualifications to teach English. Among them, 11 teachers were PhD candidates, 51 had an MA degree or were MA students and 38 held a BA degree.
Table 2. Frequency of Teacher Distribution (in this study) in Different Cities of Iran

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gonabad</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mashhad</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quchan</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehran</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenaran</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zahedan</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerman</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rasht</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qum</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instruments

Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory (TSI)

Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory (1996) includes 40 items on a 7 point Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The participants are supposed to respond to each of the items in terms of how they teach. Each 8 items identifies one of the five basic teaching styles defined by Grasha regarding expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator teaching style. Regarding this instrument, Grasha (1996) reported acceptable reliability (alpha = .72 for the entire test) and validity. Table 3 represents the items associated with each particular teaching style.

Table 3. Classification of Different Items of Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory (TSI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Authority</td>
<td>2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Model</td>
<td>3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegator</td>
<td>5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT)

Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) designed and validated by Frenzel, Pekrun, and Goetz (2013) was utilized to assess enjoyment, anxiety, and anger. Furthermore, by reviewing the literature on this realm, Khajavi, Ghonsooly, and Hosseini Fatemi (2016) developed items for pride, shame, and boredom. It contains 24 items and each item is scored using six-point Likert type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. This questionnaire is in Persian. As the other questionnaire used in this study was in English this questionnaire was translated into English by the researcher. Then, it was proofread by two experts in the fields of translation and teaching. The total Cronbach’s alpha of this questionnaire was .85 which showed an acceptable reliability for the scale.
Data Collection Procedure

This study was done in different high schools and private language institutes in Iran. With the managers’ permission, the EFL teachers received Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory (TSI) and Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) which were coded numerically and the participants were asked to answer them anonymously. Moreover, the aim of completing the questionnaire was explained and the participants were assured that their views would be confidential. As an incentive, the participants were given the opportunity to receive feedback about their performance on the instruments by presenting their codes.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data in this study Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 18) were utilized. First descriptive statistics was depicted to summarize the characteristics of the variables. Then, an independent-samples $t$-test was run to determine the discrepancies between public school and private language institute teachers with regard to teachers’ teaching styles and their emotions. Finally, to inspect the relationships between subscales of teaching style and teacher emotion, a Pearson product moment correlation formula was utilized.

RESULTS

Testing Normality of the Variables

In order to conduct statistical methods and make logical inferences based on the research’s hypotheses, the most important step is to choose an appropriate statistical method for the research study. To this aim, data distribution must be taken into consideration. In the present study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used to check normality distributions of the variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventory</th>
<th>Sub-scales</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov$^a$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expert</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formal authority</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Style</td>
<td>Personal model</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facilitator</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delegator</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enjoyment</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anxiety</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>anger</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pride</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shame</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boredom</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4 shows, the estimated p-value test for all the inventories and their subscales are greater than .05 which shows that the data have been normally distributed.

**Teaching Style Preferences of Iranian EFL Teachers**

The following table displays the descriptive statistic for teaching style preferences of EFL teachers. This table includes mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum.

**Table 5.** Descriptive Statistics: Teaching Style Preferences of Iranian EFL Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching styles Subscales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formal.authority</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal.model</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facilitator</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delegator</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5, facilitator style has the highest mean score (M= 5.46, SD=1.01). The second highest mean score is related to delegator style (M= 5.05, SD=.96). Personal model (M=5.22, SD=1.36), expert (M=5.15, SD=1.38), and formal authority (M=4.97, SD=1.34) are the subsequent styles endorsed by Iranian EFL teachers.

**Table 6.** Descriptive Statistics: Dominant Teaching Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Style Subscales</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal authority</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal model</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegator</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data are presented visually in the following bar chart.

![Figure 1. Frequency Distribution of Teaching Style Preferences](image)
To investigate teaching style preferences of Iranian EFL teachers which is the aim of the first research question, the percentage and frequency of each teaching style subscales were calculated. As Table 6 and Figure 1 demonstrate, the highest percentage is related to facilitator style (31%). Delegator style (21%) gets the second highest percentage among the other teaching styles. The three other styles have lower percentages as follows: Personal model (19.5%), expert (19.0%), and formal authority (9.5%).

The Emotions Iranian EFL Teachers Experience in their Classrooms

The following table shows the descriptive statistic for teachers’ emotion subscales. This table includes mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of the Emotions EFL Teachers Experience in their Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventory Subscales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enjoyment</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anxiety</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>anger</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pride</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shame</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>boredom</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 7, Enjoyment gets the highest mean score (M=4.92, SD=1.01) among all emotion subscales. The second highest mean score is related to pride (M=4.54, SD=1.02). Shame, anxiety, boredom, and anger are the subsequent emotions experienced by teachers.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics: Dominant Emotional Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shame</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boredom</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Bar Chart for Frequency Distribution of Teachers’ Emotion Subscales
According to Table 8 and Figure 2., among the six subscales of teachers' emotions, enjoyment (48.5%) and pride (24.5%) are the most dominant emotions Iranian EFL teachers experience in their classes. The percentages of anxiety, shame, boredom, and anger are 8.5%, 7%, 6%, and 5.5%, respectively.

The Relationship between Iranian EFL Teachers' Teaching Style Preferences and their Emotions (Public and Private Sectors)

Pearson product-moment correlation formula was conducted to answer the third research question which is concerned to find out possible relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' teaching styles preferences and their emotions.

Table 9. Correlation among Different Components of Emotions and Teaching Style Preferences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventory Components</th>
<th>expert</th>
<th>formal authority</th>
<th>personal model</th>
<th>facilitator</th>
<th>Delegator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enjoyment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.621**</td>
<td>.455*</td>
<td>.658**</td>
<td>.851**</td>
<td>.807**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.504**</td>
<td>.702**</td>
<td>.645**</td>
<td>.472**</td>
<td>.456**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anger</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.459*</td>
<td>.475*</td>
<td>.425'</td>
<td>-.453*</td>
<td>-.462*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pride</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.605**</td>
<td>.585**</td>
<td>.592**</td>
<td>.835**</td>
<td>.797**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shame</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.555**</td>
<td>.603**</td>
<td>.520**</td>
<td>-.452*</td>
<td>-.431*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boredom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.463*</td>
<td>.556**</td>
<td>.515**</td>
<td>-.417*</td>
<td>-.406*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 9 demonstrates, there are significant relationships between enjoyment and expert (r=.621, p<.01), formal authority (r=.455, p<.05), personal model (r=.658, p<.01), facilitator (r=.851, p<.01), and delegator (r=.807, p<.01). Regarding the relationships between anxiety and teaching style subscales the following results are presented: anxiety and expert (r=.504, p<.01), formal authority (r=.702, p<.01), personal model (r=.645, p<.01), facilitator (r=.472, p<.05), and delegator (r=.456, p<.05). Considering anger, moderate positive relationships are shown between anger and expert style (r=.459, p<.05), formal authority (r=.475, p<.05), personal model (r=.425, p<.05). The relationships between anger and facilitator (r=.453, p<.05) as well as delegator (r=.462, p<.05) are shown to be moderate negative. Strong positive relationships can be seen between pride and all teaching style subscales. The results are as follows: pride and expert (r=.605, p<.01), formal authority (r=.585, p<.01), personal model (r=.605, p<.01), facilitator (r=.835, p<.01), and delegator (r=.797, p<.01). There are strong
positive relationships between shame and expert (r=.555, p<.01), formal authority (r=.603, p<.01) as well as personal model (r=.520, p<.01). But there are moderate negative relationships between shame and facilitator (r=-.452, p<.05) as well as delegator (r=-.431, p<.05). Concerning the relationships between boredom and teaching style subscales the following results are presented: boredom and expert (r=.463, p<.05), formal authority (r=.556, p<.01), personal model (r=.515, p<.01), facilitator (r=-.417, p<.05), and delegator (r=-.406, p<.05).

DISCUSSION

In this study, the results demonstrated that among teaching styles, facilitator and delegator were the most preferred teaching styles by Iranian EFL teachers, respectively. Personal model, expert, and formal authority were the subsequent styles endorsed by teachers.

Actually, facilitator teachers are more engaged in providing a learning environment which is conducive to learning and promoting the highest levels of motivation. They help students make necessary decisions to achieve their goals. They focused on students and their learning. Their overall goal is to help students develop independent action, initiative, and responsibility (Grasha, 2002). The teacher with delegator style is also concerned with developing the students' autonomous and independent learning.

The above mentioned result is in contrast to a study done by Amini, Samani, & Lotfi (2012) in which the expert style was as the dominate style in Iranian context. The contradiction between this study and the previous one can be attributed to fact that their study was done in an academic setting among the faculty members at university while the present study was conducted among teachers at high schools and private language institutes. For many years, the English learning curriculum at schools in Iran derived from the combination of Grammar translation method and Audiolingualism (Ghanizadeh & Heydarnejad, 2015; Ghonsooly, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2012). But, it is worth highlighting that since 2007, Iranian national curriculum for teaching foreign languages was developed based on CLT. This in turn addressed many changes in English language teaching in Iran. There have been many efforts taken into consideration in order to successfully implement a CLT curriculum in English language learning at schools. These attempts have been underway to shift away from traditional teacher-centered classes to learner and learning-centered ones. Consequently, EFL teachers' teaching styles should be developed to implement a communicative language teaching program. Because teaching styles have great impact on students' motivation and their achievement in the subject. All in all, this development might gradually change Iranian EFL teachers' attitude toward their teaching styles during the recent years.

As the findings show, positive emotions (enjoyment and pride) were more dominant than negative emotions (anger, anxiety, shame, and boredom) for Iranian EFL teachers. Enjoyment had the highest mean score while anger had the lowest mean score. Therefore, it can be concluded that Iranian EFL teachers experience positive emotions and in general enjoyed their teaching. This finding is consistent with recent studies
conducted by Keller, Chang, et al. (2007) and Frenzel et al. (2009) in Germany where they concluded enjoyment is the most dominant teachers’ emotion in the classroom.

Anxiety and shame had the highest mean scores among negative emotions, respectively. Boredom and anger were the two least negative emotions felt by Iranian EFL teachers. This finding contradicts previous studies which shows anger as the dominant negative emotion (Keller, Chang, et al., 2014; Sutton, 2007; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The inconsistency between the findings of the present research and the abovementioned studies can be attributed to this fact that there is a specific type of anxiety in language classes which is different from general anxiety and it can be a considerable threat to "the mental well-being and job satisfaction of foreign language teachers" (Horwitz, 1996, p.367). Also, according to Bibby (2002), shame is believed to be culture-specific and is usually reported more in eastern cultures than in western cultures.

Results demonstrated that teacher’s emotions had a statistically significant impact on teachers’ styles. Teachers experience positive and negative emotions while teaching in their classes which in turn affect the implementation of their preferred teaching styles. In the same line of argument, Goetz et al. (2013), stated that "theoretical assumptions and scattered empirical research suggest that characteristics of teaching are related to classroom emotions" (p.384).

The present finding also showed that positive emotions (enjoyment and pride) were highly correlated with student-centered styles (facilitator and delegator) while negative emotions were highly correlated with teacher-centered styles (expert, formal authority, and personal model). It can be concluded that teachers with facilitator and delegator styles are more flexible and adaptive to regulate negative emotional experiences in order to provide non-threatening learning environment for the learners.

It is worth highlighting that, from the perspective of the control-value theory, high teaching quality is expected to elicit a positive emotional pattern in students (Goetz et al., 2013). Many hours are spent in the classroom and social relationships are created there. Both teachers and students are infused with intense emotional experiences that direct interactions which in turn affect learning and performance, and influence personal growth in both students and teachers (Pekrun et al., 2002). Also, Goetz et al. (2007) stated that teacher enthusiasm is positively correlated with enjoyment and pride but negatively correlated with anger and boredom in class.

Although recent studies indirectly highlighted the contributing effects of teachers' emotions on teachers' practices, instructional behaviors, and their teaching styles, there is a scarcity of such research on relationship between EFL teachers' emotions and their teaching styles. This dearth of investigation echoes a clear need to undertake identical studies in this area.
CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study can be both theoretically and practically significant. Such a study redounds to the benefit of teacher educators, administrators, policy makers, textbook developers, and teacher training courses (TTC). In addition, the result of this study would provide EFL teachers and researchers with awareness that can help them advance more meaningful and effective teaching and learning strategies.

REFERENCES


An Exploration of EFL Teachers' Teaching Styles and Emotions


