

© 2011 Tomohisa Machida

TEACHING ENGLISH FOR THE FIRST TIME:
ANXIETY AMONG JAPANESE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

BY

TOMOHISA MACHIDA

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Elementary Education
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2011

Urbana, Illinois

Doctoral Committee:

Associate Professor Daniel James Walsh, Chair
Associate Professor Peter Scott Golato
Assistant Professor Randall W Sadler
Professor Arlette I Willis
Visiting Assistant Professor Hugh Bishop

Abstract

English language education officially started in Japanese elementary schools in 2009. Homeroom teachers, whether experienced or not, are responsible for teaching the subject to students. Additionally, teachers are often required to team-teach with a native English speaker. It is plausible that Japanese teachers are anxious about teaching English. This study investigated Japanese teachers' English anxiety and its sources. Teachers' anxiety-coping strategies were also examined. English anxiety includes (a) anxiety about a teacher's own English proficiency and (b) anxiety about teaching English. There were 133 Japanese elementary school teachers participating in the present study, as well one native English teacher, and three in-service teacher trainers. The Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, 2008), the Situational Teaching Anxiety Scale, follow-up interviews, and a survey were used in this study. Data showed that 77.4% of teachers were anxious about their own English proficiency, and 90.2% of them were anxious about teaching English. The sources of anxiety included lack of experience and training for teaching English and lack of confidence in English communication. Teachers experienced two phases of anxiety, depending on their English teaching experience. The study also has educational implications for less-experienced teachers who have to understand that there are two phases of anxiety. Furthermore, support by the city board of education is important for diminishing teachers' anxiety.

Keywords: English language education, anxiety, elementary school, teacher

To my wife, Emi, and son, Taiga

Acknowledgement

I would never have been able to finish my dissertation without the guidance of my committee members, help from teachers, and support from my family and wife.

I am heartily thankful to my advisor, Dr. Daniel Walsh, for his excellent guidance, caring, and support, and encouragement for me to complete my doctoral program for these past three years. His advice about the Japanese way of thinking helped me to develop background for this research. He also gave valuable assistance to my wife and me for raising our son here in the United States. His support provided me with excellent opportunities for successfully completing my research and raising my son at the same time.

I would like to express my deep gratitude to Dr. Hugh Bishop for guiding my research for the past few years. Without his suggestions and comments to drafts of my dissertations, I would not have completed writing my dissertation this semester. I would also like to thank Dr. Golato, Dr. Sadler, and Dr. Willis to participate in my final defense and to give me ample advice for the improvement of my dissertation.

I would like to express my appreciation to Ms. Akita, and to elementary schools teachers and teacher trainers in Tokyo. They taught me about elementary school English language education and participated in my research in a most positive way.

I would like to thank my parents and my brother and sister, who have always supported me and encouraged me with their best wishes.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my wife, Emi. Without her support and love, I would not have been able to finish my doctoral program. She was always cheering me up and encouraging me to finish my dissertation.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	13
Chapter 3: Methodology.....	56
Chapter 4: Results.....	71
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	102
Chapter 6: Conclusion.....	119
References.....	126
Appendix A Survey of Teacher English Language Anxiety.....	139
Appendix B 英語不安に対する調査.....	143
Appendix C Teacher Trainer Survey.....	146
Appendix D 小学校英語のための研修についてのアンケート.....	149
Appendix E Results of Questionnaire about English Anxiety.....	152

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Purpose

Japanese elementary schools officially started teaching English, beginning in the fifth grade, in 2009. While the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) launched English language education because of pressure from “Japanese industry and government officials” (Butler & Iino, 2005) teachers did not welcome English, citing their lack of training, materials, and experience. It is plausible that a sizeable majority of elementary teachers exhibit anxiety about teaching English.

The main purpose of this study is to examine possible English anxiety among elementary school teachers in Japan. English anxiety includes (a) anxiety about a teacher’s own English proficiency and (b) anxiety about teaching English. Second, the study seeks to investigate the relationship between English anxiety and English teaching experience. Third, this study focuses on personal and situational factors which could arouse anxiety. Fourth and finally, this study explores teachers’ strategies to deal with English anxiety. Because few studies deal with English anxiety among Japanese elementary school teachers, this study seeks to take a step further in the study of this type of anxiety. The following nine research questions reflect the four purposes of this study.

1. Do elementary school teachers experience English anxiety?
2. Are there differences in levels of English anxiety between Japanese elementary school teachers in two different school districts?
3. Does English anxiety differ significantly by gender?
4. Does English anxiety differ significantly by years of teaching experience?

5. Are there differences in levels of English anxiety between Japanese elementary school teachers who received formal training in teaching English and those who did not?
6. Are there differences in levels of English anxiety between Japanese elementary school teachers with travel experience to English speaking countries and those without travel experience to English speaking countries?
7. Does lack of English teaching experience provoke anxiety?
8. Does English anxiety differ significantly by one's level of English proficiency?
9. How do Japanese elementary school teachers deal with English anxiety?

To understand teachers' anxiety, the first research question focuses on examining whether they experienced anxiety about teaching English. English language education was begun in Japan as recently as April, 2009. This question would reveal their anxiety toward English proficiency and English teaching.

The second question reflects a relationship between English anxiety and different working environments. In this study I compare elementary school teachers in two school districts. Teachers in one school district started English language education in 2004 on a trial basis, and teachers in the other school district began English in April, 2009. Also, teachers in the former school district received sufficient support from the city board of education for the purpose of teaching English. Thus, it can be hypothesized that Japanese elementary school teachers who have English teaching experience and sufficient support might have a lower level of anxiety than teachers without them.

Questions #3 to #6 examine the influence of participants' demographic factors (i.e., personal background information) on their level of anxiety. In prior research,

demographic factors correlated with anxiety. I focus on the following four demographic factors: gender, length of teaching experience, formal training, and the experience of traveling to the target country. The reason I chose these four factors was that there was no agreement among researchers relating to these factors. For example, Chou (2003) and Morton et al. (1997) stated that female teachers showed higher anxiety than males, but Ameen et al. (2002), Widmer and Chavez (1982), and Liu (2008) concluded that gender was not a factor in provoking teaching anxiety.

The next three questions focus on the influence of triggers (which are defined as situational factors directly associated with teachers' classroom behaviors) on their anxiety level. Like demographic factors, triggers also arouse teaching anxiety. As previously mentioned, Japanese elementary school teachers need to overcome three possible difficulties: lack of training, lack of materials, and lack of experience in communicating with native speakers of English. The first difficulty (lack of training) can be considered as a demographic factor and was previously mentioned. I focus on the two remaining difficulties (lack of materials and lack of experience in communicating with native speakers of English) in this question. Lack of experience in particular may be an important factor because many researchers (Ameen et al., 2002; Widmer & Chavez, 1982; Chou, 2003; Gardner & Leak, 1994; Morton et al., 1997; Liu, 2008) claimed that teaching experience in the target subject could decrease anxiety. A final trigger explores the relationship between anxiety and teachers' level of English proficiency. As Kondo and Yang (2002) as well as Pappamihel (2002) have argued, low proficiency in the target language provoked anxiety. Because Japanese elementary school teachers are thought to have low English proficiency (Butler, 2004), it would be reasonable to

examine whether the perceived level of their English proficiency causes them to have English anxiety.

The last question explores possible coping strategies among teachers. In a prior study, teachers with teaching anxiety managed to decrease their anxiety through using some techniques, such as improving their knowledge or asking help from others. It might be a little early to ask elementary school teachers about their coping techniques because they only began teaching English in 2009, and might not yet have developed a full range of coping strategies. However, asking about their strategies would allow them to articulate their efforts to cope with difficulties they experienced in teaching English.

Background

English in Japan

For many years, English language education has been a central topic in Japanese education. Both educational policy and the demand from the business community established English as the primary foreign language in Japan. Japanese people believe that it is important to improve English communication skills and that “raising the ability to communicate with foreigners is a key remedial measure to boost Japan’s position in the international economic and political arena” (Butler & Iino, 2005, pp. 25-26) in the current severe economic recession. People spend many hours trying to acquire English. Students begin studying English in the 7th grade. The length of study depends on individuals, but if they study at college they usually study English for at least eight years. A survey by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Science and Technology (MEXT) showed that 53.9% of high school students advanced to college in 2008, and

increasing percentages of students are going to college. In every high-stake test such as university entrance exams, English is one of the main subjects and is taken by every student.

English Proficiency in Japan

Although people spend many hours studying English in school the low level of oral performance of Japanese learners of English has been noted by language educators and researchers (Butler & Iino, 2005). In fact, the MEXT argued, “Due to the lack of sufficient ability, many Japanese are restricted in their exchanges with foreigners and their ideas or opinions are not evaluated appropriately” (MEXT, 2003). In addition, many researchers cited the result of average TOEFL scores for discussing poor English proficiency in Japan. The *TOEFL test and score data summary* (2009) showed that the mean score of TOEFL iBT among Japanese test-takers ranked 28th out of 30 Asian countries. Butler (2008) stated that TOEFL is not an appropriate tool for measuring the English proficiency of ordinary Japanese people because it is designed to test students who are going to study in universities in the United States.

Instead of using the TOEFL average score, Butler (2008) measured English proficiency in Japan by asking questions about English fluency of elementary school teachers in three countries (Japan, Korea, and Taiwan). Butler asked 112 Japanese teachers, 204 Korean teachers and 206 Taiwanese teachers to rate English fluency among people in 10 countries (Japan, Korea, Taiwan, China, Brazil, France, Germany, India, the Philippines, Singapore, and Hong Kong), based on their personal experience and impressions. All participants in the research rated Japanese as the least fluent among the

three nations in speaking English. Even Japanese teachers evaluated themselves as the least fluent in spoken English. Of course, as Butler mentioned, personal impressions of English proficiency were affected by participants' experience or degree of contact with English speakers. Their answers might not reflect true national English proficiency among the 10 countries. The result, however, appears to confirm negative impressions about Japanese English oral proficiency. Both the TOEFL test scores and the participants' impressions of English fluency showed that Japanese people lacked proficiency in English.

English Language Education

In response to criticism that Japanese lack communicative skills in English, in 2003 the MEXT published the *Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities."* The Action Plan stressed that further support would be needed in English conversation activities in elementary schools. As Torikai (2001) mentioned, "People started to think that perhaps lowering the age for English language learning might help" (p. 11). In 2003, almost half of public elementary schools in Japan carried out English conversation activities in their period of integrated study for a few hours each year. Schools invited native speakers to their classrooms, and students learned some basic greeting expressions in English. Because English was not an official school subject, teachers did not pay much attention to English in their daily lessons.

The situation drastically changed after the new *Course of Study*—a new national curriculum—was released by MEXT in 2008. The *Course of Study* established English as one of the subjects for 5th and 6th grade students in elementary schools. Students were

required to study English 35 hours a year (once every week that school was in session). As the MEXT-authored report stated, the *Course of Study* established “the standards for educational courses in all schools” (2008), which schools in Japan were required to follow in their curricula. The new curriculum officially starts in 2011, but each elementary school was allowed to begin English ahead of schedule in 2009. One of the reasons for this was that each school needed to spend time for preparation and to become accustomed to English language education during the trial period. *Sankei Shimbun* (2009, June 10), one of the major newspapers in Japan, reported that 98.7% of public elementary schools introduced English as a subject in 2009. The educational press reported the current state of implementation of English education in elementary schools through its weekly newspaper (2009, May 18). In the report, 57.2% of schools conducted English lessons for a total of between 26 and 35 hours during the 2009 academic year, which meant that more than half of elementary schools were ready for the full implementation of the new English language curriculum.

Government perspective. To conduct English programs at elementary schools, the Japanese government set a new budget of 400 million yen (approximately 4 million dollars, U.S.) for the 2009 fiscal year, and budgeted 770 million yen (approximately 7.7 million dollars, U.S.) for the 2010 fiscal year. Most of the budget was used for printing and distributing supplementary teaching materials (*English Notebook*) to every teacher and student. The MEXT aimed to cultivate students with a good command of English, as stated in the *Action Plan* of 2003. The Government expects that students will improve their communication abilities by means of these elementary English lessons.

Parent perspective. Seventy-five percent of parents welcomed the English language program in elementary schools (Benesse Educational Research and Development Center—BERDC, 2007). Although students began studying English in the 5th grade, almost 50% of parents want them to start studying English in the 1st grade. Seventy-five percent of parents answered that children would be interested in studying foreign countries. Seventy-three percent of parents believed that their children would study English without much difficulty at secondary schools. Fifty-six percent of parents believed that children would be able to improve their communication abilities. The data indicated that parents were positive about English language education in elementary schools.

Student perspective. No research has been conducted on elementary school students' opinions toward English. However, in 2009 BERDC investigated previous English learning experiences among junior high school students. The study showed that about 70% of junior high school students who studied English during elementary school enjoyed learning the language. In addition, about 40% of students went to private English conversation schools as an after-school activity. Overall, the students' response to English seems to be positive.

Anxiety among Elementary School Teachers

By contrast, teachers in elementary schools appeared not to welcome English and were anxious about teaching English. A 38-year-old male teacher said about English education, "To tell you the truth, I am not confident of my English pronunciation. Even though I took training, I am worried about how I can teach English to students

effectively” (*Sankei Shimbun*, 2009, May 24). Senior teachers were more nervous about teaching English because they had not studied English since college. Owing to the start of English language education at elementary schools, teachers became anxious about teaching this particular foreign language. Actually, many senior teachers who were in their 50s, tried to take early retirement because they wanted to avoid teaching English (Fukuyama, 2008).

Anxiety about teaching English became a critical issue for teachers in elementary schools because Japanese teachers were not familiar with the new subject. Ameen, Guffey, and Jackson (2002) argued, “Anxiety may cause the development of teaching behaviors that are inappropriate, ineffective, and damaging to the instructor’s health” (p. 16). Anxious teachers tended to avoid using the target language in class (Horwitz, 1996), which of course is undesirable. Under these circumstances, teachers could not expect to further their professional development, and students could not improve their language proficiency because they had fewer encounters with the target language. It is important to conduct research about language anxiety among teachers for the purpose of better assessing English language education in Japanese elementary schools. Therefore, in this study I want to explore English teaching anxiety among Japanese teachers.

Potential Causes of Anxiety

In addition to the high expectations by parents and students for their verbal performance in English, several factors possibly contributed to the anxiety among Japanese elementary school teachers. First, current elementary school teachers did not need to take any academic coursework relating to English, such as ESL methodology,

while studying for the teacher certificate at college. The lack of previous English training could easily make them nervous about teaching English. Of course, some teachers took training at private English institutions on their own initiative, but each city board of education rarely offered training for teaching English to elementary school teachers in advance of actual instruction in the elementary classroom. Japanese elementary school teachers are not fully trained as language teachers, but they are required to teach English to their students.

Second, teachers do not have textbooks for teaching English. To compensate for the lack of textbooks, they are supposed to create their own teaching materials. Unlike other subjects, teachers have to teach English without using authorized textbooks. In other subjects, such as math or social studies, the MEXT authorizes textbooks, and council members on a national board of education review them every three years. Textbooks are distributed for free to all students and teachers. Then, teachers in every school in Japan have easy access to these authorized textbooks. Of course, the MEXT published a thin book titled *English Notebook* as a supplementary teaching material, but it included only some easy vocabulary, such as numbers and names of animals, along with pictures. The *Japan Educational Newspaper* reported that only local governments that had a substantial budget for English language education created their own teaching materials (2009, May 18). If a city board of education is not wealthy and does not provide some financial support to buy English teaching materials, teachers have to create their own materials for their English lessons from scratch. Extra efforts to create teaching materials for every lesson appear to generate additional stress among teachers.

Third, Japanese teachers in elementary schools have to communicate with a native English speaker who works as an Assistant English Teacher (AET) for their team teaching. Team teaching between a Japanese teacher and a native English speaker is one of the main teaching styles in English education in elementary schools. The new *Course of Study* (MEXT, 2008) stated, “Effort should be made to get more people involved in lessons by inviting native speakers of the foreign language or by seeking cooperation from local people who are proficient in the foreign language, depending on the circumstances of the local community” (p. 2). The *Action Plan* (MEXT, 2003) also indicated that one third of English lessons should be taught by not only a Japanese teacher but also a native or near-native speaker of English who works as an AET. It was a huge change for teachers in terms of their teaching styles because homeroom teachers had been dominant teachers in their classrooms and they had never taught with other teachers in class. In addition, Japanese elementary school teachers had never before been required to speak English in their daily work. Regarding their English proficiency, as the MEXT (2003) mentioned, elementary school teachers did not have sufficient English ability for speaking and listening. Nishino and Watanabe (2008) argued that insufficient proficiency in English would lead to the decline of teachers’ authority. They stated that “because many Japanese English teachers perceive their speaking skills as weak and believe that their authority might be tarnished if they make mistakes in front of students, they may not have the confidence to use English” (p. 134). Even junior and senior high school English teachers in Japan had low English proficiency (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008) and felt anxiety about speaking English. It is plausible that elementary school

teachers were anxious about communicating with native AETs in English in the classroom.

English language education in Japanese elementary schools began as recently as April of 2009. No study has examined English anxiety among elementary school teachers in Japan. This study of English anxiety among teachers in Japanese elementary schools describes the characteristics of their anxiety about their own English proficiency and teaching English. It also provides some hints for creating additional teacher training for both pre-service and in-service situations. This study focuses on English anxiety among Japanese teachers at public elementary schools in Tokyo who had begun teaching English as a subject in the classroom.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

In the following literature review, I survey research on anxiety, first among school teachers and then among foreign language learners. Bernstein (1983) characterized anxiety relating to teaching as “teaching anxiety” (p. 4). Studies after Bernstein used this term for describing anxiety among teachers, as do I. By contrast, anxiety among foreign language learners was defined as “foreign language anxiety” (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). It is “related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 31). Foreign language anxiety represents learners’ anxiety which arises in the classroom. My review of anxiety among both teachers and language learners explores (a) common characteristics of both types of anxiety, (b) causes of anxiety, and (c) teachers’ and learners’ strategies for dealing with anxiety.

Teacher Anxiety

Characteristics of Teaching Anxiety

The literature focuses on anxiety of teachers at different levels, from elementary to college, and it will be assumed that similar factors are in play for all teachers. In classroom teaching, teachers usually speak in front of students, demonstrate their knowledge and skills, and guide students to learn new things, even if teachers have varying levels of ability or experience. Teachers also may need to improve their teaching plans to implement better lessons, as these instructors are evaluated by students, supervisors, and principals. When we consider a teacher’s work, many kinds of factors are embedded in their teaching activities. In the context of providing effective lessons, it

can be reasonably assumed that teachers may feel pressure when teaching. As Bernstein (1983) mentioned, managing this pressure is important for teachers so as not to disrupt their lessons.

One common assumption, however, is that teachers know many things and do not feel anxious when teaching. Horwitz (1996) stated, “Teachers of any subject matter are expected to be experts in that area” (p. 367). Also, anxiety may be considered an affective reaction, which relates only to students. Yet, teaching anxiety about all subjects is widespread among teachers, from elementary school level to the university level (e.g., Ameen, Guffey, & Jackson, 2002; Chou, 2003; Gardner & Leak, 1994; Liu, 2008; Orton, 1981; Preece, 1979; Widmer & Chavez, 1982). Hicks (1934) first reported teaching anxiety by conducting a 600-teacher survey. Coates and Thoresen (1976) cited the study and described, “17 percent were ‘unusually nervous’ and another 11 percent had suffered from nervous breakdowns” (p. 160). The reported common symptoms of teaching anxiety were fatigue, prolonged menstrual disorders, and situational reactions. Horwitz (1996) mentioned other psychological symptoms of teaching anxiety as reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic. Gardner and Leak (1994) exemplified dry mouth and palpitation as physical symptoms and distress, apprehension, or upset as psychological reactions that indicate teaching anxiety. In the following sections, I will consider the characteristics of teaching anxiety at each school level, from elementary schools to colleges.

K-12 teacher anxiety. Widmer and Chavez (1982) conducted research with 230 elementary school math teachers in Kentucky, USA. Sixteen percent of elementary teachers had anxiety when teaching math. Most had negative experiences toward math in

their school days. This anxiety was so strong that anxious teachers abandoned their career choices in the fields of accounting, business, medicine, psychology, veterinary work, and computer programming “because of the threat of mathematics” (p. 276).

Chou (2003) investigated anxiety among high school teachers in Taiwan with regard to their use of the Internet. The researcher divided Internet anxiety into four aspects: Internet use, hardware construction, management of students’ Internet use, and the acquisition of computer-related skills and knowledge. Chou found some interesting characteristics about teaching anxiety toward Internet usage. First, female teachers had significantly higher anxiety than male teachers. Although Widmer and Chavez (1982) did not find a gender difference in math anxiety among elementary school teachers, teaching anxiety about the Internet indicated a difference between male teachers and female teachers in high schools. Second, teachers’ academic background also affected their anxiety. Teachers who studied humanities or social science had significantly higher anxiety, whereas teachers who majored in science or technology had less anxiety. Third, in comparison with younger teachers, older teachers showed greater teaching anxiety toward management of students’ Internet use. It might reflect an aspect of the Asian perspective toward teaching. In East Asia, people tend to think that teachers have to know everything about the subjects they teach. Chou introduced a comment of an anxious teacher from her follow-up interview. The teacher said, “Some teachers thought themselves slower to learn computer-related skills, and to gain computer-related knowledge, than students” (p. 745). To keep face, older teachers might have experienced higher anxiety with regard to managing students’ Internet use in a classroom.

College teacher anxiety. Gardner and Leak (1994), Ameen et al. (2002), Orton (1981), and Davis (2007) conducted research on teaching anxiety with college teachers—especially psychology teachers, accounting educators, psychology and family life teachers, and librarians respectively. Gardner and Leak sent a self-report-style questionnaire to college psychology teachers in the United States, including 51 professors, 31 associate professors, and 20 assistant professors. Eighty-seven percent of the psychology teachers experienced teaching anxiety. Concerning the intensity and frequency of teaching anxiety, 65% of them underwent huge anxiety, “from definitely unpleasant to severe or extreme” (p. 30). And “80% claimed one or more instances of teaching anxiety in the past semester alone” (p. 30). As seen in the research of Gardner and Leak, teaching anxiety was also experienced by faculty members in colleges.

In response to the research by Gardner and Leak (1994), Ameen et al. (2002) spread their research to a different academic field. They conducted teaching anxiety among college accounting teachers. Ameen et al. analyzed the self-reported data of anxiety of 333 professors and instructors in the United States. Surprisingly, 78% of them experienced teaching anxiety. When looking at the data closely, there were differences in the teaching anxiety rate among accounting teachers: full professors (88%), associate professors (64%), assistant professors (84%), and instructors (100%). Ameen et al. did not investigate the reasons for the significant difference among these groups, but they concluded: “rank, age, and teaching experience were associated with significant differences between the respondents” (p. 18). However, unlike Chou’s (2003) research, Ameen et al. did not find significant differences in levels of teaching anxiety based on gender.

Another interesting study on college teachers was done by Orton (1981). He interviewed 60 teachers who taught psychology, personal adjustment, or family life in American universities in two locations. In interviews, 54 teachers (90%) reported teaching anxiety, such as stressful experiences of anxiety or fear.

Davis (2007) conducted research on teaching anxiety with 382 academic librarians in colleges. As the role of librarians expanded, many academic librarians actively worked in teaching positions. Davis used a 16-item questionnaire to ask them about their teaching anxiety. The interesting part of the questionnaire is that he divided teaching anxiety into two parts: physical symptoms and mental or emotional symptoms. Participants in the research reported that 63% of librarians experienced physical symptoms, such as sweating and upset stomach, and 65% of them had mental or emotional symptoms, like nervousness and fear. Although the percentage of anxious librarians was lower than those of anxious professors in the studies of Ameen et al. (2002) or Orton (1981), the research showed that a majority of academic librarians suffered from teaching anxiety.

Student teacher anxiety. Other studies (e.g., Liu, 2008; Morton, Vesco, Williams, & Awender, 1997) focused on student teachers as subjects for research and investigated their teaching anxiety in practicum situations. Liu (2008) did a small-scale study of 39 student teachers in an elementary school in the Midwest region of the USA. Those student teachers felt anxiety toward teaching math before they started the practicum. Their lack of teaching experience played an important role in arousing teaching anxiety. In contrast, Morton et al. (1997) conducted a large-scale study of approximately 1,000 student teachers in Canada. They were in pre-service training to

become teachers at kindergarten through high school levels. Female participants showed higher anxiety ratings with respect to teaching itself. An interesting finding was that student teachers in lower grades had higher anxiety about teaching. Morton et al. argued that teachers were expected to work as “global experts” (p. 81) because teachers must teach a variety of subjects. These high expectations for student-teachers triggered feelings of anxiety about teaching younger children. Those studies indicated that even if college students worked as student teachers at school, they were expected to work as full-time teachers, which created higher anxiety toward teaching itself among student teachers.

As seen above, teaching anxiety is evoked in all levels, from elementary to university, and in a variety of subjects. This suggests that the process of teaching itself is an anxiety-inducing activity. This anxious feeling is widespread among teachers around the world. Both novice teachers and experienced teachers experience teaching anxiety. In addition, teaching anxiety displayed negative effects, not only on teachers themselves but also on their students—for example, of learners’ confidence in foreign language (Horwitz, 1996) and the level of learners’ test anxiety (Doyal & Forsyth, 1973).

Non-native language teacher anxiety. Little research has focused on foreign language anxiety among non-native language teachers. Because people think that language teachers have high-levels of speaking abilities in their target language (Horwitz, 1996), it is usually believed that only language learners experience foreign language anxiety. However, previous studies about teaching anxiety (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002; Chou, 2003; Widmer & Chavez, 1982) revealed that teachers from elementary schools to colleges experienced anxiety relating to their teaching activities. To non-native language teachers, “language learning is never complete, and most nonnative language teachers are

likely to have uncomfortable moments speaking their target language” (p. 365). Those anxious reactions can be seen among foreign language learners, such as ESL students. Of course, teachers and students are different, but the result of studies about student anxiety may plausibly be applied to research on teachers’ foreign language anxiety because teacher’s anxiety feelings “parallel the anxiety reactions seen in inexperienced language learners” (p. 365).

Japanese elementary school teachers are non-native speakers of English. Horwitz (1996) explained that non-native teachers of English are thought of as advanced language learners because they went through the learning process of the target language. Therefore, elementary school teachers could be seen as analogous to English learners in a framework of anxiety about learning a foreign language.

Unlike native speakers of English, non-native speakers linked their language ability with their source of stress (Mousavi, 2007). As Kim (2004) stated, having a high level of language proficiency is one of the most important characteristics for language teachers. Therefore, non-native, English-speaking teachers tend to compare their English proficiency with native speakers’ and thus to be overwhelmed by their perceived inferiority about their own language proficiency. In Tang’s (1997) study, non-native ESL teachers answered that native English speaking teachers had superior proficiency in speaking, pronunciation, listening, vocabulary, and reading. Mousavi claimed, “Stress concerning perceived language ability does not mean that they [non-native English speaking teachers] do not have enough language proficiency, as mentioned earlier; rather, it is related to their beliefs and confidence about their language ability” (p. 38). Horwitz (1996) also described that the concern about their language proficiency could trigger

some anxiety among non-native foreign language teachers. The potential anxiety sources were: (a) spontaneous language use in the classroom, (b) a high value of fluency in the target language, and (c) pursuing a level of native-like proficiency. Horwitz found “a possible negative relationship between anxiety and effective foreign language instruction” (p. 368). Similarly, Tang identified negative effects of non-native teachers’ anxiety on their teaching, such as that found in the following statement:

Anxiety may be felt by any beginning teacher, whether native or nonnative. However, when put next to native speaker, the non-NETs [nonnative ESOL trainees] often experience a strong sense of fear that they will not attain the same level of proficiency, and that the ESL students may reject them preferring a native speaker as a teacher. (p. 578, cited Greis, 1985, p. 318)

Non-native language teachers seem to have indigenous anxiety toward their target language proficiency. Of course, technology and other programs might support non-native teachers to compensate for their low proficiency in the classroom (Nunan, 2003). Similarly, Butler (2004) claimed, “For elementary school teachers in EFL contexts, native or native-like proficiency might not be necessary” (p. 269, cited by Nunan, 2003). However, it could be inevitable that non-native language teachers maintain a high level of anxiety about their target language proficiency.

Causes of Teaching Anxiety

Teaching anxiety is universal among teachers at all academic levels. What makes teachers anxious in a classroom? It is “in a realm beyond the simple fear of giving talk” (Ameen et al., 2002, p. 17). Causes of teaching anxiety are complicated and different

depending on teachers' experience (Coates & Thoresen, 1976) and levels of teaching (Davis, 2007). Because it was difficult to generalize the causes of teaching anxiety, I divided them into two parts: demographic factors and "triggers." Gardner and Leak (1994) and Ameen et al. (2002) distinguished triggers from intensifiers. They defined triggers as anxiety-provoking activities, for instance, standing in front of a class; and intensifiers as situational specific causes, for example, class size. But, other researchers (Davis, 2007; Orton, 1981) did not make a clear distinction between triggers and intensifiers. In this literature review, I use the latter taxonomy. Demographic factors which are correlated with teaching anxiety include gender, age, prior training, academic rank, and teaching experience. Triggers are direct factors associated with teaching anxiety among teachers. Examples of triggers include preparation for class and hostile comments from students.

Background information of teachers will be considered a demographic factor. Concerning demographic factors, many researchers, such as Gardner and Leak (1994) and Widmer and Chavez (1982), investigated the relationship between demographic factors and teaching anxiety. This research was conducted among teachers at different academic levels, from elementary school to college. Although a slight difference was observed among teachers at different academic levels, the relationship between demographic factors, in general, and teaching anxiety in particular, was firmly recognized. Gardner and Leak, and Widmer and Chavez, found that previous training and teaching experience were negatively correlated with teaching anxiety. Unlike demographic factors, triggers for teaching anxiety were different between elementary/secondary schoolteachers

and college teachers (Davis, 2007). Triggers reflected the content of teachers' duties at school. Below, I take a close look at demographic factors and triggers.

Demographic factors. Researchers used different demographic factors to find a relationship with teaching anxiety. Gardner and Leak (1994) researched the demographic factors of age, years of full-time teaching, academic rank, and assistance for dealing with public speaking. Chou (2003) picked out additional demographic factors, such as gender, age, school type, degree, major, and teaching experience. I arranged information taken from previous studies about the relationship between demographic factors and teaching anxiety, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1.

Relationship between demographic factors and teaching anxiety

	Gardner & Leak (1994)	Ameen et al. (2002)	Chou (2003)	Widmer & Chavez (1982)	Liu (2008)	Morton et al. (1997)
type of teachers	college teachers	college teachers	secondary teachers	elementary teachers	student teachers	student teachers
gender	-	×	√	×	×	√
major	-	-	√	-	-	√
degree	-	×	×	-	-	-
training	√	×	-	√	√	√
rank	√	√	-	-	-	-
school type	-	-	√	-	-	√g
age	√	√	×	-	×	-
experience	√	√	√	√	√	√

√ = associated (correlated) with teaching anxiety; × = not associated with teaching anxiety; - = not mentioned in literature; √g = associated with difference between grade levels.

Gender was a popular factor, as many researchers examined teaching anxiety across every academic level. As seen in Table 1, Chou (2003) and Morton et al. (1997)

stated that gender was significantly correlated with teaching anxiety. Chou argued, “Female teachers consistently showed higher levels of anxiety” (p. 743) toward computers and the Internet. Morton et al. explained why females showed higher levels of anxiety. The authors wrote, “Females may display higher anxiety levels prior to stressful events because of a physiologically-based phenomenon” (p. 76). Ameen et al. (2002), Widmer and Chavez (1982), and Liu (2008), however, concluded that gender was not a factor in provoking teaching anxiety. In fact, some researchers mentioned perceptions that men were better in math than women. Yet, Liu said, “Even though men perform better in mathematics, it does not necessarily lead to the conclusion that men are better in teaching mathematics” (p. 624). From the above research, further studies would be needed to conclude whether or not gender has a significant correlation with teaching anxiety. Gender might be a potential factor in provoking teaching anxiety, but precise explanations for its cause remain ambiguous.

Major refers to what subject teachers studied at college. A few researchers (Chou, 2003; Morton et al., 1997) investigated the relationship between major and teaching anxiety. One reason for the few studies in this area was that researchers targeted teachers of specific subjects, such as accounting (Ameen et al., 2002) and mathematics (Widmer & Chavez, 1982), which meant that teachers had the same or a similar major in college. Chou and Widmer, and Chavez concluded that major was associated with teaching anxiety among teachers. Chou noted that teachers whose majors were humanities or social studies had higher teaching anxiety toward Internet use than teachers whose majors were science or technology because of their differences in academic background. Morton et al. also stated that the differences between majors affected student teachers’ teaching

anxiety. They divided college majors of student teachers into nine groups: Psychology, Science, Arts, Foreign Language, History, English, Physical Education, Sociology, and “Others.” English majors showed significantly higher anxiety levels than persons with other majors. No specific reason for this phenomenon, however, was found in the study. They attributed the result to “a personal characteristic associated with students who opt to major in English” (p. 81). Teachers’ college major was also a factor that did not have clear evidence to account for teaching anxiety.

Level of degree attained was not a factor which made teachers feel anxious. Both Ameen et al. (2002) and Chou (2003) investigated the relationship between the academic degree earned by teachers, and teaching anxiety. Ameen et al. stated that they did not find any significant anxiety-related differences based on highest degree obtained. Chou also surveyed the difference in teaching anxiety between teachers with master’s degrees and teachers with bachelor degrees, but no difference was found between them. As stated by Chou, “The teachers’ degrees made little or no difference in Internet anxiety” (p. 741).

Training was a popular demographic factor related to teaching anxiety (Gardner & Leak, 1994; Liu, 2008). As seen in Table 1, only Ameen et al. (2002) claimed that having formal training for teaching was not associated with significant differences between anxious professors and non-anxious professors. Most researchers, however, did find an opposite result and described that having training reduced teaching anxiety (Morton et al., 1997). Morton et al. put a greater value on training for student teachers and stated, “Practice teaching itself appears to be one viable intervention strategy to reduce anxiety” (p. 76). Widmer and Chavez (1982) pinpointed an interesting factor in the relationship between training and teaching anxiety. The authors wrote that the

difference between the training type (between computation-stressed training and understanding stressed training) affected teaching anxiety, but the recency of training was not correlated with teaching anxiety. Their study showed “no relationship between when the subjects received their math training and math anxiety” (p. 275).

Rank in previous research referred to academic ranks among college teachers, such as full professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor (Gardner & Leak, 1994). I found two kinds of research about the relationship between academic rank and teaching anxiety among college teachers. Both Gardner and Leak and Ameen et al. (2002) stated that academic rank was significantly correlated with teaching anxiety. However, Ameen et al. found an exception in the order of the level of teaching anxiety among college teachers. Instructors had the highest anxiety, then assistant professors, followed by professors. Associate professors felt the lowest anxiety. But, in general, lower-ranked teachers felt more anxiety than higher-ranked teachers.

Differences between school types/levels were also associated with teaching anxiety. Chou (2003) made a distinction between teachers in regular high schools from teachers in vocational high schools. Teachers in regular high schools displayed higher teaching anxiety toward Internet use than those in vocational schools. Chou claimed that vocational high schools had computer-related courses, and therefore, teachers in vocational high schools were accustomed to use computers in the classroom. Unlike Chou, Morton et al. (1997) compared teachers' anxiety in different school levels. They conducted research about anxiety of student teachers, from elementary schools to high schools. They stated, “General anxiety levels increased as grade level decreased” (p. 81), which meant that teachers in the first grade in elementary schools had the highest

teaching anxiety. As for reasons for this finding, Morton et al. mentioned that teachers in lower grade levels had to deal with “greater pedagogy demands” (p. 81), such as teaching subjects and taking care of younger children. Thus, school type was one of the reasons, among many demographic factors, that provoked teaching anxiety.

Age was not a clear factor in causing teaching anxiety. Two studies (Ameen et al., 2002; Gardner & Leak, 1994) indicated that age was associated with teaching anxiety, and two others (Chou, 2003; Liu, 2008) had an opposite result. Gardner and Leak and Ameen et al. conducted their research on college teachers, and Chou and Liu surveyed high schools and an elementary school, respectively. None of them mentioned the precise reason for the anxiety they observed and reported on. Further research would be needed with regard to this demographic factor.

Experience was an obvious factor to be correlated with teaching anxiety because every researcher (Ameen et al., 2002; Chavez, 1982; Chou, 2003; Gardner & Leak, 1994; Morton et al., 1997; Widmer & Chavez, 1982; Liu, 2008;) listed in Table 1 mentioned it. Gardner and Leak stated, “The anxiety lessens with teaching experience” (p. 30). As generally thought, the more teaching experience teachers had, the less teaching anxiety they felt.

Triggers of teaching anxiety. In addition to demographic factors, triggers also caused teaching anxiety. Unlike demographic factors, triggers are situational factors and directly associated with teachers’ classroom behaviors. Davis (2007) briefly summarized the differences between triggers depending on school levels as follows: “For elementary/secondary teachers, causes of anxiety ranged from class size, classroom management, and possible student violence to self-efficiency concerns regarding student

assessment, administrative support, and salary issues. However, in higher education the causes are more succinct” (p. 83) Teachers in higher education can focus more on teaching because college students are more mature and their study behaviors are much more orderly than that of elementary/secondary school students. Teachers in higher education do not worry about students’ unruly behavior in class. The difference with respect to their triggers may indicate the range of teachers’ management in class when viewed across the spectrum ranging from elementary/secondary school teachers to college teachers.

The triggers of teaching anxiety in elementary or secondary school levels were very broad, and many factors could potentially arouse anxiety among teachers. For example, Chou (2003) pointed out facility management as one of the main sources of teaching anxiety among older teachers in high school. Horwitz (1996) also stated that possible causes of teaching anxiety among language teachers were “unruly students, challenges to their authority and competence, inflexible performance standards, a complaining public, and unfortunately, many others” (p. 366).

In contrast, the triggers of teaching anxiety among college teachers were much simpler (Davis, 2007) and were academically based. Showalter (2003) mentioned seven causes of teaching anxiety among college teachers. They included: lack of training, isolation, teaching versus researching, performance, grading, and evaluation. Below, I am going to take a close look at triggers of teaching anxiety—depending on school levels.

Elementary/Secondary teachers’ anxiety triggers. As Davis (2007) mentioned, triggers of teaching anxiety among elementary and secondary school teachers varied. One of the reasons might depend on their variety of work at school. Teachers in those schools

had to not only teach subjects to students but also had to build a good relationship with parents (Dropkin & Taylor, 1963), manage facilities in a classroom (Chou, 2003), and deal with discipline problems (Preece, 1979). Morton et al. (1997) also stated, “Teachers working in the P[rimary]/J[unior] division are expected to be ‘global’ experts (e.g., reading, mathematics, language development, music, physical education, art, science, and so on). These multiple-role demands could be somewhat intimidating and anxiety producing” (p. 81). It was not easy to generalize triggers of teaching anxiety among elementary and secondary school teachers. Research seemed to focus on specific teaching situations and discovered actual triggers of teaching anxiety toward mathematics (Liu, 2008; Widmer & Chavez, 1982), foreign languages (Horwitz, 1996), or the Internet (Chou, 2003).

In specific subjects, there were differences in teachers’ attitudes, depending on subjects. Widmer and Chavez (1982) mentioned that anxious math teachers in elementary schools had negative experiences toward math in their school days. They abandoned careers in math-related fields, such as accounting and computer science, “because of the threat of mathematics” (p. 276). The negative experience toward math was a trigger for them and affected their career choice. For those who went into the teaching field, it also provoked teaching anxiety.

In contrast, foreign language teachers had a different story. Foreign language teachers experienced anxiety not because they had a negative feeling toward a foreign language but because they achieved a high level in the target language (Horwitz, 1996). As second or foreign language speakers, they were conscious of how native speakers of

the language spoke. Horwitz argued that the proficiency gap between an idealized level and a teacher's own level provoked anxiety among language teachers.

A trigger for teaching anxiety with regard to the Internet came from neither teachers' negative feelings nor the perceived difficulty in using the technology. It correlated with teachers' actual use of the Internet in a classroom, such as Internet use, hardware construction, management of students' Internet use, and learning computer-related skills and knowledge (Chou, 2003). The study seemed to indicate that the more teachers were accustomed to using the Internet, the less anxious they felt about it. As many researchers (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002; Widmer & Chavez, 1982) argued in the discussion of demographic factors, teaching experience appears to be a key to decrease teaching anxiety among teachers in each subject. Thus, as seen in above, triggers of teaching anxiety among elementary and secondary school teachers, varied with teaching subjects.

College teachers' anxiety triggers. As Davis (2007) and Showalter (2003) claimed, triggers for college teachers were simpler and more academically based. For example, Gardner and Leak (1994) stated that four factors (standing in front of a class before speaking, preparation for class, hostile comments from students, and providing inadequate answers to students' questions) were specific triggers for teaching anxiety among college psychology teachers. As in Gardner and Leak's (1994) study, Ameen et al. (2002) asked questions about typical triggers for teaching anxiety among college accounting teachers. They concluded that classroom preparation, hostile questions or comments from students, providing inadequate answers to students' questions, and formal evaluations from students worked as triggers for teaching anxiety.

Gardner and Leak (1994), and Ameen et al. (2002) also mentioned that situational factors intensified teachers' anxiety, such as teaching unfamiliar material, having new students, and having negative experiences toward a particular class. They divided intensifiers from triggers. As I mentioned before, I did not divide them into two categories, as had other researchers (Davis, 2007; Orton, 1981). Thus, I merged their intensifiers into triggers and have displayed them in the following table. Between triggers and teaching anxiety among college teachers, I arranged the information in Table 2 from four studies (Ameen et al., 2002; Davis, 2007; Gardner & Leak, 1994; Orton, 1981).

As shown in Table 2, the triggers for teaching anxiety among college teachers were very similar. Some, such as classroom preparation and evaluation, were obviously seen among teachers in other disciplines. From Table 2, I chose six triggers with more than two mentions. These triggers included: unfamiliar material, class preparation, negative experiences, evaluations from others, the presence of others, and unfamiliar situations. The percentage in each cell indicated that participants chose each trigger as a source of their anxiety. Because study participants could select more than one anxiety trigger, the percentage totals in the columns do not add up to 100. The most selected trigger came to the top of the table as the first trigger in each study.

Table 2.*Major triggers of teaching anxiety among college teachers*

	Gardner & Leak (1994)	Ameen et al. (2002)	Orton (1981)	Davis (2007)
type of teachers	college psychology teachers	college accounting teachers	college psychology & family life teachers	college librarians
1 st trigger	UM: teaching unfamiliar material (59%)	UM: lack of familiarity with the course material (53%)	PO: presence of students (46%)	CP & EO: preparation or answering tough questions (40%)
2 nd trigger	PO: standing in front of a class before speaking (50%)	CP: classroom preparation (49%)	PO & EO: presence of authority figures (35%)	public speaking (27%)
3 rd trigger	CP: preparation for class (49%)	NE: negative experiences with a particular class (41%)	UM: subject matter (33%)	negative self-talk (15%)
4 th trigger	EO: hostile comments from students (39%)	EO: hostile comments from students (41%)	US: new or unfamiliar situation (26%)	uncooperative technology to disengaged students (13%)
5 th trigger	US: having new students (37%)	providing inadequate answers (38%)	current concern from personal life (25%)	N.A.
6 th trigger	NE: negative experience with a particular class (37%)	EO: formal evaluation from students (29%)	PO: emotionally threatening students (15%)	N.A.

UM = unfamiliar material, PO = presence of others, CP = class preparation, NE = negative experience, EO = evaluation from others, US = unfamiliar situation, N.A. = not reported in literature.

Unfamiliar material (UM) was the most frequently selected trigger of teaching anxiety among psychology teachers (Gardner & Leak, 1994) and accounting teachers (Ameen et al., 2002). A teacher's main duty is to impart knowledge to students. Without

knowledge about teaching materials, it is natural that teachers would have high teaching anxiety. Yet, at the same time, Bernstein (1983) introduced ten teaching myths that provoked teaching anxiety, and explained that too much obsession could become a trigger for teaching anxiety. One of the myths was: “I must include in my course everything about the subject. Any omission makes me a poor teacher” (p. 6). Of course, having broad knowledge about a specific subject is important for instructors. However, teachers also need to understand these various teaching myths. Bernstein said, “Since no course can ever cover all that could be considered relevant, it might be more adaptive and satisfying to relax and deal with a reasonable amount of material in enough depth to pique the students’ interest” (p. 6).

Class preparation (CP) was one of the top selected triggers for teaching anxiety among college teachers (Ameen et al., 2002; Davis, 2007; Gardner & Leak, 1994). Teachers felt strong nervousness while preparing for class. Thus, as Davis said, there were many teachers who “reported that feeling of anxiety decreased while teaching a class” (p. 87). Once the class started, their trigger of teaching anxiety was gone.

Negative experience (NE) was a trigger mentioned by Gardner and Leak (1994) and Ameen et al. (2002). It is reasonable that teachers became anxious to teach in a particular class if they had a previous negative experience. Like anxious math teachers in elementary schools (Widmer & Chavez, 1982), negative experience caused anxiety even with college teachers.

Evaluation by others (EO) was a trigger for teaching anxiety during or after class. In this case, evaluation included not only judgment from authorities or colleagues but also evaluation from students. Regarding evaluation by students, Bernstein (1983)

warned teachers not to fall into the teaching pitfalls found in his ten teaching myths. Teachers might think that “my students must respect me because I am their teacher” (p. 6). This idea caused teachers to experience more pressure. Nevertheless, teachers tended to remain attached to this “myth.” Bernstein stated that adhering to this fallacy upset teachers. In fact, it often happened that some students might not always be respectful. Thus, negative evaluations by students could provoke anxiety among teachers.

Presence of others (PO), both students and supervisors, also made teachers nervous. Orton (1981) argued that the most frequently answered trigger for teaching anxiety “lay in their perceiving students as critical, powerful, and even threatening figures” (p. 108). As everybody knows, teaching in a classroom is composed of the interaction between a teacher and students. Once teachers think of students as “threatening figures,” it is easy for teachers to create their own teaching anxiety during lessons. Orton also stated that the presence of authority figures, such as supervisors or chairpersons, in a classroom “might challenge the instructor’s authority” (p. 109) and become a trigger for teaching anxiety.

Unfamiliar situation (US) included having new students and teaching in a new classroom or in an unfamiliar situation. Orton (1981) described this phenomenon: “The initial experience in teaching, or meeting a class for the first time, was frequently reported as frightening” (p. 109). This specifically situational factor created teaching anxiety among college teachers (Ameen et al., 2002). If college teachers used a new classroom, they would not know what teaching materials, such as audio-visual aids or computers, were available. Or, with new students, teachers would not instantly recognize

how to handle them in their classes. Those types of situational unfamiliarity could become triggers for teaching anxiety.

Strategies for Dealing with Teaching Anxiety

As seen above, teaching anxiety has a variety of causes, including both demographic factors and triggers. How to deal with teaching anxiety was the next step in exploring this topic. Bernstein (1983) posited a basic idea to deal with teaching anxiety, as follows: “There are many techniques available to help reduce teaching anxiety. The methods which will work best for any individual usually depend upon the sources of the problem” (p. 5). Ameen et al. (2002) also stated, “To develop or prescribe techniques for coping with teaching anxiety, researchers must identify the sources or triggering devices and time of occurrence” (p. 20).

After finding the specific source of teaching anxiety, teachers need to take steps to alleviate their anxiety. Horwitz (1996) suggested nine useful ideas to allay teaching anxiety toward foreign languages. One of the examples was, “Recognize our own and other teachers’ feelings of foreign language anxiety” (p. 368). She stated that understanding the source of anxious feelings was the start of coping with that anxiety.

Liu (2008) collected opinions from student teachers about ways to overcome anxiety and categorized them into four strategies: *content knowledge, practice/experience, preparation, and help from others*. Although the strategies were given as suggestions by participants who took part in his study, they reflected true voices of anxious teachers and would become keys to deal with teaching anxiety.

The first strategy, *content knowledge*, meant that teachers needed to build up their knowledge about the target subject and materials. Horwitz (1996) gave similar suggestions for coping with teaching anxiety with regard to a foreign language. They were: “Become more aware of the language learning process” (p. 369) and “Make plans to improve language proficiency” (p. 370). Improving knowledge was necessary for teachers because their duty was to provide instruction about subjects to students. In fact, in Ameen et al.’s research, participants in the study mentioned that “having a strong grasp of the material” (p. 19) was the most useful strategy for dealing with their own teaching anxiety.

The second strategy, *practice/experience*, indicated that teachers should spend enough time practicing before each lesson. Liu (2008) stated that teachers could effectively overcome their teaching anxiety with practice and experience. One of the most interesting comments from a student teacher in Liu’s research was that he/she did “practice in front of friends, family, a mirror, even your dog” (p. 625). Horwitz (1996) also mentioned the importance of practice to reduce anxiety. She said, “Imagine speaking well within the stresses of classroom teaching” (p. 370). This strategy put the weight on the rehearsal of actual teachers’ behavior in a classroom.

The third strategy to deal with teaching anxiety was *preparation*. Liu (2008) suggested that teachers should study the entire lesson to be taught, write detailed lesson plans, and anticipate possible questions from students. Unlike the practice strategy, this strategy focused on the planning of each lesson. Although Ameen et al. (2002) used a different word, “training,” instead of “preparation,” they also stated the importance of preparation for alleviating their teaching anxiety.

The last strategy, *help from others*, indicated that anxious teachers needed to communicate with other teachers, such as mentors or colleagues. Horwitz (1996) gave two suggestions with regard to this strategy. They were: “Recognize our own and other teachers’ feelings of foreign language anxiety” (p. 368) and “Be supportive of colleagues” (p. 370). She emphasized the importance of sharing their teaching anxiety with other teachers. Bernstein (1983) asserted that communication with other teachers was the most likely solution to teaching anxiety. As a potential benefit of communication, he stated, “An open discussion about teaching and teaching methods with other teachers will no doubt reveal a host of new ideas which are not only useful but which can enliven class sessions for the students and the teachers” (p. 7). Communicating with others can bring not only relief from anxiety but also new ideas for effective lessons to anxious teachers.

Teachers tended to hide their weaknesses from others because they had their own pride as teachers. Each teacher, however, could recognize that he/she was not the only teacher who felt anxious about teaching if he/she started sharing this anxiety and talked with others to deal with the difficulty. This sharing process could reasonably allay their teaching anxiety.

From the above literature review, teachers first need to identify their specific sources for teaching anxiety and then should apply Liu’s (2008) four strategies to deal with their teaching anxiety. Of course, there is no instant medicine to alleviate the onset of teaching anxiety, but teachers would be able to effectively reduce their anxiety with such strategies.

Learner Anxiety

In the following review of foreign language learner anxiety, a similar procedure will be adopted as for teaching anxiety as described above. I am going to examine characteristics of learner anxiety, causes of learner anxiety, and learners' strategies for dealing with anxiety. Then, I will compare the features of teaching anxiety with those of foreign language learner anxiety.

Characteristics of Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language learners typically have difficulties in communicating in a target language in comparison with their native language. Price (1991) described the struggle of foreign language learners: "You feel frustrated because you're an interesting adult and you sound like a bubbling baby" (p. 105). Learners may feel uncomfortable when speaking the foreign language because they cannot perform as well as they do in their first language. Horwitz (2008) stated that language learners are often unable to display their important personality in the second language. They feel uncomfortable because they present "a less positive version" (p. 258) of themselves to others than usual. Therefore, the "disparity between how we see ourselves and how we think others see us" (p. 258) could make learners anxious.

Price (1991) described emotional reactions of anxious foreign language learners. They felt nervousness, dread, hatred, and obsession. Randall (2007) explained other reactions through interviewing Horwitz. Anxious learners "may have extreme difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, tremble, have palpitations, experience sleep disturbances and exhibit avoidance behavior in the form of skipping class and putting off

homework, class projects and studying.” Many researchers (e.g., Horwitz, 2000; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; McCoy, 1979; Pichette, 2009; Samimy, 1994; Vogely, 1998) argued that foreign language anxiety is an obstacle among foreign/second language learners and prevents them from performing successfully in the target language.

Researchers found an inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language performance – the more anxious, the poorer performance. Although Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) argued that foreign language anxiety kept learners’ motivation high to perform well, many researchers concluded that, “anxiety may function as an affective filter, preventing a learner from achieving a high level of proficiency in a foreign language” (Aida, 1994, p. 155). Research appeared to indicate that anxiety leads to negative consequences in language performance.

Relationship between anxiety and language proficiency. Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) argued that anxiety decreased as learners’ proficiency in the target language and learning experience increased. Pappamiheil (2002) supported their opinion. Pappamiheil conducted a study of foreign language anxiety in students in an ESL class in American public schools, and noted that “as ESL achievement increased, English language anxiety decreased” (p. 340). As MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), and Aida (1994) claimed, it seemed to be reasonable that beginners were more anxious than advanced learners of a foreign language.

In contrast, other researchers (e.g., Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009) showed opposite results in their foreign language studies. Kitano investigated foreign language anxiety among college students of Japanese and found that advanced-level

students experienced much stronger anxiety than intermediate and elementary-level students. Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) also argued that advanced students of Spanish showed the highest anxiety on the language anxiety scale: “The higher the language level, the higher the level of anxiety” (p. 101). Horwitz (1996) observed that advanced learners tended to pursue “an idealized level of proficiency” (p. 367) and compared their proficiency level with that of native speakers. This gap between the idealized level and their own level of language proficiency led them to experience higher anxiety.

In addition, Pichette (2009) argued that “there seemed to be absolutely no difference in anxiety between first-semester students and their more experienced peers” (p. 84). The participants in his study were Canadian French-speaking learners of English and Spanish. His study indicated that less experienced and less advanced learners were not necessarily more anxious than experienced and advanced learners. There were discrepancies in the relationship between foreign language anxiety and level of proficiency in the foreign language (e.g., Pappamiheil, 2002; Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009; Pichette, 2009).

Quality of foreign language anxiety. In addition, the quality of foreign language anxiety seems to change gradually as learners improve their language proficiency. Kitano (2001) and Frantzen and Magnan (2005) discussed the difference in the quality of anxiety between lower levels of learners and advanced learners. Beginning learners of a foreign language “expressed lack of confidence about talking in class” (p. 177) because of their limited amount of knowledge about the target language. In contrast, advanced learners feel anxious because they are required to “develop more authentic and sophisticated communication skills” (Kitano, 2001, p. 558) in the target language. Advanced learners

may feel the gap of proficiency between their own level and a native speaker's level, which could be a source of anxiety.

Classification of foreign language anxiety. Regarding the nature of foreign language anxiety, Katalin (2006) argued that foreign language anxiety is considered a situational anxiety. Katalin distinguished the nature of anxiety into three types: trait anxiety, state anxiety and situational anxiety. Gaudry, Vagg, and Spielberger (1975) introduced the ideas of state anxiety and trait anxiety. State anxiety was “a transitory emotional state or condition characterized by subjective feelings of tension and apprehension and by activation of the authentic nervous system” (p. 331). It was temporary anxiety, whose level increased when people felt nervous in some situations, such as taking a test. Trait anxiety, on the other hand, referred to “relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness” (p. 331). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) explained that situational anxiety “is maintained and strengthened by the same sequence of poor performance” (p. 272) in the target language classroom.

After they observed English learners of French, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) stated that foreign language anxiety should be distinguished from other general anxiety, such as state anxiety and trait anxiety. Unlike general anxiety, foreign language anxiety “consistently, negatively affects language learning and production” (p. 302). Young (1991) stated, “Research in speech communication also suggest anxiety can affect an individual's performance” (p. 58). Foreign language anxiety was negatively correlated with language performance. MacIntyre (1999) argued that “the higher the language anxiety, the lower the language performance” (p. 27). This pattern of correlation was not seen in other general types of anxiety. It was observed only in ‘the language acquisition

context” (Gardner, 1985). Thus, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) categorized foreign language anxiety as specific language reactions.

Target languages. Regarding the language which is learned, many researchers (Kondo & Yang, 2004; Madsen, Brown, & Jones, 1991; Pappamihiel, 2002; Woodrow, 2006) mainly investigated the influence of English on students in the study of foreign language anxiety. For instance, Kondo and Yang did research about how Japanese learners of English used strategies to cope with English language anxiety. Williams and Andrade (2008) found that speaking or reading English in front of others was the most anxiety-provoking task among Japanese college students. Brown and Holloway (2008) carried out a longitudinal study interviewing and observing international postgraduate students (mainly from Southeast Asia) who studied English at a graduate school in the UK. Pappamihiel conducted a study about English language anxiety among Mexican immigrant students attending grade schools in the U.S. She compared students’ levels of English language anxiety in ESL and mainstream classes. Although many researchers investigated the effects of anxiety among English language learners, it is not surprising because English is a lingua franca and one of the most commonly studied foreign languages in the world.

Foreign language anxiety, however, appears to be a more universal worry. Research has been done among learners of other languages, not only western languages, such as French or Spanish, but also non-western languages like Japanese. Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) investigated the effects of Spanish language anxiety on college students in the study of Spanish as a foreign language in the United States. Samimy (1994) conducted her research about the effects of language anxiety on college students in the

United States who took courses in Japanese. For American students, the Japanese language was one of the most difficult-to-acquire languages because it was a non-cognate language. In addition, learners had to study three different writing systems (*Hiragana*, *Katakana*, and *Kanji*). Samimy argued, “Unfamiliarity with these orthographic systems in Japanese can create major affective as well as cognitive barriers for learners to overcome” (p. 29). Her results indicated that future researchers would need to pay attention not only to general characteristics of foreign language anxiety, but also to unique reactions derived from specific language features of each language.

Only a few researchers compared anxiety levels within students of different languages. Daley (1998) conducted a study about differences in anxiety among students enrolled in Spanish, French, and German classes at a large university in the United States. She found no difference among them in the level of foreign language anxiety. Rodríguez and Abreu (2003) examined the difference in anxiety levels between English and French among Spanish-speaking students majoring in both English and French. They found no statistical difference between the overall level of general English and French anxieties. Prior studies seemed to indicate that no difference in anxiety levels would be found among western languages.

Causes of Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al.’s (1986) classification of causes has often been cited. They argued that foreign language anxiety related to three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Each type of performance anxiety under an overall notion of foreign language anxiety did not work separately. They

stated that the three anxieties operated simultaneously, and together affected learners of a foreign language negatively.

Other researchers tried to categorize the causes differently. For example, Young (1991) grouped them into six categories: personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures, and testing. In contrast, Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) classified the causes into five types of factors: behavioral, cognitive, psycholinguistic, physical, and sociolinguistic.

However, given prior research, causes of foreign language anxiety can be categorized into three broad groups: situational factors, personal factors, and demographic factors. I would like to explore each factor below. Each factor may overlap with others because some factors closely connect one another.

Situational factors. Some prior studies focused on the situational factor of foreign language learning, and revealed causes of anxiety. Causes relating to learning situation were derived from classroom settings, such as public speaking (Price, 1991; Williams & Andrade, 2008), social relationships with other students (Pappamihiel, 2002), difficulty of language classes (Horwitz, 2000; Price, 1991), and tests (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991).

Speaking in front of other students is one of the most often-reported causes that provoke foreign language anxiety. Price (1991) reported that it was “the greatest source of anxiety” (p. 105) after interviewing anxious learners of French. Students were fearful “of being laughed at by others and of making a fool of themselves in public” (p. 105). Williams and Andrade (2008) also argued, “Fear of making a bad impression or receiving

negative evaluation associated with the inability to express oneself clearly and correctly was the most often cited sources of anxiety” (p. 186). They regarded speaking in front of others as the most commonly mentioned task to provoke anxiety. Not only spontaneous use of the target language but also prepared language use in public could give learners much pressure in a classroom.

Pappamihel (2002) described social relationships as one of the sources of foreign language anxiety in a classroom where both native speakers and foreign language learners learn together. Pappamihel conducted a study of ESL students’ anxiety in a mainstream class in public middle schools. Unlike ESL classrooms, ESL students tended to have higher anxiety in mainstream classes because the relationship between students was different. Some native students in mainstream classes looked down on ESL students due to their low proficiency in English. Thus, their social relationships in a classroom setting may arouse anxiety in low-proficiency learners.

Researchers also claimed difficulty in language classes as a potential cause of foreign language anxiety. Price (1991) mentioned that language classes have “the discrepancy between effort and results” (p. 105), unlike other classes. Students who put forth much effort do not necessarily get good results in language classes. Horwitz (2000) stated that foreign language anxiety was not associated with cognitive disability because even successful students in prestigious universities reported foreign language anxiety. That is, hard work alone is perceived not to be a guarantee of success.

Taking tests provokes “a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127) among language learners. Contemporary school systems always require students to take tests to evaluate their knowledge and

performance. Not only high-stakes tests, such as entrance examinations, but also, it was found that term examinations or quizzes created pressure. Young (1991) found that tests affected low proficiency learners more than high proficiency learners. However, because of the pressure of tests, “even the brightest and most prepared students often make errors” (p. 128). As Zeidner (1998) mentioned, test-anxious students were “shown to be preoccupied with negative self-referential thoughts” (p. 36). With much doubt and negative evaluation toward one’s foreign language knowledge and ability, learners consistently prevented themselves from performing positively. Unlike first language acquisition, foreign language learning provoked anxiety and sometimes hindered learners’ communication in the target language.

In contrast to Horwitz et al. (1986), Aida (1994) argued that tests were not a factor in contributing to students’ foreign language anxiety. She stated that tests were “not specific to foreign language learning” (p. 162) because students experience anxiety not only in language tests but also in math and science tests. Aida mentioned that test-related anxiety was regarded as a state anxiety not associated with foreign language anxiety. Thus, Aida excluded test anxiety from the elements of Horwitz et al.’s foreign language anxiety. Also, Kitano (2001) did not include test-related anxiety in elements of foreign language anxiety in her quantitative study.

Personal factors. Here, anxiety was derived from learner’s personal traits, such as communication apprehension (Horwitz et al., 1986), fear of negative evaluation (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kitano, 2001), perfectionism (Gregsén & Horwitz, 2002), and low proficiency in the target language (Kondo & Yang, 2002; Pappamihiel, 2002).

Communication apprehension is often discussed in the research of foreign language anxiety. Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that it is “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” (p. 127). It included anxiety toward speaking in public, communication with others in a foreign language, and receiving foreign language messages. Communication apprehension mainly affected learners’ speaking and listening. Many researchers (e.g., Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Pichette, 2009; Price, 1991) pointed out that oral interaction most typically provoked foreign language anxiety. Anxious speakers tried to understand every spoken word during communication (Horwitz, 2008). Vogely (1998) argued, “Anxiety is exacerbated if the listeners are under the false impression that they must understand every word they hear” (p. 67) because of the short preparation time and of learners’ slow processing speed in the target language. Communication apprehension affected learners’ knowledge and caused difficulty for learners in “understanding others and making oneself understood” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). Thus, it appears to be a strong candidate for being a cause of foreign language anxiety.

Fear of negative evaluation referred to “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of an evaluative situation, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128, as cited in Watson & Friend, 1969, pp. 448-451). It was not limited to the evaluation in test situations. Fear of negative evaluation was broader in scope. An example of this would be “speaking in a foreign language class” (p. 31). Kitano (2001) argued, “A positive correlation between an individual’s fear of negative evaluation and his or her anxiety level” (p. 553). Fear of

negative evaluation may be an important component of foreign language anxiety (Aida, 1994).

Perfectionism seems to be an obvious cause of foreign language anxiety. Students who “believe that some personally-valued goal will be achieved when they are perfect” (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002, p. 569) showed similar characteristics as anxious language learners, such as worry about their errors and opinions of others. Those characteristics could make language learning “unpleasant as well as less successful” (p. 568) for language learners. As a result, perfectionists tend to have higher anxiety in language learning than less-perfectionist learners. Gregersen and Horwitz suggested the importance of being aware of their foreign language limitation in order to not provoke anxiety.

Low proficiency in the target language seems to be another strong cause of foreign language anxiety. Kondo and Yang (2002) conducted a questionnaire on English language anxiety for Japanese college students. The strongest factor in provoking anxiety was students’ low proficiency in English. Students were anxious about their lack of knowledge about vocabulary or grammar in the target language. Similarly, Pappamihiel (2002) stated that there was a significant relationship between academic proficiency and English language anxiety among ESL students. Other researchers (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994) also showed similar results. Thus, low achievement in a target language course could cause foreign language anxiety.

Demographic factors. The third cause of foreign language anxiety arises from student demographic factors defined here as “personal background information leading to foreign language anxiety.” Demographic factors include gender (Kitano, 2001), the

experience of traveling to the target country (Aida, 1994), and learning experiences in the target language (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005).

Kitano (2001) and Pappamihel (2002) found the differences in anxiety level between male students and female students. Kitano investigated the level of anxiety among American college students studying Japanese. It was her finding that male students had higher anxiety levels than female students. Unlike Kitano, Pappamihel conducted the research about anxiety among ESL students in grade schools and found that girls were more anxious than boys. Pappamihel stated, “Girls did not seem to have adequate coping strategies to help them save face” (p. 342) in comparison with boys, which as a result increased girls’ anxiety. Overall, it was not clear which gender had higher levels of anxiety, but gender may be a potential factor for arousing foreign language anxiety.

Recent studies showed interesting results about travel to a target country. Aida (1994) described the advantage of experiences with a target country acting to reduce foreign language anxiety. In her study, college learners of Japanese who had visited Japan “showed a significantly lower level of anxiety” (p. 163). Aida explained that “exposure to culture and people” (p. 163) in the target country decreases anxiety. Kitano (2001), however, found the opposite: She also conducted a study of foreign language anxiety among college students who studied Japanese. The results indicated that students with experience in traveling Japan felt anxiety more strongly than students with no experience of traveling to Japan. Kitano thought that students who had been to Japan “believed that they were expected to be more proficient than those who had never been to Japan” (p. 558). Their ideal image toward themselves may lend more pressure to students

with experience with the target country, but like other demographic factors, there is no conclusive evidence of this. Of course, experience with the target country may create positive or negative impressions of the target language for visitors, but this experience does appear to be a cause of foreign language anxiety.

Many researchers (e.g., Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Liu, 2008) have addressed the effect of learning experience of a target language on anxiety. Frantzen and Magnan compared the level of anxiety between “true” beginners and “false” beginners in Spanish and French. True beginners are students who study a language for the first time, and false beginners are learners who have previously learned the language and enrolled in a beginning course. In both Spanish and French courses, “true beginners were more anxious than false beginners” (p. 175). Prior learning experience seemed to lessen the foreign language anxiety of language learners. Frantzen and Magnan stated that having a background in the target language was one of the reasons why false beginners were more comfortable in a classroom. The researchers did not mention how long the advantage of being false beginners lasted, and the experienced learners may react differently to unfamiliar materials. However, they argued that “previous study of a different language” (p. 181) was beneficial for reducing foreign language anxiety.

Strategies for Dealing with Learner Anxiety

Researchers focused on the role of language teachers in decreasing learners’ foreign language anxiety. As with teachers of other subjects, foreign language teachers tend to have the initiatives for instruction, such as types of activities in classrooms and

the content of lessons. When teachers change their classroom procedures it can affect students' levels of anxiety and potentially help the students learn a foreign language without as much pressure. Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that teachers have two options for helping out anxious students. The options are "1) [teachers] can help [students] learn to cope with the existing anxiety-provoking situation; or 2) [teachers] can make the learning context less stressful" (p. 131). The first option indicates the importance of teachers' help toward anxious students who do not know how to handle their own foreign language anxiety. The second option suggests the positive value of the improvement in learning conditions, because comfortable conditions both physically and emotionally may reduce students' foreign language anxiety. In addition, Horwitz et al. argued that teachers must acknowledge the existence of foreign language anxiety before going on to develop strategies for dealing with that anxiety.

Although anxious students may perform poorly in a language classroom, they are not the same as students who have "lack of ability, inadequate background, or poor motivation" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 131). Based on an understanding of foreign language anxiety, teachers should think about strategies to deal with anxious students. I explore strategies of dealing with anxiety according to Horwitz et al.'s two options below.

Helping students learn to cope with anxiety. Some studies (e.g., Horwitz, 2008; Phillips, 1999; Vogely, 1998) showed examples of strategies to help students learn to cope with anxiety. Unlike teaching-specific techniques, this strategy does not seem to be a rapid-acting remedy. As Brown (2007) argued, although learner strategy training brings benefits to students, "teachers cannot always expect instant success in that effort since students often bring with them certain preconceived notions of what 'ought' to go on in

the classroom” (p. 140, as cited in Bialystok, 1985). It would take time to introduce students to new ideas about learning styles and strategies. Thus, this strategy may gradually help students allay their anxiety as they progressively understand the strategy and incorporate it into their learning.

Prior studies have indicated three types of techniques to help students learn to cope with anxiety: (a) introducing learning strategies, (b) helping students develop more realistic expectations, and (c) teaching communicative gambits. Each strategy is discussed below.

Introducing learning strategies. Rubin (1975) found that good language learners enhanced their learning by using learning strategies, for example, self-evaluation or posing questions for clarification. O’Malley and Chamot (1985) divided learning strategies into three categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies. Brown (2007) explained that learners used the learning strategies “in the quest for language competence” (p. 136). Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that teachers’ advice about learning strategies is effective for anxious learners in decreasing their anxiety. In addition, Chamot (2005) argued that “explicit instruction is far more effective than simply asking students to use one or more strategies and it also fosters metacognition, students’ ability to understand their own thinking and learning processes” (p. 123).

Helping students develop more realistic expectations. Students sometimes create extra pressure for themselves due to their unrealistic or underestimated preconceptions about language learning. Horwitz (2008) indicated that some learners believe that they will be able to speak a target language fluently like native speakers within a very short

period of time. She stated that in a study of college students in the U.S., “over a third of the students thought that a language could be learned in two years or less by studying only one hour a day” (p. 14). Realizing the actual process of second language acquisition may release students from extra pressure that stems from such false expectations.

Price (1991) pointed out that many students believed that their language skills were weaker than those of peers. This belief may adversely affect performance and provoke language anxiety as a result.

Horwitz (2008) suggested arranging contacts with more advanced students to help more anxious students improve their performance. By talking with successful learners, anxious students could “see that people like them can learn the language” (p. 11).

Teaching communicative gambits. This strategy may be a more efficacious technique than others. Phillips (1999) suggested that teaching communicative gambits, such as conversational cues or reaction words, are “useful for classroom activities and for helping students feel that they are carrying on a natural conversation” (p. 129). Examples of conversational gambits include, “By the way,” “Let’s see,” and “Really?” She stated that learners usually develop their confidence by speaking a target language in a classroom. The more students practice the language, the more confident they are. The “authentic feel” (p. 129) of those expressions could encourage students to practice the target language, which may lead them to lower their foreign language anxiety.

Making the learning context less stressful. Many researchers (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986; Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009; Pappamihiel, 2002) argued for the importance of the supportive role of foreign language teachers. Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) stated, “Levels of anxiety may vary depending on the instructor” (p. 106).

Similarly, Aida (1994) suggested, “The important role of teachers in lessening classroom tension and in creating a friendly, supportive atmosphere that can help reduce fear of embarrassment of making errors in front of peers” (p. 164). In addition, foreign language students also thought that teachers could play a key role in reducing students’ anxiety. Vogely (1998) conducted a survey on solutions for foreign language listening anxiety in college Spanish classrooms. Sixty percent of students named instructional factors as possible solutions to the problem of anxiety. The content of instructional factors includes: (a) increase class time to listen to comprehension practice, (b) receive regular feedback, (c) combine listening comprehension with other skills, and (d) create out-of-class opportunities.

Like Vogely (1998), many researchers (e.g., Horwitz, 2008; Kitano, 2001; Pichette, 2009) suggested practical techniques for allaying learners’ anxiety. Some were detailed techniques, some were not. I categorize them into six techniques: giving comprehensible input, providing positive feedback and encouragement, using humor and games, using small-group and pair activities, using extensive materials and practice, and developing a classroom communication. I will explore each technique below.

Giving comprehensible input. Vogely (1998) reported that 51% of college foreign language students considered teacher input as a source of their anxiety. Fast speech, difficult words, complicated syntax, and unfamiliar topics in teacher’s input prevented students from understanding the teachers’ speech. She stated that “their anxiety would be alleviated if instructors would just slow the speed of their speech” (p. 74). As practical strategies, she suggested that teachers should slow down their speech, break down the discourse into phrases, and deliver the phrases as chunks of speech. Also,

teachers' easy word choice and familiar topic selection would help students decrease their anxiety.

Providing positive feedback and encouragement. Marcos-Llinás and Garau (2009) and Price (1991) put forth the importance of encouraging students through giving positive feedback or comments. Marcos-Llinás and Garau thought that learners' self-esteem was a key to lessening their anxiety. They stated that "some anxious learners may handle anxiety-provoking situations better if they have high self-esteem" (p. 104). Giving positive feedback or encouraging learners could lead them to increase their self-esteem, which could help them deal with anxiety. Also, Price suggested that instructors should help learners not as an authority figure but as a friend. Students seem to want to get feedback in a non-threatening way. In particular, Horwitz (2008) advised that teachers should "correct errors gently" (p. 183) when students make mistakes.

Using humor and games. Horwitz (2008) mentioned that humor and games were useful to "distract attention away from individual speakers" (p. 11). Using games can create not only a relaxing atmosphere in a classroom but also provide an amount of interaction between learners. If students practice speaking the target language through fun activities, they may reduce their anxiety and participate in a lesson more actively.

Using small-group and pair activities. The same reason can be applied to this technique because unlike whole-class activities each speaker does not get much attention from peers in small-group activities. As many studies have indicated, public speaking is one of the most anxiety provoking causes. Avoiding public speaking situations could alleviate foreign language anxiety among students. Phillips (1999) stated that small group and pair activities "increase the amount of time individual students spend communicating

in the target language” (p. 129) under non-threatening situations. Students may feel that they are more secured and relaxed so that they can accept making more mistakes in those forms of activities. Thus, small group and pair work could be helpful for anxious students.

Using extensive materials and practice. Vogely (1998) claimed that there is a powerful influence of visual materials on learners’ behavior. She stated, “Visual support not only makes the topic more accessible to listeners who are more visual or spatial learners but also helps all listeners to relate personally with the topic” (p. 74). In addition, Vogely suggested that extensive reading-out-loud practice would help learners reduce their anxiety. Kitano (2001) supported that assertion. She also stated that the effectiveness of choral work before calling on individual students. Through reading materials out loud, students could learn appropriate pronunciation and intonation of target sentences, which may promote more confidence in students.

Developing classroom communication. A friendly atmosphere in the learning community may create a good relationship among students. Kitano (2001) stated that in a classroom community “all the students know each other very well and can support each other regardless of differences in ability” (P. 559). Thus, community in a classroom could lead to increased cooperation among students. Little and Sanders (1989) argued that in a supportive and collaborative community, learners are “more confident, less anxious, better able to listen with understanding, to participate, and to interact (p. 280). Although they stated that it is the students’ responsibility to create community, Phillis (1999) argued, “There are certain steps the instructors can take to foster an environment where a community can develop” (p. 129). Creating a supportive community in a language classroom seems to be essential in reducing students’ anxiety.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Mixed Methods

According to Krathwohl (2004), two major approaches lie on a continuum of research methods from qualitative to quantitative. He explained that the qualitative approach “provides descriptions of a case, a group, a situation, or an event” (p. 26), and that the quantitative approach is “deductively preplanned and designed around one or more hypotheses with data” (p. 26). As a result, the two methods differ in their research procedures. For example, the quantitative approach requires hypotheses before collecting data, whereas in the qualitative approach, information emerged from informants leads to patterns or theories (Creswell, 1994). There has been a long debate about qualitative approaches and quantitative approaches. Kerlinger claimed, in support of quantitative research approaches, “There's no such thing as qualitative data. Everything is either 1 or 0” (cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 40). In contrast, Campbell (1974) claimed that “all research ultimately has a qualitative grounding” (cited in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 40).

Both approaches have strengths and weaknesses. The strength of the quantitative approaches is that “the findings have an increased likelihood of being generalizable” (Carr, 1994, p. 715). Because quantitative data is obtained through random sampling from the study population, the results obtained could be generalized to the larger population. By contrast, qualitative approaches which incorporate the subjective are “able to explain the psychological dimensions of human beings which are impossible to represent numerically in a quantitative way” (Hara, 1995, p. 353). Researchers can obtain

rich meaningful data from subjects because they are immersed in a study context and interact with the participants. Thus, the researcher is able to give assurance that the data is representative of the phenomenon being studied (Duffy, 1995, p. 229).

The weakness of quantitative approaches is that they “treat people merely as a source of data” (Carr, 1994, p. 718). In addition, researchers tend to focus on participants who are distinct from others and “remain distant and independent of that being researched” (Creswell, 1994, p. 6). Thus, the detached approach diminishes an understanding of individual differences among subjects. By contrast, qualitative approaches sometimes focus too closely on individual results and “the relationship between the researcher and participants may actually distort findings” (Carr, 1994, p. 718).

Combining both approaches might overcome their weaknesses. Morse (1991) claimed that combining both approaches not only maximizes the strengths and minimizes the weaknesses of each approach, but strengthens research results and contributes to theory and knowledge development. Similarly, Krathwohl (2004) argued that “research is a creative act we cannot and should not fix into firm categories” (p. 26). Mixing both qualitative and quantitative approaches has the potential to increase the effectiveness of research.

Researchers take different positions on this issue. Some researchers (e.g., Sale et al., 2002) stated that “quantitative and qualitative methods cannot be combined” (p. 43) because they focus on different aspects of the same phenomena. Conversely, many researchers (e.g., Miles & Huberman, 1994) claim that it is beneficial to combine the two.

Abowitz and Toole (2010) recommend using mixed-method research whenever possible. They argued that mixed-method research “improves the validity and reliability of the resulting data and strengthens causal inferences by providing the opportunity to observe data convergence or divergence in hypothesis testing” (p. 108). Krathwohl (2004) expressed a similar opinion:

The difference between qualitatively oriented research tools and techniques and quantitatively oriented ones can be exaggerated. Whereas some researchers see them as opposites, in fact they are usually complementary. Indeed, where appropriated, the strongest studies will borrow the most appropriate aspects of all methods to present their case. (p. 223)

I adopt the mixed-method research in this study because it should lead to better results for investigating causes and coping techniques. Taking advantage of the strengths of different approaches to data generation contributes to disclosing not only overall characteristics of anxious teachers but also to detailing internal struggles against English teaching anxiety.

In investigating anxiety, many researchers (e.g., Bekleyen, 2009; Gresham, 2007) have used mixed methods. Bekleyen used both the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale questionnaire and interviews to study listening anxiety among college students studying English. Gresham also employed both survey and narrative interview approaches to scrutinize anxiety levels among pre-service math teachers.

It is credible to apply both qualitative methods and quantitative methods for studying anxiety, not only because clear-cut measurement is needed to investigate the level of anxiety among teachers but also because the level of anxiety cannot be easily

observed. Quantitatively, I use anxiety scales and questionnaires. Qualitatively, I conduct follow-up interviews with elementary school teachers. Combining the two approaches, I can investigate their anxiety more effectively.

To test the procedures of quantitative data collections, I conducted a pilot study at a Japanese Saturday School in the USA. I used a questionnaire about English language anxiety for the pilot study. I will discuss the results of the study in the next section.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to find out the following: (a) whether the Japanese version of the Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (TFLAS: Horwitz, 2008) included any unclear or confusing items, (b) to check how much time participants required to complete the questionnaire, and (c) to get additional information about potential difficulties during administering the questionnaire at school. The pilot study was carried out at a small-sized Japanese Saturday School in the Midwest, USA. The private school offered Japanese language education, mathematics education, and social studies education in Japanese to children from elementary to junior high school levels. The school was originally founded to make children adjust smoothly to Japanese school curriculum when they return to Japan after a few years' stay in the U.S. All three subjects (Japanese, math, and social studies) that students studied in school followed the curriculum of public schools in Japan. Twelve teachers worked at the school and all were part-time teachers.

Ten elementary school teachers (three males and seven females) participated in the pilot study. They were all Japanese and had opportunities to speak English outside

school. Their length of teaching experience at the Japanese Saturday School was between one and fifteen years. A background questionnaire, TFLAS (Horwitz, 2008), and a supplemental questionnaire about anxiety about teaching English were used. The background questionnaire included four items (gender, length of teaching experience, experience in taking English teaching methodology courses, and experience in taking formal training for teaching English). The TFLAS was composed of 18 items for evaluating participants' anxiety toward their own English language proficiency. It utilized a 5-point Likert Scale. Originally, the TFLAS was written in English. I translated each item in Japanese with feedback from bilingual speakers and used the Japanese version in this pilot study. The supplemental questionnaire was created to measure teachers' anxiety about teaching English. It was composed of four items that focused on English teaching. Like TFLAS, it utilized a 5-point Likert Scale questionnaire, and participants were asked to choose their answers from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." An example from the supplemental questionnaire was: "I feel confident when I take a training course for speaking English."

Participants spent approximately 10 minutes completing the TFLAS, the background questionnaire, and the supplemental questionnaire. I administered the questionnaire in the teachers' room. In order to identify unclear or confusing words and phrases in the Japanese version of the TFLAS, I asked every teacher whether they had any difficulty in understanding each item when they submitted the questionnaire. All teachers responded that they finished the questionnaire without any ambiguous words and phrases. The pilot study showed that the Japanese version of the TFLAS appeared to have a clear description about each item in Japanese.

Teachers in the pilot study demonstrated low anxiety about their English language proficiency. The score of the TFLAS ranged from 1 to 5 with a score of 3 indicating anxiety (Horwitz, 2008). The result of the TFLAS, not surprisingly, showed that their average anxiety score was 2.59, which meant that they were considered “probably not very anxious” (Horwitz, 2008, p. 235). Unlike teachers in Japan, they used English in their daily lives outside school and regular use of English in their daily lives would be expected to decrease their levels of anxiety.

By contrast, the result of the supplemental questionnaire which sought to measure their anxiety about teaching English indicated that the items did not work well: they did not fit teachers’ situations at the Japanese Saturday School because they did not teach English at school. Furthermore, the number of items was too small, and items of the supplemental questionnaire did not seem to cover all anxiety-provoking possibilities while teaching English. Previous studies (e.g., Morton et al., 1997) claimed that having formal training affected the level of anxiety among teachers, but there are other factors, such as public speaking and in-class communication with native speakers, which could arouse anxiety. Additionally, the specific situation of Japanese elementary school teachers should be considered in order to discover causes of their English teaching anxiety. Thus, the supplemental questionnaire for measuring anxiety about teaching English was reconsidered.

To better reflect the English teaching situation in Japan, a new questionnaire was developed, based on data from earlier discussions with a coordinator of English language education at a city board of education in Japan. Before conducting the pilot study, I had visited the board of education in Japan and discussed difficulties that Japanese teachers

experienced in teaching English. The discussion gave me ideas about Japanese teachers' working situations when I needed to modify the new questionnaire for the anxiety scale with regard to teaching English. The reason I did not include the discussion for my pilot study was that I had already prepared for the pilot study before I visited the coordinator at the city board of education. I contacted a Japanese Saturday School principal for permission to do the pilot study and did not have much time to revise the supplemental questionnaire. Therefore, I revised it after conducting the pilot study.

The Japanese Saturday School was not a public elementary school in Japan. Also, there were some differences between teachers in the Japanese Saturday School in the U.S. and teachers in public elementary schools in Japan. For example, teachers at the Japanese Saturday School did not teach English or use English in their daily lives. However, the pilot study was able to give me some confidence about the Japanese version of the TFLAS, as well as ideas about conducting a study with elementary school teachers for my research in Japan.

Instruments

Teacher foreign language anxiety scale (TFLAS). The TFLAS, developed by Horwitz (2008) to measure a teacher's anxiety level toward his/her own foreign language proficiency, originally used the phrase "foreign language." The author claimed, "English or any other language can be substituted" (p. 235). Thus, the word "English" is used in this study.

It is composed of 18 items and scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). For example, TFLAS "item 9: I never feel quite

sure of myself when I am speaking English in front of native speakers.” The TFLAS also includes 10 reverse-scored items (item 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, and 18). For example, TFLAS “Item 4: I am pleased with the level of English proficiency I have achieved.” For those items, “Fives should be scored ones, fours as twos, ones as fives, and twos as fours” (Horwitz, 2008, p. 235). Baugher and Roberts (2004) claimed that the use of reverse-scored items can “neutralize response bias” (p. 91). As a result, highly anxious teachers score 5 and the least anxious teachers score 1. To determine the level of anxiety, a researcher first needs to add up participant’s responses to all the questions. Then, the score is divided by the total number of items, which is 18. If the average score is around 3, “it is possible that you are slightly anxious about your language proficiency” (Horwitz, 2008, p. 237). The TFLAS is composed of 18 items, and the average score to all responses indicates a teacher’s individual level of English language anxiety. In this study, teachers whose average scores are around 3 would be evaluated as anxious teachers.

Until this study, no researchers have used the TFLAS to analyze non-native teacher’s anxiety. One of the reasons is that teacher’s level of concern and anxiety has not been frequently addressed by researchers (Mousavi, 2007). Also, the scale is relatively new. Researchers’ (e.g., Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009, Tallon, 2009) attention has been paid to student’s foreign language anxiety. They used a similar 5-point Likert anxiety scale (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale: FLCAS) which was also developed by Horwitz (1983). Although the target subjects are different between FLCAS (students) and TFLAS (teachers), the basic contents of questionnaire are very similar to each other because Horwitz (20008) developed TFLAS based on FLCAS. For example, one item in

FLCAS, “I always feel that other students speak the foreign language better than I do,” looks similar to an item in TFLAS: “I always feel that other teachers speak the foreign language better than I do.”

Situational teaching anxiety scale (STAS). This scale focuses more on teachers’ anxiety in an English teaching situation. It was developed in consultation with two Boards of Education in Tokyo and an English language education coordinator in order to elucidate difficulties of teaching English in elementary schools. I went to Tokyo to see chiefs of two boards of education in School District A and B in 2008, and sought permission to carry out this teacher’s anxiety study. During my visit, the head of the Board of Education in School District A introduced me to the coordinator who was working for scheduling and organizing the English language education curriculum for all schools in the district. She also supported teachers of English in elementary schools. I discussed difficulties of teachers in teaching English with her. The STAS was developed from these discussions with the coordinator. Additionally, the scale was modified as a result of the pilot study. It is composed of 15 specific questions about anxiety-provoking situations, such as lack of teaching materials or communication with native speakers. These questions were added to the TFLAS as items. Then, the STAS questions were added as items 16 to item 33 in the questionnaire. Like TFLAS, the STAS has a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There are 6 reverse-scored items (item 21, 24, 25, 26, 30, and 31) among 15 items. To these reverse-scored items, highly anxious teachers would choose 1 (strongly disagree) and least anxious teachers would choose 5 (strongly agree), for example, ‘Item 25: I feel comfortable when I teach English with a native speaker.’ To determine the level of anxiety, I followed the

procedure of the TFLAS. I added up participants' answers for all 15 items on the STAS and then divided the score by 15. As with TFLAS, I defined participants that scored above 3 as "anxious teachers" with regard to a specific English teaching situation.

Background questionnaire. The background questionnaire asked for the following information: (a) gender, (b) years of teaching experience in elementary schools, (c) whether participants had experience in teaching English, (d) whether participants took an English pedagogy course at college, (e) whether participants had formal training for teaching English, (f) whether participants had taken an English test (TOEFL, TOEIC, or EIKEN), and (g) whether participants had an experience in traveling to an English-speaking country. Previous studies indicated that all the information obtained in this questionnaire could be possible factors in provoking anxiety among teachers. The results were used to evaluate participants' English teaching anxiety.

Follow-up interviews. In addition to questionnaires, follow-up interview sessions were conducted with nine teachers and one native Assistant English Teacher (AET) for added insight into the quantitative data. Japanese teachers were interviewed individually in their native language, Japanese, and each interview was audio-recorded. There were five main questions to be asked in the interviews:

1. Can you describe how you felt after you began teaching English?
2. What aspects of teaching English cause the greatest anxiety?
3. Are there any differences between teaching alone and teaching with an AET?
4. What is your biggest concern about working with an AET?
5. What do you most want to teach students in English class?

For the native AET, the interview was conducted in English and also audio-recorded. The following five questions were the main ones asked:

1. Can you describe your role in the classroom?
2. Is there any difficulty in communicating with Japanese teachers?
3. Do you think Japanese teachers are anxious when teaching English with you?
4. Do Japanese teachers differ in terms of their behavior between the teachers' room and the classroom?
5. What are differences between an English class in Japan and a foreign language class in the United States?

Analysis of the interviews was conducted after listening to the audio-recorded interviews and reading the transcript of them.

Survey. Previous studies (e.g., Gardner & Leak, 1994; Liu, 2008) claimed that having formal training affected the level of teachers' anxiety. Three teacher trainers for in-service training courses participated in a survey. The survey was conducted by sending a questionnaire to each teacher trainer. The survey was composed of 15 questions (background questions, multiple-choice questions, and open-ended questions). The examples are, "What is the main goal for the training course?" or "Please describe the content of training courses for elementary school English teachers." The teacher trainers for in-service teacher training courses worked with different educational levels in different provinces and school districts. The differences in their educational administration could reveal the differences in goals for the respective training courses. The answers to the survey were examined to understand what teachers learned in the in-service training courses.

Participants

Participants consisted of 133 Japanese elementary school teachers (71 males and 62 females), as well as one native English teacher, and three in-service teacher trainers. Japanese teachers were from first- to sixth-grade public elementary school teachers in two school districts (School District A, and School District B hereafter) in Tokyo, Japan. The teachers in both school districts (63 teachers in School District A and 70 teachers in School District B) taught English once a week. School District A had seven elementary schools and all schools started English language education in 2004 on a trial basis, whereas School District B, composed of 12 elementary schools, had no English program until April, 2009. When I visited those schools in May, 2009, teachers had just started teaching English. In District B, however, nine teachers (12.8%) out of 70 had experience teaching English in their previous schools. In Japanese public schools, teachers usually change their schools approximately every four years because they are required to have experience in teaching at different regions within a prefecture. Those nine teachers had taught English in a different school district before they moved to schools in District B. However, in school District B alone, fifth and sixth grade teachers taught English as required by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). By contrast, six schools out of seven in School District A required third- through sixth-grade teachers to teach English in an expanded curriculum. The seventh school in School District A required all teachers from first through sixth grade to teach English because the school was treated as a flagship elementary school for English language education in the School District.

Both School Districts are located next to each other in the suburbs of Tokyo. School District A includes the American Air Force Base where the headquarters of the United States Forces in Japan are located, and schools hired spouses of military personnel as Assistant English Teachers (AETs). By contrast, School District B is not close to a military base, and they hired native AETs from a private English conversation company.

School District A had 71 teachers who taught English and 60 teachers (34 males and 26 females) participated in this study voluntarily. In School District B, 73 teachers (37 males and 36 females) out of 74 for the fifth- and sixth-grade students participated. All teachers completed (a) the Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale questionnaire (TFLAS), (b) the Situational Teaching Anxiety Scale questionnaire (STAS), and (c) a background questionnaire.

One native AET participated in this research as an interviewee. School District A hired seven native English speakers who were family members of American military personnel at a U.S. Air Force base. They worked as assistant teachers for English lessons at elementary and junior high schools in School District A several days a week. Although they did not have a teacher certificate, the city board of education hired them because they were native speakers of English. An AET from Texas joined an interview session in this study. She had already had the two-year teaching experience as an AET at School District A.

Three teacher trainers took part in the Survey. Two were teacher trainers at Tokyo Board of Education, and the other was a coordinator for English language education at a city board of education. The Tokyo Board of Education and the city board of education individually conducted in-service training for elementary school teachers of

English. Although the Tokyo Board of Education offered a formal training course for elementary-school English teachers in 2009, only one teacher in each elementary school was allowed to participate in the training because of limited capacity at the available training facility. Owing to the large demand from homeroom teachers who taught English, the Tokyo Board of Education expanded the number of training courses and gave more opportunities for Japanese teachers to take the courses. On the other hand, the city board of education conducted several sessions to provide useful information about teaching English to all elementary school teachers who teach English.

Procedure

Questionnaires, including the TFLAS, the STAS, and a background questionnaire, were administered when I visited 19 elementary schools in both districts. Before contacting each teacher, I approached gatekeepers in two school districts. After explaining the purpose and instruments of this study to chiefs of two city boards of education, they gave me permission to visit elementary schools in the two districts. Then, I repeated the same explanation about my research to each school principal. After receiving the go-ahead from principals, I was able to contact elementary school teachers who taught English. They were informed that the survey would have no effect on their daily or overall evaluations or their contract and promotion matters at school. Some teachers completed the questionnaire during their twenty-minute break or lunch break after I explained the purpose of my research and how to fill out the form. Other teachers took more time to complete answering questions. In that case, I later revisited each teacher to collect his or her answers. The quantitative data from the TFLAS and the

STAS were analyzed with the computer program SPSS after the questionnaires were collected.

Interviews were conducted at school after teachers' daily work was finished. After getting permission to participate in the study from each teacher, I contacted each of them and set up the schedule for individual interviewees. Each interview was completed within 30 minutes. All data was transcribed and used to investigate how teachers felt about teaching English.

The survey questionnaire was sent to each teacher trainer through email. They answered the questionnaire and returned the answer sheets, which were analyzed to understand the contents of the in-service teacher training courses and to explore how anxious teachers deal with anxiety by taking the courses.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Data Analysis

Participants (133 Japanese teachers) in this study completed the Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (TFLAS) and the Situational Teaching Anxiety Scale (STAS). The TFLAS is an anxiety scale with regard to the participant's own English language proficiency, and the STAS measures anxiety regarding teaching English. Both the TFLAS and the STAS consist of 5-point Likert scale items (from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree") and the level of anxiety about teacher's own English proficiency (TFLAS) with respect to teaching English (STAS).

Researchers, such as Aida (1994), computed means of anxiety scores and compared them with other studies. Of course, the difference in each anxiety score among participants does not reflect the degree of participants' anxiety precisely. However, the scores can indicate whether each teacher is more or less anxious about using English or teaching English. It is reasonable therefore to use the means of the teachers' anxiety scores in analyzing their level of English anxiety. Therefore, as in previous studies, these scores were employed to investigate Japanese elementary school teachers' level of anxiety.

Once the data for TFLAS and STAS were obtained from Japanese elementary school teachers, I converted their answers into specific points between 5 (Strongly Agree) and 1 (Strongly Disagree). Both TFLAS and STAS include reverse-scored items which are used to "naturalize response bias" (Baugher & Roberts, 2004, p. 91). For those items, "Fives should be scored ones, fours as twos, ones as fives, and twos as fours" (Horwitz,

2008, p. 235). Therefore, for reverse-scored items, I changed “Strongly Agree” for 1, “Agree” for 2, “Disagree” for 4, and “Strongly Disagree” for 5. Then, using SPSS, I calculated anxiety scores of those two scales for each subject. The mean scores of the two scales, which fell into a range between 1 and 5, were used to analyze teacher’s anxiety level: the higher the number, the higher the level of anxiety. Cronbach’s alpha (.812) and (.735) showed the TFLAS and STAS scores respectively were highly reliable in this study. The mean anxiety scores for 133 participants were 3.44 (SD = 0.51) for the TFLAS and 3.59 (SD = 0.49) for the STAS (see Table 3).

Table 3.

Anxiety Score on the TFLAS and STAS

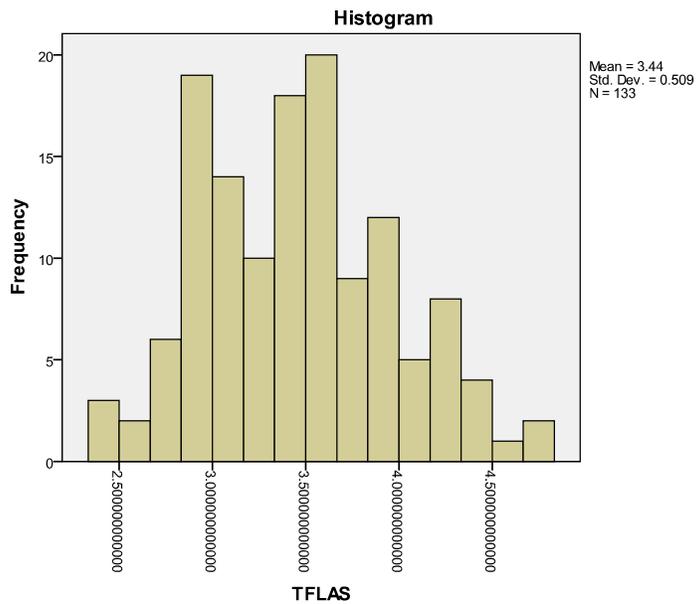
Anxiety Group	N	Possible Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
TFLAS	133	2.44-4.56	3.44	0.51
STAS	133	2.29-4.79	3.59	0.49

The distributions of the scores of both scales were also investigated. The Shapiro-Wilk test was employed to test the normality of anxiety scores. Table 4 shows that the p-value value = 0.126, $\alpha = 0.05$. For the TFLAS, the result indicated that the data were normally distributed (Figure 1).

Table 4. TFLAS Data Tests of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
TFLAS	.984	133	.126

Figure 1.

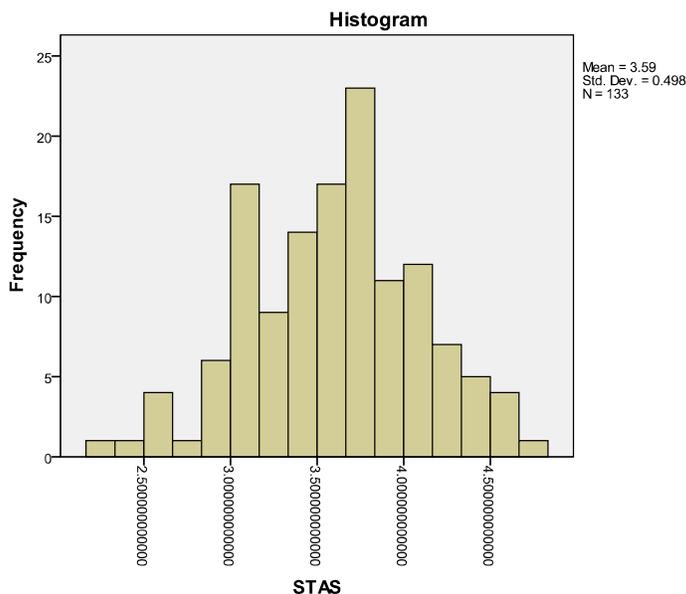


For the STAS, the Shapiro-Wilk test also showed normality (see Figure 2). Table 5 indicates that $p\text{-value} = 0.639$, $\alpha = .05$.

Table 5. STAS Data Tests of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
STAS	.992	133	.639

Figure 2.



From the scores of each anxiety scale, I examined the relationship between TFLAS and STAS. Spearman's rho was computed, and the result ($r_s = .693$, $\alpha = .05$) showed that the two scales were significantly correlated (Table 6). Because of the high degree of correlation between the two anxiety scales, participants who had higher anxiety about their own English proficiency also tended to have higher anxiety about teaching English.

Table 6. Correlation between TFLAS and STAS

			TFLAS
Spearman's rho	STAS	Correlation Coefficient	.693**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000
		N	133

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

Results

Question #1: Are Teachers Anxious about English?

Question #1 sought to investigate whether Japanese elementary school teachers had both language and teaching anxiety about English. Table 7 shows the data for teachers' anxiety levels. I classified elementary school teachers into three groups depending on their anxiety scores: Low anxiety, Medium anxiety, and High anxiety. Low-anxiety teachers were in the range of scores between 1 and 2.99. Medium-anxiety teachers scored between 3.00 and 3.99. High-anxiety teachers' scores fell in a range between 4.00 and 5.00. In this study, I applied Horwitz's (2008) definition in which teachers are considered to be "anxious" if their anxiety scores are 3.0 or more. Thus, teachers in the Medium- High-anxiety groups were labeled anxious teachers.

Table 7. Teacher Anxiety Levels

Anxiety Group	N	Possible Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
TFLAS				
High anxiety	20	4.00-4.56	4.26	0.19
Medium anxiety	83	3.00-3.94	3.45	0.34
Low anxiety	30	2.44-2.94	2.83	0.16
STAS				
High anxiety	29	4.00-4.79	4.26	0.20
Medium anxiety	91	3.00-3.93	3.51	0.28
Low anxiety	13	2.29-2.93	2.70	0.23

N = number of participants

The results indicate that in TFLAS, 77.4% of teachers were anxious about their own English proficiency and 90.2% of teachers were anxious about teaching English in STAS.

To investigate the causes of their English anxiety, I focused on the items in TFLAS and STAS in which teachers' average scores exceeded 4.00. This score indicated that participants were highly anxious. There were nine items (five in TFLAS and four in STAS) in which teachers' average scores were in the range of high anxiety: between 4.00 and 5.00. See Table 8.

Table 8. Responses associated with high anxiety in TFLAS and STAS

Item #	Description	Average
TFLAS		
4	I am pleased with the level of my English language proficiency I have achieved.	4.51
12	I speak English well enough to be a good English teacher.	4.81
14	I feel confident when I speak English.	4.35
16	I don't understand why some people think learning English is so hard.	4.44
18	I feel that my English preparation was adequate to become an English teacher.	4.65
STAS		
19	I want to speak English well.	4.31
24	I have confidence in my English pronunciation.	4.33
29	I am not quite sure about my English grammar when I speak English.	4.15
32	I should have studied English more when I was in school.	4.02

The five items in TFLAS indicate participants' English language proficiency (item 4, 12, and 18) and their previous preparation for being an English teacher (item 16

and 18). Among the items, teachers referred most frequently to item 4, which indicated that they were highly anxious about speaking English while teaching English classes. As researchers (e.g., Price, 1991; Williams & Andrade, 2008) have argued, speaking English was the most anxiety-provoking activity for elementary school teachers. Lack of experience or training was also a cause of their English anxiety. As mentioned previously, elementary school teachers are not required to take English-related courses for their teacher certification. In addition, most elementary school teachers had not experienced teaching English as a school subject before 2009. Teachers did not seem to have a clear vision about what to teach and how to teach English. Mousavi (2007) argued that even teachers with professional training felt that their proficiency was inadequate. It is plausible that Japanese elementary school teachers, with little training and experience, would be anxious about their English proficiency.

In STAS, teachers' average score exceeded 4.00 in items 19, 24, 29, and 32. These responses illustrated specific aspects of English proficiency anxiety. The average score of Item 19 was relatively high (average score: 4.33) in STAS, which indicated that teachers wanted to improve their English proficiency because they were not satisfied with their own current proficiency level. The responses to items 24 and 29 showed that teachers felt especially strong anxiety about their English pronunciation and grammar. Their selection of Item 32 might indicate that their previous English learning experience led to their current unsatisfactory English proficiency.

Causes of teachers' anxiety were also revealed through the interviews. A middle-aged male teacher hesitantly said, "I don't know what to say in each situation and how to instruct in English. I can't speak English." Another said, "I am not confident about my

English pronunciation.” Even younger teachers expressed anxiety: “I studied English for 10 years—from junior high school to college. But I couldn’t say even a single English word in front of our native AET.” All the interviewees were anxious about their English proficiency and seemed to lack confidence about communicating in English.

Anxiety about English had an effect on their attitude toward their method of teaching. One of the teachers said, “I can’t positively teach English in class because I have the disadvantage of not speaking English well.” This feeling of hesitation prevented teachers from using English in front of students. A veteran teacher confessed, “I will be embarrassed if I make a mistake in speaking English. Students may think of me as stupid. With that pressure, it is not easy to speak English.” This shows that some teachers are worried about the loss of authority as teachers with their inadequate levels of English proficiency.

As researchers such as Kim (2004), Mousavi (2007), and Tang (1997) have argued, Japanese elementary school teachers worrying about their own English proficiency was a leading cause of anxiety about teaching English. The unfamiliarity of teaching English as a result of their lack of training and experience was a secondary cause and made teachers struggle to find out what to teach and how to teach in English lessons.

Question #2: What are the Differences in Teacher Anxiety between Two School Districts?

I collected anxiety data from teachers in two different school districts: A and B. Tokyo has 62 school districts. Teachers in Tokyo public schools usually change districts

approximately every three to four years because they are required to have experience in teaching at different regions within Tokyo. Also, this routine rotation is used to give equal opportunities for providing good teachers to each school district. Teachers are required to teach at least three different school districts in their first 10 years of teaching. Teachers cannot choose districts, and they are assigned a new school by the Tokyo Board of Education a few weeks before a new school year starts in April. This shuffling system applies to all public school teachers from elementary to high schools. Because of this system, teachers in District A may have worked at a school in District B, and vice versa. Also, even though District A began teaching English in 2004, many teachers in District A are new to the district.

In District A, teachers were required to start teaching English in 2004. In this district, the city board of education hired three Japanese women as English coordinators, all of whom had near-native English proficiency. They provided teaching materials for English language education to teachers in each school, and organized in-service training courses for teachers. In addition, they worked as assistant English teachers in team-teaching lessons in elementary schools. One of the teachers in District A responded in the interview that coordinators were essential for teachers to prepare English lessons because they helped teachers teach English both inside and outside classrooms. Conversely, in District B, English language education started in 2009. There were no coordinators for their elementary school English language program. No English teacher training and no teaching materials had been provided by the city board of education before 2009. This gap originated from the difference in policy about English language education and the educational budgets of the two school districts.

Table 9 provides comparison data between the two districts regarding teachers' anxiety levels. In School District A, 76.7% of teachers were anxious about their own English language proficiency (TFLAS), and 90% of teachers had anxiety about teaching English (STAS). In School District B, 78.1% of teachers experienced anxiety about their language proficiency (TFLAS), and 90.4% were anxious about teaching English (STAS). Although the support system for English and teachers' English teaching experience differed between District A and District B, teachers' responses about their English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS) paralleled each other.

I employed the independent two-sample *t*-test to investigate the difference in means of teachers' anxiety levels between the two districts. I used the means of English proficiency anxiety level for TFLAS and English teaching anxiety level for STAS. Although no difference in anxiety levels about their own English proficiency was found between teachers in the two districts, $t(131) = -.497, p > .05$, there was a significant difference in English teaching anxiety between teachers in District A and those in District B, $t(131) = -2.177, p < .05$. Only the level of anxiety about teaching English was significantly different.

Table 9.**Differences in Anxiety Levels between District A & B**

Anxiety Group	N in District A	N in District B	Possible Range
TFLAS			
High anxiety	9 (15%)	11 (15.1%)	4.00-4.56
Medium anxiety	37 (61.7%)	46 (63%)	3.00-3.94
Low anxiety	14 (23.3%)	16 (22%)	2.44-2.94
STAS			
High anxiety	9 (15%)	20 (27.4%)	4.00-4.79
Medium anxiety	45 (75%)	46 (63%)	3.00-3.93
Low anxiety	6 (10%)	7 (9.6%)	2.29-2.93

N = number of participants

Question #3: Do Teacher Characteristics Affect Teachers' Anxiety?

In this question, I investigated whether teacher's characteristics had an effect on their levels of their anxiety. These characteristics include gender, years of teaching, English teaching experience, formal training, English tests, travel experiences in English-speaking countries, and English proficiency level.

Gender. Researchers (e.g., Chou, 2003; Liu, 2008; Morton et al., 1997) examined the difference in anxiety levels between male teachers and female teachers. Chou and Morton et al. argued that female teachers were more anxious than male teachers. However, Liu claimed that gender was not a factor in provoking teaching anxiety. In this study, I compared the levels of English proficiency anxiety and English teaching anxiety between male teachers and female teachers. A Pearson correlation showed that there was

no significant association between either gender and TFLAS score (see Table 10) or between gender and STAS score (see Table 11). In both cases, p-value was not significant at an alpha level of .05.

Table 10. Correlation between Gender and Teacher English Proficiency Anxiety

		TFLAS (Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale)
Gender	Pearson Correlation	-.028
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.373
	N	133

Table 11. Correlation between Gender and STAS (English Teaching Anxiety)

		STAS (Situational Teaching Anxiety Scale)
gender	Pearson Correlation	-.007
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.469
	N	133

In this study both male and female teachers appeared highly anxious, and no significant difference was found between them.

Years of teaching experience. I also investigated whether the length of teaching experience at elementary schools affected teachers' level of anxiety. In this case, years of teaching experience did not mean how long they taught English, but instead how long they had actually worked as elementary school teachers. Teachers had on average 12.8 years of elementary school experience (School District A: 12.3 years, School District B: 13.3 years). The length of teaching experience varied from 1 to 38 years, which means that the ages of these teachers varied from approximately 23 to 60.

Many researchers (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002) argued that the more experience a teacher has, the less anxious he or she is. I examined whether experience in teaching other subjects related to their anxiety about teaching an unfamiliar subject. Of course, elementary school teachers were much less familiar with English than other subjects, such as math or social studies. Spearman's rho indicated that there was a significant association ($r_s = .040$, $\alpha = .05$) between years of elementary teaching experience and English proficiency anxiety (see Table 12). In my own research, as seen in Table 13, no significant association was found between years of elementary teaching experience and English teaching anxiety. (See Table 13).

Table 12. Correlation between Years of Elementary Teaching Experience and Anxiety about Teacher's English Language Proficiency (TFLAS)

			TFLAS
Spearman's rho	Years of Experience	Correlation Coefficient	.153*
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.040
		N	133

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 13. Correlation between Years of Elementary Teaching Experience and English Teaching Anxiety (STAS)

			STAS
Spearman's rho	Years of Experience	Correlation Coefficient	.127
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.073
		N	133

The length of teaching experience at elementary schools was significantly related only to teachers' English proficiency anxiety.

English teaching experience. Unlike a previous question, the relationship between teachers' English teaching experience and teachers' level of English anxiety was investigated. As I explained above, English was not a familiar subject for elementary school teachers to teach. In this study, all participants in District A experienced teaching English in combinations of following three teaching types: solo-teaching, team teaching with a near-native (Japanese) English teacher, and team teaching with a native AET. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) (2003) indicated in their guidelines that at least one-third of class time should be team-taught with a native English teacher or with a near-native speaker of English. Conversely, 12.3% of teachers in District B had English teaching experience. Some had taught English in a school in District B, and others had instructed English in another district before they moved to District B. In Question 2, I compared teachers' anxiety levels between teachers in District A and those in District B. In addition to English teaching experience, other factors, such as support of English coordinators and existence of sufficient teaching materials, might affect their anxiety levels. In this question, I simply focused on the relationship between English teaching experience and anxiety. Before examining the statistical data, I discuss how teachers felt about teaching English. The following reactions and emotions were obtained through interviews.

For English teaching, Japanese elementary school teachers showed two different types of responses. The first reaction to teaching English was about their sense of responsibility. Teachers had a negative response to a new subject. To be required to teach

English created a huge burden on elementary school teachers. For example, they needed to prepare for unfamiliar materials, to manage classes, and to communicate with native AETs. The common words which teachers used to describe their feelings about teaching English were “重荷 (burden),” “負担 (overloaded),” “大変 (hard),” and “つらい (tough).” One of the teachers answered, “English is just burdensome for us. We don’t have much time to prepare for English lessons. Besides, we haven’t taught English, which imposes a big burden on us.”

The other response to instruction in English concerned their surprise at students’ quick adaptability to the new foreign language. Some teachers stated that students quickly grasped a native AET’s instruction and enjoyed the lesson. A young female teacher responded, “Before the lesson started, I thought students would be nervous about English, too. But, surprisingly, they really enjoyed the lesson. It seemed like they understood the native AET in English.”

Interestingly, teachers took it for granted that students also had negative feelings toward English. However, the students’ positive reaction to English seemed to illustrate the huge mental gap toward English between teachers and students.

Teachers also described their different roles in the three types of teaching: solo-teaching, team teaching with a near-native (Japanese) English teacher, and team teaching with a native AET. When Japanese homeroom teachers taught English alone, they took the instructor’s role and gave an explanation about English vocabulary and expressions in Japanese. Because they were homeroom teachers, they had the advantage of knowing their students. Homeroom teachers understood the students’ struggles in learning English, which led them to create appropriate activities to help their students. A veteran female

teacher said, “I use my English teaching time to help my students, who did not follow the native AET to catch up.” Another teacher offered, “Students are eager to talk with our native AET, and they know they have to speak English for it. So, I am teaching them expressions and vocabulary for communication in my solo-teaching lesson.” In addition, teachers seemed to be relaxed because they used the shared-native language with students. A young male teacher stated that “I can maintain my own teaching pace. I am not nervous because a native AET is not in our classroom.”

In comparison with a solo-teaching style, Japanese teachers tended to play supportive roles in team teaching. Both near-native (Japanese) AETs and native AETs had higher English proficiency than Japanese homeroom teachers. Although both near-native and native English speakers usually did not have the teacher certification, they usually played the leading role in English lessons. It depended on each city board of education with regard to whom they hired as assistant English teachers for team teaching lessons. Most city boards of education hired native English speakers (87.7%), and the small percentage of non-native assistant English teachers (12.3%) was also hired at schools in Tokyo (Committee of Superintendent of City Board of Education in Tokyo, 2009). Those who had higher English language proficiency generally led students in English activities, while Japanese homeroom teachers focused themselves on monitoring the flow of each activity. One female teacher said, “In team teaching, homeroom teachers should play a role of Master of Ceremonies as a whole. Then, we make a native AET lead each activity.” Another veteran male teacher also gave a similar answer about his own role as master of ceremonies. Japanese homeroom teachers seemed to differentiate their teaching roles between solo teaching and team teaching.

In team-teaching, some teachers regularly work with both a near-native AET and a native AET. The difference in homeroom teachers' feelings when comparing the two team teaching styles was huge. Near-native AETs shared the native language and were able to communicate with homeroom teachers and students in Japanese. Thus, homeroom teachers seemed to be more comfortable in working with another Japanese teacher who had near-native English proficiency. In District A, English coordinators also worked as assistant English teachers at school to help homeroom teachers teach English. One young male teacher said of an English coordinator, "She is so skillful that I always rely on her, which makes me relax." Another veteran female teacher responded, "When working with the English coordinator, I can ask her questions in Japanese, for example: 'Can you explain it in Japanese?' The communication with her in Japanese makes me comfortable during the English lesson."

Conversely, Japanese teachers felt uncomfortable with native AETs because they reported that their own English proficiency was at a beginner level. One male teacher said, "I really want to talk with our native AET, but I just say 'Hello' and run away from her because I am afraid." Because Japanese teachers did not try to communicate with native AETs, this circumstance seemed to have a negative effect on their team teaching. A native AET claimed that "there is probably a lot of miscommunication." She stated that she often looked at the Japanese teacher to figure out whether or not she should keep an activity going in class. However, she could not understand cues because Japanese teachers did not usually say anything to her. Owing to the difficulty of English communication, Japanese teachers tended not to have sufficient meeting time regarding their teaching plans with native AETs. This attitude seemed to weaken the relationship

among teachers in functioning as a team. Anxiety about communication in English prevented Japanese teachers from actively communicating with native AETs both inside and outside the classroom, which led to frequent instances of miscommunication.

Table 14 shows that English teaching experience had no association with anxiety about teachers' own English language proficiency (TFLAS). However, it was significantly and negatively associated ($p = .022$, $\alpha < .05$) with English teaching anxiety (STAS) at the alpha level of .05 (see Table 15). Because it was a negative correlation, it indicated that the less experience a teacher has, the more anxious he or she is. From their interview responses, teachers had relatively unpleasant experiences in teaching English. However, the result indicated that even negative experiences could contribute to decreasing the level of anxiety about teaching English.

Table 14. Correlation between English Teaching Experience and English

Proficiency Anxiety

		TFLAS
English Teaching Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.112
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.100
	N	133

Table 15. Correlation between English teaching Experience and English Teaching

Anxiety

		STAS
English Teaching Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.198*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.011
	N	133

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

This result supports previous research (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002) which found that the teaching experience of the target subject was a critical factor in decreasing the level of anxiety.

Although experiencing English instruction may help teachers eliminate nervousness about teaching English (by realizing what they should do during the lesson), ironically, working with native AETs seemed to cause other sources of anxiety. Through the interviews, teachers described the following two sources of anxiety. One was communication difficulty with a native AET during a lesson, and the other was the pedagogically inadequate quality ascribed to native AETs.

The difficulty found in communicating in English between a Japanese teacher and a native AET in class seemed to cause English instruction to be disorganized. Although elementary school teachers tried to manage their class activities through monitoring students' understanding, they struggled to complete their role within the team because of their low English proficiency. One middle-aged male teacher confessed:

We (a homeroom teacher and a native AET) had a meeting about class activities before each lesson, but we can't adapt to sudden changes during class. We need to flexibly change our lesson plan depending on our students' reaction. But, I can't communicate with our native AET in English. It is difficult to adjust rules of each game to students' level of understanding during the lesson. Lessons often finish with students' confusion.

Other homeroom teachers frequently reported the difficulty in communicating with a native AET during class. Japanese teachers just used gestures or simple English words to describe to native AETs some minor changes in each activity during the lesson.

Those cues might not necessarily work well. One veteran female teacher said, “When I want our native AET to repeat her English explanation one more time, I say ‘sorry’ or ‘one’ to her. I tried to tell it to her in the right time, but....”

Another female teacher argued:

Unlike English teachers in junior high schools, we cannot fix our lessons during class because we cannot speak English. I can’t say, “We should teach it in a different way” in English. If I tell it to our native AET in Japanese, she says, “What?” and asks me many questions in English very fast. I will be in a panic and can’t understand her. Then, students look at us and wonder what we are doing. So, I cannot fix our lesson in class.

Thus, the low English proficiency among Japanese teachers appeared to make their team teaching difficult at best.

Another concern about working with native AETs concerned the pedagogically inadequate quality of native teachers. Braine (2010) claimed that Japanese administrators preferred unqualified native AETs to qualified local teachers. In fact, interviewees reported some examples of native AETs’ misbehavior. A young female teacher complained about inappropriate behaviors of former native AETs, such as tardiness, absence without permission, and stealing teaching materials from a school. In addition to their misconduct, some native AETs did not know how to teach students. A female Japanese teacher said, “Native AETs are just ordinary people from English speaking countries. I think it is difficult for ordinary people to come to a foreign country and to teach in front of 40 students.” In this recession, each city board of education tried to cut

back on spending by contracting with a cheap private English conversation company. As a result, fewer high-quality native AETs appeared to be sent to elementary schools.

Formal training. Among all subjects, only 6.8% of teachers had taken pre-service training, such as English pedagogy or TESOL, at college because pre-service English training was not required for the Elementary School Teachers' Certification (Table 16).

Table 16.

Teachers' Experience with Training

Background information	N	%
Teachers who took training	44	33.1
In-service training	42	31.6
Pre-service training	9	6.8

For in-service training, 31.6% of teachers took courses at either the Tokyo Board of Education or the city board of education. In-service training courses included large-scale training courses conducted by the Tokyo Board of Education as well as training sessions run by each city board of education.

The Tokyo Board of Education conducted the six 3-hour sessions for elementary school English language educators during the summer vacation in 2007 and 2008. However, only one teacher from each school was allowed to attend the training courses at the Tokyo Board of Education because of the room capacity of the training facility. Each year, 1,348 teachers participated in this course. The purpose of the course was to educate

leading English teachers from each elementary school. The course was composed of various types of lectures and class demonstrations. University professors, teacher trainers at the Tokyo Board of Education, and a subject investigator at the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) gave lectures about the concept of English lessons and the roles of teachers in English classes. Participants also had an opportunity to demonstrate mock English lessons in front of other participants in a small group setting. Although participants spoke English in a limited situation, they mainly used Japanese in the training course.

The contents of in-service training courses at the Tokyo Board of Education were changed after English language education officially started at elementary schools in 2009. English training courses after 2009 were open to all elementary school teachers who were interested in English. Although the course size was still large (more than 50 teachers in each class), 11 training courses were offered for teachers at elementary schools. Unlike leading English teacher training, these courses aimed at improving teachers' English lessons and providing hints for class activities. These courses had two or three 3-hour sessions, and included many types of activities, such as classroom observation, discussion, lectures, and demonstrations. Although the courses were open to old and young elementary school teachers, only younger teachers applied for the courses and participated actively. A teacher educator at the Tokyo Board of Education was also concerned that it was not easy to find lecturers for the courses because there was a small number of experienced teachers for English language education in elementary schools.

Unlike the training courses at the Tokyo Board of Education, the in-service training courses at each city board of education were relatively small in size (fewer than

20 participants). Also, the frequency of the training sessions depended on each city board of education. There, every teacher had an opportunity to participate in formal training. Training courses at the city board of education were more flexible in terms of content and activities. Each city board of education was able to arrange the in-service training to fit their teachers' needs. For example, School District A conducted the English discussion session between Japanese teachers and native AETs to improve the Japanese teachers' English communication skills.

Although the size and frequency was different, I do not distinguish the formal training at the Tokyo Board of Education from that at the city board of education because their basic content was similar. They aimed to prepare teachers to develop a broader understanding of English language education in elementary schools. Both in-service training courses included lectures about how to teach students English, as well as activities, such as a mock lecture or a discussion with other Japanese teachers.

Table 16 shows that nearly one-third of the teachers took the formal training that was offered. Because the training was not mandatory, the length of years of teaching English did not seem to be related to the quantity of teachers' training in English. Even in School District A, less than half of the teachers (26 teachers: 43.3%) had taken an in-service training course for teaching English. In school District B, 16 teachers (21.9%) had taken in-service training.

English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS) was significantly associated ($p = .008$, $\alpha < .01$) with teachers' training experience, although their English teaching anxiety (STAS) was not significantly correlated with their formal training experience. See Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17. Correlation between English proficiency anxiety and training experience

		TFLAS
Training Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.229**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.004
	N	133

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

Table 18. Correlation between English teaching anxiety and training experience

		STAS
Training Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.124
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.078
	N	133

Teachers' formal training experience affected only anxiety with regard to their own sense of English proficiency. This is striking, because formal training, which originally aimed to develop teachers' skills in teaching English, was not associated with their anxiety about teaching English.

English tests. The MEXT recommended that secondary school English teachers take one of three English tests (TOEFL, TOEIC, or EIKEN) to certify their English proficiency. They are encouraged to verify that they achieved sufficiently high scores among those English tests (e.g., 550 for TOEFL, and 730 for TOEIC), although there is no legal enforcement. Elementary school teachers were not required to take any tests, but approximately half of the teachers (47.3%) had taken the tests. In District A, 48.3% of teachers took one of the English tests, as compared with 46.6% of the teachers in District B. I did not investigate whether or not those elementary school teachers achieved the required scores, but their responses might indicate that they tried to prepare themselves for English language education.

To test the correlation between the experience of taking an English test and a given teacher's state of anxiety, I employed a Pearson correlation coefficient at an alpha level of .05. Table 19 shows that there was a significant association ($p = .026$, $\alpha < .05$) between the experience of taking English tests and English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS). But as seen in Table, 20, no significant association between English test experience and English teaching anxiety (STAS) was found.

Table 19. Correlation between English tests and English proficiency anxiety

		TFLAS
English Tests	Pearson Correlation	-.169*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.026
	N	133

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 20. Correlation between English tests and English teaching anxiety

		STAS
English Tests	Pearson Correlation	-.142
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.051
	N	133

The result indicated that having taken English tests (TOEFL, TOEIC, and EIKEN) was only associated with reducing their English proficiency anxiety.

Travel experience in English-speaking countries. Travel experience in a target country was thought to be one factor that might play a role in changing one's level of anxiety. Aida (1994) argued that travel experience to a target language country decreased the level of anxiety. Kitano (2001), however, found the opposite result. In my own study, among all participants, 79 elementary school teachers (59.4%) had the experience of

traveling to an English-speaking country or region, such as the United States, Australia, or Guam. More than half of the teachers both in District A (63.3%) and District B (56.1%) traveled to English-speaking countries and regions. There was no significant association between travel experience and TFLAS score ($p = .261, \alpha < .05$, see Table 21) and between travel experience and STAS score ($p = .297, \alpha < .05$, see Table 22).

Table 21. Correlation between travel experience and English proficiency anxiety

		TFLAS
Travel Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.056
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.261
	N	133

Table 22. Correlation between travel experience and English teaching anxiety

		STAS
Travel Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.047
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.297
	N	133

In this study, participants' travel experience in a target-language country or a region did not affect their level of anxiety.

English proficiency levels. Japanese teachers were asked to self-assess their English proficiency. Elementary school teachers chose their level of English oral proficiency from five alternatives: (1) Greet someone, (2) Shop and order food, (3) Have a general conversation, (4) Discuss specific topics, or (5) Speak like a native speaker. Choices focused on oral skills because the MEXT required classroom teachers to introduce only oral English language instruction at the elementary school level (Butler,

2004). Reading and writing skills are not required to be taught to students. Therefore, teachers' levels of oral proficiency in English could be a crucial factor for successful English instruction. Results indicated that there was a huge imbalance among teachers' responses about their oral English proficiency (Table 23).

Table 23. Teachers' Self-Assessment of Their Oral English Proficiency

Proficiency Level	N	%
(1) Greet someone	104	78.2
(2) Shop and order food	25	18.8
(3) Have general conversation	3	2.3
(4) Discuss specific topics	1	0.8
(5) Speak like a native speaker	0	0.0

Approximately 80% of the teachers answered that they could comfortably use English only for greeting someone. Almost 96% ("Greet someone" and "Shop and order food" combined) responded that they did not have sufficient proficiency to maintain a general conversation in English.

It is no surprise, therefore, that most elementary school teachers reported themselves as being at a beginner level of English proficiency. Elementary school teachers had not taken any specific training for improving their English proficiency and did not need to use the language in their daily work. Butler (2004) conducted research about the desired level of English proficiency among Japanese elementary school teachers for teaching English. She argued that "the gap between self-assessed current and

desired levels of oral grammar was the largest” (p. 266). This study also indicated that Japanese elementary school teachers had a low level of oral proficiency in English.

Table 24 and Table 25 show that there were negatively significant associations between teachers’ English proficiency and their English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS), and between their English proficiency and their English teaching anxiety (STAS). Table 24 indicated that teachers’ self-assessed English language proficiency was significantly associated ($p = .000$, $\alpha < .01$) with their English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS).

Table 24. Correlation between English proficiency and English proficiency anxiety

			TFLAS
Spearman's rho	English Proficiency Level	Correlation Coefficient	-.330**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000
		N	133

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

As Table 25 shows, teachers’ self-assessed English proficiency was significantly related to English teaching anxiety at an alpha level of .01.

Table 25. Correlation between English proficiency and English teaching anxiety

			STAS
Spearman's rho	English Proficiency Level	Correlation Coefficient	-.351**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000
		N	133

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

In both tests, English proficiency was negatively associated with anxiety, which means that the lower their English proficiency, the more anxious teachers were about their own

English proficiency and English teaching. This result indicates that low oral proficiency in English was one of the primary causes of elementary school teachers' English anxiety.

Teachers reported that anxiety about their own oral English proficiency had an effect on their attitude toward their method of teaching. One of the teachers said, "I can't positively teach English in class because I have the disadvantage of not speaking English well." This feeling of hesitation prevented teachers from using English in front of their students. A veteran teacher confessed, "I will be embarrassed if I make a mistake in speaking English. Students may think of me as stupid. With that pressure, it is not easy to speak English." This shows that Japanese teachers are worried about the loss of their authority—that is, as teachers with inadequate levels of English proficiency.

A native AET observed their shyness from a different perspective. An American woman thought that Japanese teachers kept quiet because they pay extreme attention to a subtle difference in English expressions, such as, "I like strawberries," and, "I like a strawberry." Thus, she thought that Japanese teachers were shy toward her and afraid of having their mistakes pointed out by her. To this American observer, learning a foreign language was more fun and casual in her own experience in learning Spanish, and making mistakes was not a big issue during the process of learning a foreign language. However, Japanese teachers seemed to be extremely worried about making mistakes. She was surprised about their attitudes in this regard, and consequently stated, "From what I've seen, learning to speak English in Japan is a lot more serious." The difference of in their respective points of view toward mistakes (between Japan and the United States) seemed to add more pressure on Japanese teachers when they spoke a foreign language—namely, English.

Question #4: How do Japanese Elementary School Teachers Deal with English Anxiety?

The participants in the interviews did not clearly describe their methods of dealing with their anxiety. One male teacher did not seem to know coping techniques for anxiety and said, “I do not do anything to deal with my anxiety, currently.” However, other teachers mentioned some attempts to decrease their anxiety. As mentioned previously, the main sources of their English anxiety stemmed from their low proficiency and unfamiliarity with English language teaching. Teachers were not confident about their English pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, and did not know how to communicate in English with native AETs in situations during lessons. In addition, teachers were not sure what and how they were to teach students in English lessons because they knew that they could not perform as native AETs did.

To reduce English proficiency anxiety, other teachers tried to gain English knowledge by attending training courses. A young teacher responded that he improved his English proficiency through the training course. He said, “I think attending the course increases my English ability, but I have not been utilizing this knowledge in helping out my students, yet.” Another male teacher also described the effectiveness of participating in formal training sessions. He said that he learned useful expressions for English teacher-talk in the training, although he did not memorize those expressions correctly due to a lack of review and revision.

To reduce English teaching anxiety, teachers also tried to integrate their strength, such as their subject specialty or class management skills, into their English teaching in order to find what to teach in English and how to teach it. A veteran female teacher said,

“Because I cannot teach English as native AETs do, I try to use a different approach to teach English. My specialty is music education. I introduce a new English song every lesson and sing it with students.” Another female teacher responded, “I know my students. So, it is important for me to make activities which my students are interested in.” Those responses indicated that teachers were gradually grasping what they teach in English lessons and how they teach it. One of the teachers stated, “Recently, my anxiety has decreased. I am gradually understanding how to teach English in this school.”

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This study examined Japanese elementary school teachers' anxiety about their own English proficiency and their English teaching. Two anxiety scales (TFLAS and STAS) and interviews were used to investigate their anxiety levels and coping techniques. Several findings have emerged. A considerable number of teachers felt anxiety about their own English proficiency and about teaching English. They lacked confidence in their ability to speak correctly in English. It was lack of training and experience that primarily provoked this anxiety. The discussion section will consider these findings.

English Anxiety among Japanese Elementary School Teachers

I anticipated that teachers' lack of training, lack of textbooks, and working with native English speakers might make them anxious. Although lack of training was a source of their anxiety, the remainder of these factors (lack of textbooks, and working with native English speakers) did not contribute to high anxiety among Japanese teachers. In the Situational Teaching Anxiety Scale (STAS), teachers' responses to the two items – “I feel nervous when I do not have specific English teaching materials,” and “I feel comfortable when I teach English with a native speaker” – did not support the view that lack of textbooks and working with native English speakers were sources of their anxiety.

Although textbooks are mandatory in Japanese secondary school English education, teachers mainly use songs, games, and physical activities for communication in elementary schools. Butler (2004) stated that emphasizing oral instruction “may reflect the Japanese government's policy requiring that only oral English language instruction be

introduced at the elementary school level” (p. 266). Study of letters and words are put aside in English lessons. Of course, teachers also taught numbers and names of animals in English, but in that case, Japanese elementary school teachers tended to create their own teaching materials. A veteran female teacher complained about the supplementary English material, *English Notebook*, which was published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) because it did not include enough visuals. She said, “It has a picture of (a) banana, but when I ask students a question about their favorite fruits, not all students like bananas. Thus, I have to make other picture cards by myself.” For elementary English education in Japan, textbooks did not seem to be essential materials because teachers made cards and handouts for students, depending on their needs for their lessons. Therefore, lack of textbooks was not a strong source of anxiety.

Surprisingly, the item about working with native assistant English teachers (AETs) received one of the lowest anxiety responses from Japanese teachers. Although teachers were anxious about speaking English with native AETs, they valued the native speakers’ influence on their students’ English. Their commitment to teaching seemed to override their own anxiety.

To improve students’ English communication skills, teachers wanted students to be willing to use any form of English, even ungrammatical forms or single words, although the teachers themselves rarely tried to speak English in class. A young male teacher stated, “I always tell students to try to speak English, but to myself, I do not have much courage.” All the teachers had interesting anecdotes about their previous communication in English. One young teacher wanted to let a native teacher know about

school emergency (earthquake) drills, but she did not know how to say it in English. Then, she said, “I wobbled a desk, said ‘Oh!’ hid under the desk, and covered my head with blanket. Then, the native AET understood me.” Before experiencing communicative success, Japanese teachers seemed to think that perfectly grammatical sentences and sufficient vocabulary were prerequisites for accomplishing English communication. However, a successful communication experience would help teachers realize the importance of non-verbal messages and positive attitudes with regard to communication.

Teachers wanted to share their experiences and to let students know how effectively they could communicate with other people in English by using these communication strategies. Some teachers talked to students about their embarrassing tales of communication in their past experience, which eventually became success stories. They appeared to apply their experience toward encouraging their students to communicate with native English speakers in a positive way. Teachers wanted to encourage students to speak English with native speakers and to succeed in English class because they thought it was a place to learn how, not only to speak English, but also to experience the joy of communication. Japanese teachers seemed to think that working with native AETs could bring more opportunities for students to experience this joy. However, paradoxically, they were not willing to do it themselves.

Two Kinds of Anxiety

The surveys and interviews with elementary school teachers revealed that two kinds of anxiety might be recognized, depending on teachers’ English teaching experience: first-phase anxiety and second-phase anxiety. First-phase anxiety stemmed

from their unfamiliarity with English language education. Although Japanese teachers tackled the difficulty of English language education on a weekly basis, most teachers had a negative impression about teaching English before English was officially begun in elementary schools. Japanese teachers reported that they were reluctant to teach English because they did not have positive feelings about their own English learning in school. Their negative experience of learning grammar and vocabulary prevented them from actively engaging in communicative English education. Also, they were worried about their English proficiency because they were not confident about speaking English like native speakers. Therefore, Japanese teachers were nervous and uncertain about teaching English at the beginning of their English teaching. This provoked the first-phase anxiety among teachers.

However, Japanese homeroom teachers realized that they did not need to speak English like native English speakers to teach students once English language education started, and when they were teaching on their own, Japanese teachers tended to use Japanese for explanation and instruction of each activity. Speaking Japanese made them comfortable teaching students in class. It also helped students understand some basic English ideas. Even in a team teaching situation with a native AET, Japanese teachers did not speak English for instruction because native AETs led the students and spoke to them in English. At this stage, their first-phase anxiety seemed to decrease because they came to understand that teaching English had nothing to do with their negative English learning experience and that they were not required to speak English like a native speaker.

However, as Japanese teachers worked with native AETs who could not speak Japanese, they gradually found that they needed to speak English for the management of

English lessons. Second-phase anxiety appeared at this stage. Homeroom teachers had to communicate with native English counterparts for meetings and for quick changes in plans during lessons. Talking about details of each lesson and fixing plans during on-going situations in English could be much more difficult than teaching English to students. Japanese teachers might not expect that complicated English communication skills would be required of them before English teaching was instituted. Although the MEXT gave them teaching materials and sample teaching plans, those materials alone did not help Japanese teachers convey their lesson ideas effectively to native AETs. Those materials and sample plans had neither any flexibility nor any useful hints for Japanese teachers to enhance communication with native AETs about lessons. There seems to be a huge gap between job expectation and reality. Japanese teachers had to use English—not for teaching students but for discussing teaching plans and instructing native AETs. Unfortunately, most elementary school teachers did not have sufficient command of English to complete this. A young female teacher illustrated their struggles. She said, “I have many things to ask our native AET to do in class, but I cannot convey my thoughts to her in English.” This struggle generated second-phase anxiety. The two kinds of anxiety appeared to operate continually.

The Effects of Difference between the Two School Districts

The data were collected from two different districts (A and B). I expected that the difference in English teaching experience and in support from each school board of education between the two districts would have an effect on the levels of anxiety among teachers. However, a significant difference was found only in the level of English

teaching anxiety (STAS) among teachers. There was no difference in terms of English proficiency anxiety (TFLAS) between teachers in the two districts.

Of course, as researchers (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002) have argued, experience was an important factor in decreasing teachers' anxiety levels. Teachers in District A had more English teaching experience and a lower level of teaching anxiety than teachers in District B. However, other than experience, teachers in District A had huge practical advantages, such as a large supply of teaching materials and help from English coordinators, to prepare for English lessons.

Here, I would like to discuss the difference in practical support between the two districts as a source of their anxiety. It is no surprise that teachers tackling an unfamiliar subject could reduce the load if a city board of education provided sufficient materials and support in the process of preparing for and teaching English. One of the teachers in District A stated that English coordinators provided teaching plans for team-teaching lessons every time. Japanese teachers used the provided ideas as hints to make their solo-teaching plans. Therefore, homeroom teachers did not need to create ideas for English lessons from scratch, which was extremely helpful for homeroom teachers, and reduced their burden of preparation. In addition, the city board of education in District A regularly conducted in-service training courses for Japanese teachers to improve their English teaching skills at each school. English coordinators provided handouts for teachers and gave instructions about how to teach English during after-school training periods.

Conversely, teachers in District B had difficulties in preparing for lessons for an unfamiliar subject. A young teacher stated in the interview that she was worried because she did not have sufficient ideas and materials to teach English due to a lack of

experience. Another teacher emphasized that she spent five hours to prepare for each English lesson. It would be a huge burden for elementary school teachers to spend so many hours for preparation for only one subject—which is taught 45 minutes weekly—because they teach not only English but also other subjects. In addition, teachers did not have sufficient preparation time with their native English teachers. They had only 10 minutes to talk with them about their next lesson. Given some financial constraints, the city board of education in District B could not secure enough meeting time between Japanese teachers and native AETs in the contract with a private English conversation company. Thus, teachers had to work with native teachers without adequate consultation time. Also, the city board of education had not conducted in-service elementary teacher training courses for English at the time I interviewed teachers in District B. Therefore, teachers in District B had less support and less training from the city board of education, which plausibly led to more pressure on teachers in elementary schools.

The difference between the support systems of the two school districts apparently affected the teachers' attitude toward teaching English. One of the reasons that teachers in District B had significantly higher levels of anxiety about teaching English seemed to stem from this difference. If teachers were required to spend much time for preparation for English lessons without any support, they could easily lose their motivation to teach English, which is undesirable. One veteran teacher confessed, "It took me five hours to prepare for English lessons. I wonder why I had to spend so much energy for English. With that question, I am losing my passion to teach English." Because of the English burden, she regretted that she accepted the offer to teach 6th grade students. Another teacher said, "I prepare for lessons, but I do not feel any interest in English. So, I think

few students enjoy the feeling of accomplishment in English lessons.” As a result, it could be expected that students would have less of a chance to improve their English ability when working with unmotivated teachers. However, it depends on educational policy and the financial status of each city board of education to decide what kind of teacher support system was needed for English language education. To improve the quality of English lessons and to reduce teachers’ anxiety about teaching English, sufficient support from each city board of education appears essential. Each city board of education should actively engage in supporting inexperienced teachers in order to reduce their anxiety about teaching English. This would ultimately ensure better English language education for students.

Teacher Characteristics

Gender. No conclusion about whether or not gender significantly correlated with anxiety was reached in this study. Gender was not a critical factor in provoking anxiety. Previous studies have indicated that language learning could affect either gender to produce anxiety. For example, Pappamihel (2002) claimed that girls tended to be more anxious when using English than boys. Kitano (2001) argued that male college students of Japanese had higher levels of anxiety than females. For teachers, although science subjects, such as math and science, had an effect only on female teachers’ level of teaching anxiety (Chou, 2003, and Morton et al., 1997), language teaching seems not to have created a significant difference between genders in terms of anxiety, but the reason for this is not clear. One of the possible explanations might be that both genders sensitively reacted to the curriculum change in this initial period because English

language education had just started at elementary schools. Both male and female teachers had fairly high levels of anxiety about teaching English. To investigate the gender difference, further research would be needed after English language education had been successfully embedded in the elementary school curriculum.

Years of teaching experience. The length of teaching experience at elementary schools affected only teachers' anxiety about their own English proficiency. There was no significant correlation between their English teaching anxiety and years of teaching experience. This result was very interesting because it showed that longer teaching experience as an elementary school teacher developed teachers' confidence toward knowledge of an unfamiliar subject. Teachers might have learned how to cultivate their confidence to gain knowledge of unfamiliar subjects through their working experience. Japanese elementary school teachers had gone through several curriculum changes over a period of ten years (2000-2010). The MEXT changed the National Curriculum several times and introduced new subjects (Living Environment Studies and the Period for Integrated Studies) into elementary schools in 2002. Living Environment Studies is a subject only for 1st and 2nd grade students—to help them understand local places and nature in their environment context. Integrated Studies includes four areas of studies (international understanding, information, environment, and welfare/health), and each school chose one area and encouraged students to understand the area through activities. These were completely new subjects and no teachers had experience in teaching them. Elementary school teachers had already experienced difficulties in coping with these new subjects before they had to deal with English language education. It is possible that they learned how to cope with new subjects through these experiences. Experienced teachers

seemed to be accustomed to teaching unfamiliar subjects, which gave them confidence. They could apply a similar technique in order to adjust to teaching English. Thus, teachers with longer experience at elementary schools had lower levels of anxiety about their own proficiency than relatively new teachers. Perhaps their previous experience as elementary school teachers strengthened their tolerance for an unfamiliar subject, English.

English teaching experience. The study revealed that teachers with English teaching experience felt less anxious when they themselves taught the target language. As researchers (e.g., Ameen et al., 2002) have argued, teaching experience in the target subject was one of the primary factors in decreasing the level of anxiety. The finding in this study supports previous studies. Interestingly, even negative teaching experience also contributed to lowering their anxiety. Experience made teachers realize what roles they would play in English lessons and how they should teach along with native AETs. Thus, teachers could easily visualize what the English lessons were all about. For teachers who had first-phase teaching anxiety, English teaching experience appeared to be essential to remove their uncertainty and to decrease their teaching anxiety.

Although English teaching experience was effective in lessening their anxiety about teaching English, Japanese teachers were still anxious about working with native AETs. The requirement for English communication skills and working with pedagogically less-qualified native English speakers annoyed Japanese homeroom teachers when they taught English in a team-teaching setting. Regarding English communication, Japanese teachers understood the importance of collaboration with native English teachers. They also knew that constant interaction with native AETs for some changes during the lesson would be necessary for producing effective lessons.

However, as they responded in interviews, teachers did not know how to communicate with native speakers in English. Many teachers could not take a step toward effective communication with native English speakers due to lack of experience and confidence. In addition, under the present circumstances, it could not be expected that each school had native AETs who were able to speak Japanese. I visited 19 elementary schools in this study, and there were no native AETs with Japanese proficiency. Therefore, Japanese teachers were required to learn useful expressions for effective communication with native AETs. Through learning useful phrases, they might let native speakers know about their teaching plans and students' behavior. Also, with useful English expressions, they could cope with sudden changes in teaching plans during the lesson. In the meantime, Japanese teachers need to improve their English communicative competence by attending in-service training. However, for the purpose of further development of English language education in elementary schools, not only Japanese teachers but also native AETs will be required to improve mutual language abilities between Japanese and English for better communication, which ought to diminish English teaching anxiety among Japanese teachers.

Working with less-qualified native speakers was another source of anxiety among Japanese homeroom teachers. As Braine (2010) argued, Japanese administrators preferred unqualified native AETs to qualified local teachers because they wanted stereotyped American-looking teachers. Due to growing demands for native English speakers at Japanese elementary schools, it was no surprise that native English speakers who had no teaching experience and lack of sufficient knowledge about Japanese schools were sent to schools as English teachers. This problem appeared to be thought of not as a

regional problem but as a nationwide problem in Japan. Especially in the current (2008-11) tight economy, local governments or city boards of education have tried to restrain spending for English language education. In most cases (81.5% in 2008) in Tokyo, they signed a contract with private English conversation companies or individuals with the cheapest annual bid. As a result, pedagogically less-qualified native English speakers were sent to schools as English teachers. Japanese teachers requested that the city board of education should hire native English speakers with a certain level of quality within their district. Teachers wanted to work with native English speakers who had sufficient teaching skills. One teacher said in an interview, “We need native English speakers who understand English language education in Japanese elementary schools.” Another claimed that she wanted to work with a specific native speaker constantly throughout the year. That is because English conversation companies happened to send different native English speakers to one school every term. Also, many Japanese teachers appealed for native English speakers with Japanese proficiency. However, these problems could not be solved by individual teachers or schools. Local governments or city boards of education should take the initiative to find solutions. They should change their preferences and think about the quality of assistant English teachers, which would help reduce anxiety among Japanese elementary school teachers.

Formal training. Interestingly, my results were not consistent with the hypothesis that formal training would have an effect on teachers’ English teaching anxiety. Whether teachers had formal training affected only their anxiety about their own English proficiency. There was no correlation between formal training experience and English teaching anxiety. I originally thought that training was planned to improve their

teaching skills because they would gain knowledge about how to teach English by taking in-service training. However, in-service training seemed to have more impact on their ideas about English proficiency and to release teachers from the pressure they felt about the perceived necessity of speaking like native English speakers. In-service training conducted by both the Tokyo Board of Education and a city board of education included teaching demonstrations and English speaking activities. Through those activities, teachers understood that speaking English fluently and perfectly was not necessarily essential for them to communicate with native AETs in English. Rather, they learned the importance of non-verbal messages and positive attitudes toward communication when they participated in formal training. Some teachers stated that a successful English communication experience opened their eyes and reduced the pressure with regard to feeling that they had to speak English in the same way as native speakers. Horwitz (1996) argued, “Language teachers who pursue an idealized level of proficiency are likely to experience anxiety over their own levels of competency no matter how accomplished they are as second language speakers” (p. 367). Formal training could give teachers opportunities to gain confidence that they could use to communicate with others in English through non-verbal and other methods, which lowered their anxiety about their English proficiency.

English tests. The results indicated that teachers who took one or more English tests (TOEFL, TOEIC, or EIKEN) had significantly lower anxiety about their own English proficiency. However, taking tests did not seem to cause lower levels of anxiety because taking tests, such as TOEFL and TOEIC, was an intra-personal, computer-mediated activity. Instead, only teachers with lower levels of anxiety might take those

English tests. Unlike junior and senior high school English teachers, elementary school teachers were not required to take those tests to verify their English proficiency. Fees for those tests were expensive, for example, \$200 for TOEFL and 5,985 yen (approximately \$70) for TOEIC. Each test took more than three hours to complete. If teachers did not have sufficient motivation, they might not spend so much time and money in evaluating their own levels of English proficiency. Although many teachers did not have enough time for studying English, they reported that they wanted to improve their English. Their confidence about English and their strong motivation to improve their English appeared to encourage them to take those tests. However, approximately half of the teachers (47.3%) took the tests, which indicated that increasingly more elementary school teachers were trying to improve their English proficiency to prepare for teaching English.

Travel experience. Approximately 60% of the teachers had travel experience in an English-speaking country or region. Unlike previous studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Kitano, 2001), this study did not show any correlation between travel experience and their level of anxiety. One of the differences between this study and previous studies was the length of their stay in the target country. Most elementary school teachers visited an English-speaking country as a short (less than a week) trip, which meant Japanese public school teachers were not able to take more than seven days off during their summer or winter vacations. Both Aida and Kitano investigated anxiety among college students studying Japanese in the U.S. They did not mention how long students stayed in the target country (in this case, Japan), but it seemed that they stayed in the country for a certain period of time as exchange students or travelers. Kitano described those students as “people who had actually been to Japan and believed that they were expected to be more proficient

than those who had never been to Japan” (p. 85). Therefore, a certain period of time in a target country or region seemed to be needed to have some effects on a person’s target language proficiency. A short stay in an English country would not contribute toward significantly improving an elementary school teacher’s English proficiency, which could consequently have no positive effect with regard to their level of anxiety.

English proficiency levels. The study supported previous research that found that anxiety decreased as a person’s proficiency in a target language increased (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977; Pappamiheil, 2002). Although only 3.1% of elementary school teachers felt that they could hold an English conversation, the result indicated that teachers with a sufficient level of English ability tended to be less anxious about their own proficiency and teaching English.

In this study many Japanese teachers reported themselves as being at a beginner level of English proficiency. Of course, lack of training and opportunities to speak English might be one cause of this, but Japanese socio-cultural pressure could prevent teachers from improving their English proficiency through using English in class. In Japanese culture, teachers were thought of as authority figures with regard to knowledge about school subjects. As Benedict (1946) argued,

If he teaches English on the basis of only a few years’ school instruction, nevertheless he cannot admit that anyone might be able to correct him. It is specifically to this kind of defensiveness that ‘*giri* associated with one’s name as a teacher’ refers. (p. 152) (*Giri* is a specific Japanese idea and indicates one’s pride which should be protected from any imputation.)

Much more recently, Asai and Kameoka (2007) supported Benedict's view toward Japanese self-defensiveness and claimed that Japanese people were "particularly worried about failing or making mistakes in front of others" (p. 182) because of public embarrassment. Fear of losing face appeared to make teachers nervous about speaking English in front of students. In other subjects that were taught in Japanese, Japanese teachers were comfortable with speaking in front of students and had confidence about teaching in the manner of being authority figures. However, in English class, teachers seemed to lose confidence, especially when working with native AETs, even if they were not forced to speak English in class. As many researchers (e.g., Tang, 1997) claim, non-native English teachers felt a strong sense of inferiority about their target language ability in comparison to native English teachers. Japanese teachers might not appear fluent or lively next to native speakers. They seemed to be afraid of humiliation, which blocked them from using English—even simple English expressions—in front of students.

Anxiety Coping Strategies

For both English proficiency anxiety and English teaching anxiety, teachers attempted to minimize their anxiety by using certain strategies. For anxious teachers, participating in in-service training seemed to be effective in reducing their anxiety about their own state of English proficiency. Apparently, teachers who took part in formal training significantly decreased their level of anxiety in this study. In addition, teachers admitted during interviews the effectiveness of formal training. However, for English teaching anxiety, no prevailing strategies were found among teachers. Of course, there were a few teachers who successfully found strategies to cope with their anxiety about

teaching English. One teacher integrated her specialty (music education) into English lessons and positively engaged in English language education. Another teacher applied her knowledge about her homeroom students to creating activities to inspire students' interests in English when she taught English on her own. However, only a few teachers made an effort to decrease their English teaching anxiety through finding their own strategies. As represented by a young male teacher who stated, "I do not do anything to deal with my anxiety, currently," most teachers did not seek to develop effective strategies to deal with their anxiety.

Realistically, it might not be possible for busy teachers to spend more time in developing their own strategies to reduce their anxiety about teaching English. As I discussed above, they had already spent a considerable amount of time to prepare for only 45 minutes of English per week. As Morton et al. (1997) argued, elementary school teachers have to cope with "greater pedagogy demands" (p. 81), not only to teach varieties of subjects, but also to take care of younger students. Because of time limitations, it appeared to be impossible for teachers to develop their own strategies for individually reducing teaching anxiety. Instead, the city board of education or higher educational institutions should take the lead in helping teachers develop teaching strategies. Coping techniques and strategies should be integrated into in-service training courses. Therefore, each city board of education has to actively engage in supporting teachers to allay their teaching anxieties. Researchers (e.g., Horwitz, 1996; Liu, 2008) have suggested several coping techniques for anxious teachers. Those ideas should be included in future training for teachers.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion

Educational Implications

English anxiety among elementary school teachers arises not only from personal but also from situational and bureaucratic sources. Under those circumstances, the important idea for teachers is that Japanese teachers need to deal with two phases of teaching anxiety once they start to teach English. First-phase anxiety comes from uncertainty about necessary procedures for English lessons, and second-phase anxiety is based on a perceived lack of English communication skills in managing the English class. Currently, only 5th and 6th grade students study English at school, and their homeroom teachers are in charge of teaching English and working with native assistant English teachers (AETs). However, every elementary school teacher will be required to teach upper grade students sometime in their teaching careers. Also, each teacher has to change schools every three to four years. Once they teach 5th or 6th graders, teaching English will be a part of their teaching jobs. Understanding these two phases of anxiety is of great importance for new or less experienced teachers when they approach teaching English.

To allay their first-phase anxiety, teachers need to understand what role they are expected to play in an English class. New or less experienced teachers will be able to obtain information about foreign language lessons by observing English lessons or talking with experienced teachers. In this study, less experienced teachers tended to be overwhelmed by lack of information about English lessons. They were nervous because they thought that they were expected to speak like native English speakers. Also, they did not have enough knowledge about materials and activities for English lessons. In addition,

their negative experience in learning English at school seemed to prevent them from actively engaging in English language education. They were uncertain what English language education was all about. Understanding the requirements of English lessons helps new or less experienced teachers reduce their anxiety about these types of uncertainty. Teachers must be made aware that they do not have to cope by themselves with their first-phase anxiety.

In this study, less experienced teachers voluntarily worked with other teachers to learn the requirements of English lessons in a separate meeting after school. As Horwitz (1996) argued, “Teachers who are willing to express their feelings of anxiety to a friend may find support and possibly a fellow sufferer” (p. 368). Teachers should recognize that they are not the only ones who are anxious about teaching English. Understanding their roles in English lessons will diminish their first-phase anxiety.

For second-phase anxiety, teachers need to improve their English communication skills, which means not only verbal skills but also non-verbal skills. To manage English classes effectively, Japanese teachers are required to be able to communicate their ideas to native AETs in various situations. Currently it seems hopelessly unrealistic for each city board of education to hire native AETs who can speak Japanese because Japanese language proficiency is not mandatory for native English speakers who apply for teaching positions in elementary schools. Even the largest native English teacher program in Japan, the Japan Exchange and Teaching program (JET), which is supported by the Japanese government, does not require applicants to have Japanese language proficiency. Nonetheless, Japanese teachers are required to use English for consultation with native AETs about class-related topics. Homeroom teachers need to inform native AETs about

lessons plans or student behavior. Also, they have to deal with quick changes in lesson plans to meet students' needs during class. However, teachers in this study tended to keep away from native AETs, even in the teachers' room, because they were not confident about English communication. Having daily smooth communication with native AETs can help Japanese teachers deal with difficulties in team teaching. Elementary school teachers should work closely with native AETs to build mutual understanding and share information about lessons and students with their native AETs. They do not necessarily need to speak English like a native speaker, because native AETs understand their general English proficiency level. Horwitz (1996) claimed, "Giving ourselves permission to be less than perfect speakers of the target language" (p. 368) is essential for teachers. Therefore, a positive attitude toward English communication with native AETs should be fostered and could contribute to helping homeroom teachers manage their lessons successfully.

Conclusion

The topic of teaching anxiety for non-native language teachers is relatively new in the field of Second Language Studies. In Japan in particular, teachers have long concealed weaknesses, such as anxiety, to maintain their self-respect, due to defensiveness (Benedict, 1946) associated with *giri*. However, a new wave of English language education seems to be breaking down the wall of their defensiveness and giving them opportunities to express their anxiety. This study revealed that high percentages of elementary school teachers were anxious about both their own English proficiency and teaching English. The sources of anxiety include lack of experience and training for

teaching English and lack of confidence regarding English communication. Teachers need to cope with two kinds of anxiety continuously while teaching English. When they were new to teaching English, teachers tended to be overwhelmed by uncertainty in English language education. Japanese teachers seemed to have unrealistically high expectations for themselves and to worry that they had to speak like native English speakers, which provoked the first phase of anxiety. Once they had experienced teaching English, they understood that they did not need higher English proficiency, because Japanese teachers were expected to help students understand lessons in Japanese. At this point, their first-phase anxiety decreased gradually. However, owing to their responsibility for managing English lessons, teachers were required to discuss teaching plans and students' behaviors with native AETs in English. Also, they often encountered moments when they had to interact with a native AET for a quick change of plans during lessons. The acknowledgment of this need for higher English proficiency provoked the second phase of anxiety among teachers. In addition, working with pedagogically less-qualified native AETs troubled homeroom teachers and made it difficult for them to cope with their anxiety. Because of these difficulties, many teachers persistently requested that full-time English teaching specialists be assigned in their schools. Some teachers did not want to be involved in English language education in elementary schools. At the same time, there were other teachers who actively engaged in teaching English. They tended to think that improving their own English proficiency would be essential for their students. Those teachers were willing to attend training courses for English and even wanted opportunities to study English conversation at foreign institutions during their summer

vacation. The gap in English language education between positive teachers and negative teachers was very large among Japanese elementary school teachers.

My findings also suggest that teaching experience and formal training are effective in decreasing teachers' English anxiety. Their teaching experience as elementary school teachers and formal training experience worked successfully to diminish their anxiety about their own levels of English proficiency. Teachers had been going through national curriculum changes for the previous 10 years and had learned to cope with unfamiliar subjects. Teachers gained coping strategies and seemed to apply their previous experience to teaching a new subject. Formal training was another remedy for English proficiency anxiety. Although training is generally thought to improve teachers' teaching skills, in-service training had an effect on attitudes toward English proficiency because teachers experienced successful English communication with others in the formal training. Teachers realized the importance of non-verbal messages and simple words for successful communication. By gaining some confidence in their English communication, teachers diminished their anxiety levels with regard to their own English proficiency.

The experience of teaching the target language seemed to be most effective in reducing English teaching anxiety. Interestingly, even negative teaching experience diminished the level of anxiety. Most teachers in this study reacted negatively to English language education and thought of English as a burden or an extra load in their work. However, English teaching experience helped teachers understand the content of English lessons. Being able to visualize English lessons seemed to decrease their anxiety levels because English was no longer such an uncertain subject. In this study I compared

teachers' anxiety levels in two school districts. Differences in English teaching experience led to a significant difference between levels of anxiety among teachers, but bureaucratic factors also seemed to affect their levels of anxiety. In one school district, teachers did not receive sufficient support, such as materials and training, from the city board of education because of its tight budget. They did not have even adequate consultation time with native AETs. The difference in the extent of support could affect teachers' motivation toward English language education, obviously not a desirable situation. Not only teachers' individual efforts but also support from the city board of education seemed to be equally essential in reducing English teaching anxiety. Without proper bureaucratic support, teachers had to deal with more difficult conditions.

This study did not find uniform coping strategies or techniques among elementary school teachers. Some teachers developed strategies to overcome the difficulties by using their own particular strengths. Others actively participated in training courses to reduce their anxiety by improving their individual English communication skills. However, most teachers were too busy to think about strategies coping with their anxiety for only 45-minute lessons per week. Thus, local governments or city boards of education should take the lead in providing ideas and strategies for teachers in order to create a less stressful teaching environment. Before I conducted this study, I did not expect such an impact by the city board of education on English anxiety among elementary school teachers. This study reveals that there were many policies the city board of education could have enacted to diminish teachers' anxiety. Although it is an individual teacher who teaches English and tackles various difficulties, each city board of education can help teachers

cope with their anxiety by making their working environment better suited to reducing unnecessary levels of anxiety about teaching English.

The present findings offer an interesting basis for further research. English anxiety among elementary school teachers has rarely been discussed. In addition to their superficial sources, structural causes should be included to fully understand their collective and individual levels of anxiety. English language education in Japanese elementary schools has just begun for 5th and 6th grade students. It may take some time for teachers to adjust to teaching a new subject. Also, approximately two-thirds of elementary teachers still have not experienced teaching English because teachers who are in charge of students between the 1st and 4th grades do not officially have to teach English lessons. The issue of anxiety about teaching English among Japanese elementary school teachers is an area of study that seems certain to be a topic for continuing discussion and research well into the foreseeable future.

References

- Abowitz, D. A., & Toole, T. M. (2010). Mixed method research: Fundamental issues of design, validity, and reliability in construction research. *Journal of Construction Engineering & Management*, 136, 108-116.
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-168.
- Ameen, E. C., Guffey, D. M., & Jackson, C. (2002). Evidence of teaching anxiety among accounting educators. *Journal of Education for Business*, 16-22.
- Asai, M., & Kameoka, V. (2007). *Sekentei* and Family Caregiving of Elders Among the Japanese: Development and Psychometric Evaluation of the *Sekentei* Scale. *Journal of Gerontology*, 3, 179-193.
- Baugher, J. E., & Roberts, J. T. (2004). Workplace hazards, unions, and copying styles. *Labor Studies Journal*, 29, 83-106.
- Bekleyen, N. (2009). Helping teachers become better English students: Causes, effects, and coping strategies for foreign language listening anxiety. *System*, 37, 664-675.
- Benedict, R. (1946). *Chrysanthemum and the sword: Patterns of Japanese culture*. New York: Meridian Books.
- Benesse Educational Research and Development Center (BERDC). (2007). *Dai-1-kai shogakko eigo-ni kansuru kihon chousa*. [The 1st survey about English education at elementary schools]. Retrieved December 7, 2009, from http://benesse.jp/berd/center/open/report/syo_eigo/hogosya/index.html

- Bernstein, D. A. (1983). Dealing with teacher anxiety: A personal view. *Journal of the National Association of Colleges and Teachers of Agriculture*, 4-7.
- Bialystok, E. (1985). The compatibility of teaching and learning strategies. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 255-262.
- Blöte, A. W., Kint, M. W., Miers, A. C., & Westenberg, P. M. (2008). The relation between public speaking anxiety and social anxiety: A review. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 23, 305-313.
- Braine, G. (2010). *Nonnative speaker English teachers*. New York: Routledge.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *The principles of language learning and teaching*. NY: Pearson Education Inc.
- Brown, L., & Holloway, I. (2008). The adjustment journey of international postgraduate students at an English university: An ethnographic study. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 7, 232-249.
- Butler, Y. G., & Iino, M. (2005). Current Japanese reforms in English language education: The 2003 “action plan.” *Language Policy*, 4, 25-45.
- Butler, Y.G. (2008). *Nihon-no shogakko eigo-o kangaeru: Ajia-no shiten-karano kensho-to teigenn* [English language education in Japanese elementary schools: Analyses and suggestions based on East Asian perspectives] (in Japanese). Tokyo: Sansedo.
- Butler, Y. G. (2005). Comparative perspectives towards communicative activities among elementary school teachers in South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan. *Language Teaching Research*, 9, 423-446.

- Butler, Y. G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary school teachers need to attain to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38, 245-278.
- Campbell, D. (1974, September). *Qualitative knowing in action research*. Kurt Lewin Award Address, Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, New Orleans, LA.
- Carr, L. T. (1994). The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research: What method for nursing? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 20, 716-721.
- Chamot, A. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112-130.
- Chou, C. (2003). Incidences and correlates of Internet anxiety among high school teachers in Taiwan. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 19, 731-749.
- Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, 49, 417-446.
- Coates, T. J., & Thoresen, C. E. (1976). Teacher anxiety: A review with recommendations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46, 159-184.
- Committee of Superintendent of City Board of Education in Tokyo. (2009). Report of implementation status about English language education in elementary schools and junior high schools.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Daley, C. E. (1998). Anxiety about foreign language among students in French, Spanish, and German classes. *Psychological Reports*, 82, 1007-1010.

- Davis, K. D. (2007). The academic librarian instructor: A study of teacher anxiety. *College & Undergraduate Libraries, 14*, 77-101.
- Doyal, G. T., & Forsyth, R. A. (1973). The relationship between teacher and student anxiety levels. *Psychology in the Schools, 10*, 231-233.
- Dropkin, S., & Taylor, M. (1963). Perceived problems of beginning teachers and related factors. *Journal of Teacher Education, 14*, 384-390.
- Duffy, M. E., (1995). Designing nursing research: The qualitative-quantitative debate. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 10*, 225-232.
- ETS. (2009). TOEFL® Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL Internet-based and Paper-based Tests: 2008 Test Data. *TOEFL Research*. Retrieved December 15, 2009 from http://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/TOEFL/pdf/test_score_data_summary_2008.pdf
- Frantzen, D., & Magnan, S. S. (2005). Anxiety and the true beginner-false beginner dynamic in beginning French and Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals, 38*, 171-190.
- Fukuyama, (2008, October 13). Shuken-zaikai de eigo giraini [Business world-centered ideas makes students dislike English]. *Asahi Shimbun Extra Report and Analysis, 21*, 35-37.
- Gardner, L. E., & Leak, G. K. (1994). Characteristics and correlates of teaching anxiety among college psychology teachers. *Teaching of Psychology, 21*, 28-32.
- Gardner, R., & MacIntyre, P. (1993). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching, 26*, 1-11.

- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., & Brunet, G. R. (1977). Intensive Second language study: Effects on attitudes, motivation and French achievement. *Language Learning, 27*, 243-261.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gaudry, E., Vagg, P., & Spielberger, C. D. (1975). Validation of the state-trait distinction in anxiety research. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 10*, 331-341.
- Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 562-570.
- Greis, N. (1985). Toward a better preparation of the non-native ESOL teacher. In *On TESOL '84: Selected paper from the 18th Annual Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp. 317-324). Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Gresham, G. (2007). A study of mathematics anxiety in pre-service teachers. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 35*, 181-188.
- Hara, K. (1995). Quantitative and qualitative research approaches in education. *Education, 115*, 351-355.
- Hart, N. I. (1987). Student teachers' anxieties: Four measured factors and their relationships to pupil disruption in class. *Educational Research, 29*, 12-18.
- Hicks, F. R. (1934). *The mental health of teachers*. Nashville, TN: George Peabody College for Teachers.
- Horwitz, E. K. (2008). *Becoming a language teacher: A practical guide to second language learning and teaching*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Horwitz, E. K. (2000). It ain't over 'til it's over: On foreign language anxiety, first language deficits, and the confounding of variables. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84, 256-259.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1996). Even teachers get the blues: Recognizing and alleviating language teachers' feelings of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 365-372.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72, 283-294.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, A. J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.
- Katalin, P. (2006). Foreign language classroom anxiety: A classroom perspective. *University of Pécs Roundtable 2006: Empirical Studies in English Applied Linguistics*, 39-58.
- Kim, S. (2004). When and how to resolve language issues of nonnative-English-speaking teachers-in-preparation in TESOL programs. *NNEST Newsletter*, 6. Retrieved on September 10, 2010 from http://www.tesol.org//s_tesol/sec_issue.asp?nid=2982&iid=2984&sid=1
- Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the college Japanese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85, 549-566.
- Koba, N., Ogawa, N., & Wilkinson, D. (2000). Using the community language learning approach to cope with language anxiety. *The Internet TESL Journal*. Retrieved on December 15, 2009 from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Koba-CLL.html>

- Kondo, D. S., & Yang, Y. L. (2004). Strategies for coping with language anxiety: The case of students of English in Japan. *ELT Journal*, 58, 258-265.
- Kondo, S., & Yang, Y. L. (2002). Daigakusei wo taishou to shita eigofuanshakudo no sakusei to sono kento [The English language classroom anxiety scale: Test construction, reliability, and validity]. *JALT Journal*, 25, 187-196.
- Krathwohl, D. R. (2004). *Methods of educational and social science research: Second edition*. Long Grove, IL. Waveland Press, Inc.
- Little, G. D., & Sanders, S. L. (1989). Classroom community: A prerequisite for communication. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22, 277-281.
- Liu, F. (2008). Impact on online discussion on elementary teacher candidates' anxiety toward teaching mathematics. *Education*, 128, 614-629.
- Lucas, T., & Grinberg, J. (2008). Responding to the linguistic reality of mainstream classrooms. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D. J. McIntyre, & K. E. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts, Third edition* (pp. 606-636). NY: Routedledge.
- 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.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 296-304.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39, 251-275.

- Madsen, H. S., Brown, B., L., & Jones, R. L. (1991). Evaluating student attitudes toward second language tests. In E. K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 65-86). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Marcos-Llinás, M., & Garau, M. J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42, 94-111.
- McCoy, I. R. (1979). Means to overcome the anxieties of second language learners. *Language Annals*, 12, 185-189.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), Japan. (2008). *Shougakou gakushu shidou yoryo* [Course of study for elementary school education]. Retrieved December 7, 2009, from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/_icsFiles/afie/ldfile/2009/04/21/1261037_12.pdf
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), Japan. (2003). Action Plan to Cultivate “Japanese with English Abilities.” Retrieved April 18, 2010, from <http://www.mext.go.jp/english/topics/03072801.htm>
- Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research*, 40, 120-123. Morton, L. L., Vesco, R., Williams, N. H., & Awender, M.A. (1997). Student teacher anxiety related to class management,

- pedagogy, evaluation, and staff relations. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 67, 69-89.
- Morton, L. L., Vesco, R., Williams, N. H., & Awender, M.A. (1997). Student teacher anxiety related to class management, pedagogy, evaluation, and staff relations. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 67, 69-89.
- Mousavi, E. S., (2007). Exploring 'teacher stress' in non-native and native teachers of EFL. *English Language Teacher Education and Development*, 10, 33-41.
- Nenkan jyugyou jisuu 26-35 jikan ga 57%* [57% of elementary schools conduct between 26 and 35 hours English lessons] (2009, May 18). Japan Educational Newspaper.
- Nishino, T., & Watanabe, M. (2008). Communication-oriented policies versus classroom realities in Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42, 133-138.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asian-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37, 589-613.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategy applications with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 557-584.
- Orton, J. W. (1981). Anxiety of college level psychology and family life teachers in the classroom. *Teaching of Psychology*, 8, 108-109.
- Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 36, 327-355.
- Pichette, F. (2009). Second language anxiety and distance language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42, 77-93.

- Phillips, E. M. (1999). Decreasing language anxiety: Practical techniques for oral activities. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp. 124-143). Boston: McGraw-Hill College.
- Preece, P. F. W. (1979). Student teacher anxiety and class-control problems on teaching practice: A cross-logged panel analysis. *British Educational Research Journal*, 5, 13-19.
- Price, M. L. (1991). The subjective experience of foreign language anxiety: Interviews with highly anxious students. In E. K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 101-108). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Rajagopalan, K. (2006). Non-native speaker teachers of English and their anxieties: Ingredients for an experiment in action research. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 283-303). New York: Springer.
- Randall, K. (2007). Words fail me: Foreign language anxiety crippling for some students, says scholar. Retrieved March 11, 2009, from The University of Texas at Austin, Feature story: <http://www.utexas.edu/features/2007/language/>
- Rodríguez, M., & Abreu, O. (2003). The stability of general foreign language classroom anxiety across English and French. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87, 365-374.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the “good language learner” can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9, 41-51.

- Saito, Y., & Samimy, K. K. (1996). Foreign language anxiety and language performance: A study of learner anxiety in beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level college students of Japanese. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 238-251.
- Sale, J. E. M., Lohfeld, L. H., & Brazil, K. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research. *Quality and Quantity*, 36, 43-53.
- Samimy, K. K. (1994). Teaching Japanese: Consideration of learners' affective variables. *Theory into Practice*, 33, 29-33.
- Shougakko no eigo kyouiku wa hitsuyou ka* [Is English education necessary at elementary schools?] (2009, May 24) *Sankei Shimbun*, from <http://sankei.jp.msn.com/life/education/090524/edc0905241800000-n4.htm>
- Shougakko no eigo kouritsu-ko 99% ga senkou jisshi* [99% of public elementary schools started English] (2009, June, 10) *Sankei Shinbun*
- Showalter, E. (2003). *Teaching Literature*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Sparks, R. L., & Ganschow, L. (2007). Is the foreign language classroom anxiety scale measuring anxiety or language skills? *Foreign Language Annals*, 40, 261-287.
- Tallon, M. (2009). Foreign language anxiety and heritage students of Spanish: A quantitative study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42, 112-137.
- Tang, C. (1997). The identity of the nonnative ESL teacher: On the power and status of nonnative ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 577-580.
- Torikai, K. (2001). English language education in Japan: Issues and insights towards the new millennium. *On JALT 2000*. Retrieved February 2, 2010 from, <http://jalt-publications.org/archive/proceedings/2000/jalt2000.pdf>

- Villegas, A. M. (2008). Diversity and teacher education. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D. J. McIntyre & K. E. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: Enduring questions in changing contexts, Third edition* (pp. 551-558). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Vogely, A. J. (1998). Listening comprehension anxiety: Students' reported sources and solutions. *Foreign Language Annals, 31*, 67-80.
- Walton, J. (1981). Biofeedback: A proposed model for the treatment of teacher anxiety. *The Personal and Guidance Journal, 60*, 59-62.
- Watson, D., & Friend, R. (1969). Measurement of social-evaluation anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 33*, 448-451.
- Widmer, C. C., & Chavez, A. (1982). Math anxiety and elementary school teachers. *Education, 102*, 272-276.
- Williams, K. E., & Andrade, M. R. (2008). Foreign language learning anxiety in Japanese EFL university classes: Causes, coping, and locus of control. *Electric Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 5*, 181-191.
- Williams, L. S. (1991). The effects of a comprehensive teaching assistant teaching program on teaching anxiety and effectiveness. *Research in Higher Education, 32*, 585-598.
- Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *Regional Language Centre Journal, 37*, 308-328.
- Wu, A., Liang, J., & Csepelyi, T. (2010). Coping strategies for NNES teachers' development. In A. Mahboob (Ed.), *The NNEST lens: Non native English*

- speakers in TESOL* (pp. 202-221). United Kingdom: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Young, D. J. (1991). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral performance ratings. In E. K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 57-63). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zeidner, M. (1998). *Test anxiety: The state of the art*. NY: Plenum Press.

Appendix A

Survey of Teacher English Language Anxiety

Part 1: Please answer the following questions.

1. You are a (female male) teacher.
2. How many years have you been teaching school? () years.
3. Have you taught English before? (Yes No)
4. Have you taken any English methodology courses in college? (Yes No)
5. Have you ever received any training for teaching English? (Yes No)
6. Have you ever taken the TOEFL, TOEIC or EIKEN? (Yes No)
7. Have you ever visited English speaking countries before? (Yes No)
8. How can you judge your current English proficiency? What actions were you able to complete?

(Greeting, Traveling, General conversation, Attending classes, Speaking like a native)

Part 2: Please respond to the statements below using the following symbol:

- SA. strongly agree
- A. agree
- N. neither agree nor disagree
- D. disagree
- SD. strongly disagree

Please answer honestly and carefully. Spend time thinking about each answer. Your answers are anonymous.

1. It frightens me when I don't understand what someone is saying in English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
2. I would not worry about taking a training course conducted entirely in English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
3. I am afraid that native speakers will notice every mistake I make.
SA. A. N. D. SD.

4. I am pleased with the level of my English language proficiency I have achieved.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
5. I feel self-conscious speaking English in front of teachers of English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
6. When speaking English, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
7. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn in order to speak English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
8. I feel comfortable around native speakers of English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
9. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking English in front of native speakers.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
10. I am not nervous speaking English with students.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
11. I don't worry about making mistakes in English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
12. I speak English well enough to be a good English teacher.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
13. I get nervous when I don't understand every word a native speaker says.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
14. I feel confident when I speak English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
15. I always feel that other teachers speak English better than I do.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
16. I don't understand why some people think learning English is so hard.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
17. I try to speak English with native speakers whenever I can.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
18. I feel that my English preparation was adequate for becoming an English teacher.
SA. A. N. D. SD.

19. I want to speak English well.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
20. I didn't like English when I was a student.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
21. I feel confident when I take a training course for speaking English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
22. I get more nervous when I teach English than teaching other subjects.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
23. I feel nervous when I do not have specific English teaching materials.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
24. I have confidence in my English pronunciation.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
25. I feel comfortable when I teach English with a native speaker.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
26. English knowledge which I learned in schools is very helpful.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
27. I get nervous when other people hear me speak English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
28. I feel confident when other teachers and students ask me a question about English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
29. I am not quite sure about my English grammar when I speak English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
30. I never get nervous when the content of an English course is decided.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
31. I don't worry about continuing to have conversations with native speakers or other teachers in English.
SA. A. N. D. SD.
32. I should have studied English more when I was in school.
SA. A. N. D. SD.

Part 3: What do you think is most necessary for improving your English lesson? Please write your opinion below.

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their opinion on what is most necessary for improving their English lesson.

Thank you very much.

Appendix B

英語不安に対する調査

Part 1

以下の質問にお答え下さい。

1. 性別 (男性 女性)
2. 学校での教師経験は何年ですか？(講師経験も含めて下さい) ()年.
3. 以前に英語を教えたことはありますか？ (はい いいえ)
4. 英語教授法などの授業を大学等で受けたことはありますか？ (はい いいえ)
5. 英語を教えるための講習を受けたことがありますか？ (はい いいえ)
6. TOEFL や TOEIC、英検などの試験を受けたことはありますか？ (はい いいえ)
7. 英語圏の国や地域へ旅行をしたことがありますか？ (はい いいえ)
8. ご自分の英語力を直感的に判断すると、どのレベルにあると思いますか？

(あいさつ程度 旅行で困らない程度 一般会話程度 講義が分かる程度 ネイティブ)

Part 2

下の記号を参考にして、以下の質問にお答え下さい。

- SA. 大いにそう思う (strongly agree)
- A. そう思う (agree)
- N. どちらでもない (neither agree nor disagree)
- D. そう思わない (disagree)
- SD. 全くそうは思わない (strongly disagree)

以下の質問に対し、十分考慮のうえで、正直にお答え下さい。

33. 他の人が英語で言ったことが分からないと不安になる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
34. 英語で行われる研修を受けることは嫌ではない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
35. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーが私の英語の間違いに気づくのが心配だ。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
36. 私は現在の自分の英語のレベルに満足している。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
37. 他の教師の前で英語を話すとあがってしまう。
SA. A. N. D. SD.

38. 英語を話すときには、知っていることでも忘れてしまうほど緊張する。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
39. 英語を話すためには様々なルールを覚えなくてはならないと思うと、気が遠くなる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
40. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーと一緒にいると気が楽だ。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
41. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーを前にすると、自信がなくなる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
42. 児童と英語で話すときは緊張しない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
43. 英語で間違いをすることは気にならない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
44. 私は英語の教師になるには十分なくらい英語が話せる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
45. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーが話している単語が1つでも分からないと不安になる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
46. 自信を持って英語で話すことができる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
47. 私はいつも他の先生の方が自分よりも英語が上手いと感じている。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
48. なぜ英語を勉強するのが大変だと思う人がいるのか理解できない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
49. できる限り英語のネイティブ・スピーカーと話すようにしている。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
50. 私は英語の教師になるには十分に準備をしてきたと思う。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
51. 英語が上手く話せるようになりたい。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
52. 学生時代、英語は好きではなかった。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
53. 英会話の講習を受けた後は自分の英語に自信が持てる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
54. 他の教科を教えるより、英語を教える時の方が緊張する。
SA. A. N. D. SD.

55. 英語を教える時、決まった教科書や教材がないと不安だ。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
56. 英語の発音には自信がある。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
57. 英語の授業はネイティブ・スピーカーと一緒に教える方が教えやすい。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
58. 受験勉強で培った英語の知識が、大いに役立っている。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
59. 自分の英語が他の人に聞かれるのは何となく不安だ。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
60. 他の先生や児童からの英語に関する質問には答えられる。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
61. 自分の話す英語は文法的に間違っているかもしれない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
62. 教える内容がはっきりしていれば英語を教えることに不安はない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
63. ネイティブ・スピーカーや他の先生と英語で会話を続けるのは苦ではない。
SA. A. N. D. SD.
64. 学生時代にもっと英語を勉強しておくべきだったと思う。
SA. A. N. D. SD.

Part 3

今後、英語の授業を効果的に進めていく上で、何が最も必要だと思いますか？
ご自由にお書き下さい。

ご協力、どうもありがとうございました。

6: How long does each training session last?

- 60 minutes.
- 90 minutes.
- 120 minutes.
- 180 minutes.
- Others. (Please describe.)

7: Who teaches the training course?

- Professors at colleges.
- Teacher trainers at the Tokyo Board of Education.
- Language instructors at private language schools.
- The English coordinator at a city board of education.
- Others. (Please describe.)

8: Which language is mainly used in the training course?

- English.
- Japanese.
- Both English and Japanese.
- Others. (Please describe.)

9: What type of courses do you conduct for elementary school English teachers?

- Lecture.
- Discussion.
- Activity.
- Class observation.
- Others. (Please describe.)

10: What is the main goal for the training course?

- To instruct participants in English language pedagogy.
- To improve participants' English proficiency.
- To improve participants' English teaching skills.
- To teach participants some tips for developing English lessons.
- To make participants experience English speaking/listening activities.
- To share ideas about English lessons among participants.
- Others. (Please describe.)

Open-ended Questions

11: Please describe the content of training courses for elementary school English teachers.

()

12: What do you think are strengths and weaknesses of the training courses?

()

13: What do you think is the most difficult aspect of conducting the training courses?

()

14: How do you help anxious teachers instruct English more effectively?

()

15: In what ways will participants change the most after taking the training course?

()

We thank you for taking the time to participate in this study. Your feedback will help us understand English language education at elementary schools in Japan.

7: 研修の指導者はどのような方ですか。

- 大学教授
- 東京都教育委員会指導主事
- 語学学校の講師
- 市区町村の英語コーディネーター
- その他（具体的に _____）

8: 研修は何語を中心に行われていますか。

- 英語
- 日本語
- 英語と日本語の両方
- その他（具体的に _____）

9: 英語研修の研修形態はどのようなものですか。

- 講師による講義中心
- 講師と受講者及び受講者間での討論中心
- 体験を通じた活動中心
- 授業見学中心
- その他（具体的に _____）

10: 英語研修の主要目的は何ですか。

- 受講者に英語教授法を教える
- 受講者の英語能力を伸ばす
- 受講者の英語指導力の向上
- 受講者に英語の授業を実施するヒントを与える
- 受講者に英語でのコミュニケーション活動を体験させる
- 受講者間での英語の授業について意見交換
- その他（具体的に _____）

自由記述のアンケート

11: 小学校英語を対象とした研修の特徴的な内容についてお書きください。

(_____)

12: 英語研修の長所と短所はどのようなことだとお考えですか。

(_____)

13: 英語研修を実施するにあたり、難しい点はどのようなところですか。

(_____)

14: 英語に対して不安を持っている受講者に対しては、受講に際してどのようなサポートをしていますか。

()

15: 研修の受講者が研修後に変化しているとすれば、どのような点ですか。

()

アンケートへのご協力どうもありがとうございました。頂いたご意見は、今後の研究に生かしていきたいと思えます。

Appendix E

Results of Questionnaire about English Anxiety

#	District	sex	Yrs of exp	E tchg exp	TESOL	training	tests	trip	E level	TFLAS	STAS
1	A	M	1	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.06	3.36
2	A	F	5	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	3.06	3.00
3	A	F	21	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.33	3.57
4	A	M	15	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	2.83	3.00
5	A	M	4	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	4.22	4.57
6	A	F	1	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	3	2.94	3.36
7	A	M	5	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	3	3.06	3.07
8	A	F	14	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	2.94	2.64
9	A	F	9	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	3.06	3.07
10	A	F	12	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	4.22	3.71
11	A	F	17	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.56	3.71
12	A	M	20	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	2.94	3.15
13	A	M	30	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.33	3.79
14	A	F	20	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	3.17	3.07
15	A	M	5	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.83	3.07
16	A	M	12	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	4.35	3.86
17	A	M	5	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.39	3.64
18	A	M	21	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	2.78	3.29
19	A	M	4	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.22	3.57
20	A	M	7	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.33	3.62
21	A	F	17	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	2	2.44	2.36
22	A	F	4	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	3	2.94	2.93
23	A	F	1	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.17	3.57
24	A	M	5	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	2	2.83	2.50
25	A	M	1	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.56	3.43
26	A	F	5	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	2.89	2.93
27	A	M	4	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.89	3.79
28	A	F	16	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.33	3.36
29	A	F	26	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.56	4.36
30	A	M	24	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	3.06	4.21
31	A	F	7	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	2.78	3.21
32	A	F	1	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.94	3.79
33	A	M	21	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.39	3.21
34	A	M	21	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	1	3.56	4.15
35	A	M	6	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	3.39	3.64
36	A	M	19	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.39	3.57
37	A	M	26	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	3.89	4.07
38	A	F	6	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	3.72	3.71
39	A	F	3	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	3.56	3.71
40	A	M	31	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.17	3.21
41	A	M	4	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.50	3.79
42	A	F	29	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	4.28	4.36
43	A	F	30	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.78	3.29

44	A	F	20	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.22	3.71
45	A	F	30	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	3.28	3.36
46	A	F	5	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.56	4.07
47	A	M	3	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	2.56	2.50
48	A	M	4	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.33	3.36
49	A	M	5	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	1	4.17	4.21
50	A	M	2	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1	2.89	3.07
51	A	F	30	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	4.11	3.93
52	A	M	1	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	3.78	4.07
53	A	M	4	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.89	3.79
54	A	M	9	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	1	3.83	3.64
55	A	F	7	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.56	3.64
56	A	M	6	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.17	3.00
57	A	M	31	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	2.94	3.36
58	A	F	18	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.00	3.93
59	A	M	9	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	1	4.00	3.43
60	A	M	18	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	2.78	3.07
61	B	M	4	No	No	No	Yes	No	2	2.94	2.93
62	B	F	26	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.78	3.36
63	B	F	19	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.44	3.79
64	B	M	3	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	4.00	4.29
65	B	M	3	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	3.61	3.43
66	B	M	13	No	No	No	No	No	1	4.39	4.29
67	B	F	30	No	No	No	No	No	2	2.75	3.15
68	B	M	26	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.22	3.29
69	B	F	25	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.50	4.21
70	B	F	3	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	4.11	4.21
71	B	F	15	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.83	3.50
72	B	F	5	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	2.78	3.79
73	B	F	35	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.44	3.43
74	B	F	1	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.33	3.64
75	B	M	2	No	No	No	Yes	No	2	2.33	2.29
76	B	M	1	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.61	3.29
77	B	F	30	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.61	3.93
78	B	M	5	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.44	3.79
79	B	M	33	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.22	4.50
80	B	F	5	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.83	3.79
81	B	M	6	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	1	2.94	3.23
82	B	M	31	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.67	3.14
83	B	F	2	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.00	2.93
84	B	M	6	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.11	3.43
85	B	F	24	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.33	3.93
86	B	F	25	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.89	4.07
87	B	F	25	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.61	3.86
88	B	M	26	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.94	4.29
89	B	M	4	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.11	3.71
90	B	M	5	No	No	No	No	Yes	2	4.20	4.00
91	B	F	1	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	4	2.33	2.86
92	B	F	3	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	4.06	4.14
93	B	F	35	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.78	4.79

94	B	F	21	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.67	4.64
95	B	F	3	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	1	3.67	3.79
96	B	M	8	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	1	3.50	4.36
97	B	M	31	No	No	No	No	No	1	2.61	2.71
98	B	F	38	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.65	2.64
99	B	F	2	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	3.44	3.71
100	B	M	2	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.56	3.57
101	B	F	34	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.59	3.57
102	B	F	26	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.72	3.14
103	B	F	7	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	2.83	3.29
104	B	F	7	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	2.67	2.93
105	B	M	5	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	4.44	4.43
106	B	F	25	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.67	3.86
107	B	F	2	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.29	3.71
108	B	M	5	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	2.94	3.50
109	B	M	3	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.11	3.64
110	B	M	7	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.33	4.50
111	B	F	5	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.11	3.93
112	B	M	2	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.06	3.14
113	B	M	28	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	3.83	4.00
114	B	F	30	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.33	3.86
115	B	M	6	No	No	No	No	No	1	4.28	4.00
116	B	M	11	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	1	4.28	3.79
117	B	F	8	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	2	2.89	3.07
118	B	M	6	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	1	3.56	4.14
119	B	M	3	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.50	4.36
120	B	F	4	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	1	3.28	3.71
121	B	F	17	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.61	4.14
122	B	M	1	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	1	3.50	3.71
123	B	F	25	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	2.94	3.64
124	B	M	14	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.06	3.50
125	B	M	5	No	No	No	Yes	No	1	3.94	3.86
126	B	F	3	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	2	2.94	3.36
127	B	M	20	No	No	No	No	Yes	2	3.06	3.43
128	B	M	4	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	1	3.44	3.71
129	B	M	16	Yes	No	No	No	No	1	3.72	3.86
130	B	M	3	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	2.83	3.14
131	B	F	36	No	No	No	No	Yes	1	2.94	3.79
132	B	M	18	No	No	No	No	No	1	3.33	4.00
133	B	M	1	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2	2.94	3.00