Emotions and Self-regulation: A Case of Iranian EFL High School and Private Language Institute Teachers

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Abstract – Effective teaching is undoubtedly appreciated in an educational setting. When maximizing language learning is considered, it is crucially important to consider language teachers. In line with this argument, the present study delve into two important teacher-related variables which are influential in the development of teachers' professional expertise, i.e. teachers' emotions and self-regulation. For this purpose, Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) and Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS) were utilized to gauge teachers' emotions and preferred self-regulatory strategies. 200 English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers from both public high schools (as representative of formal milieus of English teaching) and private language institutes (as representative of informal milieus of English teaching) took part in this study. According to the results, between high school and private language institute teachers, there were statistically significant differences with respect to their emotional experiences and self-regulatory strategies. The findings of the present study may redound to the benefit of teacher educators, administrators, policy makers, and teacher training courses (TTC).

Keywords: teacher emotion, self-regulation, EFL teachers, high schools, private language institutes

1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers are the cornerstone of each educational system. They are like a bridge between knowledge and their students. On the role of teachers in a successful education, Griffiths (2007) asserted that "teachers' practices and perceptions are critically important since they have the potential to influence the effectiveness of the teaching/learning process" (p. 91). Over the past few decades, teachers have increasingly become the focus of attention in the mainstream of education. A considerable body of literature highlights the teacher's characteristics as the most significant educational feature enhancing the quality of learning and predicting efficient functioning of educational system (see Brown, 2007; Grasha, 2002; Richard & Rogers, 2001).

For the quality of classroom instruction, considering teachers' emotions is noteworthy. Hargreaves (1998) has acknowledged that "emotions are at the heart of teaching" and "good teaching is charged with positive emotions" (p. 835). They are closely interwoven to the teachers' psychological well-being (Frenzel, Becker-Kurtz, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2015). In this regard, Van Veen and Lasky (2005) emphasized on using emotions as a lens for looking at the teacher's identity and educational change. In their classrooms, teachers experience different emotions which affect their performance and students' achievement.

In effect, teaching must be observed as an emotional endeavor (Hargreaves, 1998), yet what emerges from reviewing the existing literature echoing the need for more studies on its position as an assisting and inspiring profession. Research on the student emotions has always been an area of concern (Goetz, Lüdtke, Nett, Keller, & Lipnevich, 2013; Pekrun, 2006; Zembylas, Charlambous, & Charalambous, 2014); however, less is known about the emotional experience of the teacher (Chang, 2009; Keller, Chang, Becker, Goetz, & Frenzel, 2014).

Another important factor in effectiveness of teachers is teacher self-regulation which is defined as teachers' own self-regulated strategies executed in their teaching environment (Yesim, Sungur, & Uzuntiryaki, 2009). Self-regulation as an avenue to professional development (Davis & Gray, 2007), refers to self-initiated actions, thoughts, and feelings that involve regulating one's efforts to reach the goal (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). As Baylor, Kitsantas, and Chung (2001) believed, teacher self-regulation can help students' learning and promote their skills in developing effective lesson plans. To provide opportunities for insightful instruction, teachers not only need content area knowledge, but also require to monitor their beliefs, motivation, and other self-regulatory factors in relation to teaching and learning (Dembo, 2001). That is to say, self-regulation can assist teachers in developing a better understanding of their students' needs, learning experiences, as well as gaining a deeper sense of teaching and learning strategies (Paris & Winograd, 2001).

Considering the paucity of research in the realm of teachers' emotions and self-regulation with the fact that teaching is a context-sensitive phenomenon and English language teaching in Iran is done in two different context (state-run schools vs. privately-operated language institutes), the main aim of this study was to see the possible differences between emotional experiences and self-regulatory strategies of Iranian EFL high school and private language institute teachers.

Considering the abovementioned objectives, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference between Iranian EFL high school and private language institute teachers with respect to the types of emotions they experience in their classes?

2. Is there any statistically significant difference between Iranian EFL high school and private language institute teachers with respect to the most preferred self-regulatory strategies?

2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Emotion

From the early 1970s, research on teachers' cognitions has developed and expanded (Calderhead, 1996). In spite of increasing psychological research on emotion since the early 1980s (Lewis & Haviland, 1993), few works were conducted on teachers' emotions. Researchers know surprisingly little about the role of emotion in learning to teach, how teachers' emotional experiences relate to their teaching practices, and how the sociocultural context of teaching interacts with teachers' emotions. Also, little was known about how teachers regulate their emotions, the relationship between teachers' emotions and motivation, and how integral emotional experiences are in teacher development (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

In this regard, Zembylas (2003) stipulated three reasons for the grave dearth of studies in the area of teacher emotion. First, because teaching generally thought as a cognitive activity,

most studies focused on teachers' thoughts and beliefs, teaching skills, and pedagogical knowledge (a cognitive perspective) rather than their affective experiences. Second, since researchers viewed emotions as elusive, difficult to grasp or objectively measured, avoided studying emotions. Lastly, emotions were believed to be a feminine subject or soft topic and regarded worthless to study.

Emotions are classified into positive and negative forms. These emotions can range from negative emotions such as anxiety, anger, shame, and boredom to positive emotions such as enjoyment and pride (Frenzel, 2014). In terms of positive emotions, such as joy, pride, and satisfaction, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) proposed that teachers with more positive emotions are more successful because positive emotions generate more teaching ideas and strategies. In terms of negative emotions, Ryan and Deci (2000) suggested that negative emotions often reduce teachers' intrinsic motivation.

Enjoyment is one of the main positive emotions experienced by teacher (Frenzel, 2014). It shows a feeling of happiness derived from a desirable future event (anticipatory joy), being involved in an enjoyable activity (activity-related enjoyment) or pleasant feeling of past activities (outcome-related enjoyment). Pride is the second most salient discrete emotion that teachers feel during teaching and is closely connected to enjoyment (Frenzel, 2014). This feeling can be self- or other-directed (Keller, Frenzel, Goetz, Pekrun, & Hensley, 2014).

Anger is the most prominent negative emotion in classes (Sutton, 2007; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Frenzel, 2014). The sources of anger can be not only inside but also outside of the classroom (Chang, 2009; Keller, Frenzel, et al., 2014; Sutton, 2007). Inside of the classroom, teachers may experience anger because of goal incongruence like student failure, disciplinary problems, and student misbehavior (Chang, 2009; Sutton & Wheatly, 2003). Anxiety is another negative emotion that teachers may experience while teaching. Teachers may feel anxious when they feel lack of preparedness to teach, discipline issues in the classroom, relationships with other colleague administrators and students' parents as well as changes due to reform efforts (Hargreaves, 2001; Van Veen & Lasky, 2005). Shame as the other negative emotion is basically a kind of social emotions, which is tied to the actual or imagined negative judgment of others (Frenzel, 2014). That is to say, one source of shame can be negative judgment of other people (Bibby, 2002). Boredom as a salient emotion (Frenzel, 2014) includes different components such as affective, cognitive, physiological, expressive, and motivational (Goetz, Frenzel, Hall, Nett, Pekrun, & Lipnevich, 2014).

Recently, there are some studies about emotion and its role in some psychological assets of teachers as well as its relation with important factors of teaching. For instance, Becker, Keller, Frenzel, and Taxer (2015) investigated antecedents of teachers' emotions using an intra-individual approach. The antecedents were students' motivation and discipline; the emotions were teachers' enjoyment and anger. Besides, the mediating role of teachers' appraisals of goal conduciveness and coping potentials was examined in this study.

In a recent study, Khajavi, Ghonsooly and Hosseini Fatemi (2016) explored EFL teacher's motivations for teaching and tested a model of burnout based on motivations and emotions using structural equation modeling (SEM). To this end, 326 Iranian EFL teachers from different language institutes completed the related scales. Results of the study showed that altruistic and intrinsic factors are the main motivations of EFL teachers. Results of SEM indicated that both

motivations and emotions predicted different dimensions of burnout. However, emotions had a stronger effect on burnout dimensions than motivational factors.

In another research by Taxer and Frenzel (2015), the frequency teachers genuinely express, fake and hide their emotions and their relations to self-efficacy, relatedness, mental health, physical health, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction were studied. 226 secondary teachers from Germany participated in this study. The findings showed that teachers who genuinely expressed their positive emotions were efficacious, mentally healthy, felt related to their students, satisfied with their jobs, and had low level of emotional exhaustion. The results also indicated that teachers who genuinely expressed their negative emotions had low self-efficacy, poor physical and mental health, low job satisfaction, and high level of emotional exhaustion.

2.2. Self-Regulation

Self-regulation refers to "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal Goals" (Zimmerman 2000, p. 14). It offers an important perspective on academic learning in current research in educational (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994). This perspective enable people set goals, make plans, decide on strategies to attain these goals, and self-evaluate their performance (Yesim et al., 2009). As Pintrich (2000) asserted, self-regulated learning is an active, applicable process which enable students to set goals for their learning as well as monitoring, regulating, and controlling their cognition, motivation, and behavior.

Theories and practices associated with the role of student self-regulation in their academic success also generalize to teachers, leading to the development of self-regulated teaching theories. Successful teachers are self-regulated individuals who perceived themselves as teachers and maintain their motivation while encountering different students, diverse tasks, and changing circumstances (Cardelle-Elawar, Irwin, Lizarraga, & Luisa, 2007). At school, both teachers and students are required to learn by engaging in cognitive tasks and social environments as well as updating their instructional knowledge (Randi, 2004). That means, effective teachers need to become effective learners first (Dembo, 2001). In the same vein, Randi (2004) emphasized that usual teacher tasks like lesson plans and assessments can also facilitate teachers' own learning and self-regulation. Indeed, as Dembo (2001) maintained, for creating insightful instruction, teachers need content area knowledge as well as monitoring their beliefs, motivation, and other self-regulatory factors associated with teaching and learning. In terms of teacher self-regulation during instruction, teachers attempt to use different teaching strategies; these teacher's characteristics are expected to improve the quality of instruction (Yesim et al., 2009).

In the domain of teacher self-regulation, Delfino, Dettori, and Persico (2010) identified personal and social perspective. From personal perspective, teachers should equip themselves with self-regulation skills in order to follow different goals as well as maintain and promote their motivation, commitment, and effectiveness. From the social perspective, self-regulation helps teachers to form instructional strategies according to students' special goals and adapt themselves to the fast speed of technological and cultural changes which lead to almost ever curricular revisions.

Actually, teachers need a firm base knowledge with classroom management skills, motivation, and self-regulatory factors associated with teaching and learning to provide

opportunities for perceptive instruction (Dembo, 2001). Self-regulated teachers are decision makers who can consciously and preliminary reflect on their judgments (Randi, 2004).

What emerges from the review of some of the literature on self-regulation, paucity of research in the realm of teachers' self-regulatory processes were found. Almost all of the existing studies in this domain examined the self-regulatory processes of teachers as learners or assume teachers who believe in the pivot role of self-regulatory skills in their own learning, and then, teach them to their learners (Yesim et al., 2009). In such situation, Yesim et al. (2009) developed and validated a scale assessing teacher self-regulation, which studied teachers' own self-regulated strategies, as executed in their teaching environment. This scale is based on Zimmerman's self-regulation model (2000) and semi-structured interviews with pre-service/in-service teachers. The items were generated to represent each of the following factors: goal setting, intrinsic interest, performance goal orientation, mastery goal orientation, self-instruction, emotional control, self-evaluation, self-reaction, and help-seeking.

Leafing through the empirical studies conducted in the self-regulation domain and its relation with important factors of teaching and learning reveals a mounting attention toward cognitive and metacognitive skills. For instance, Mousapour Negari and Heydari (2014) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' self-regulation and effective teaching. The findings revealed that teacher's self-regulation is a significant indicator of teaching effectiveness. Also, according to the results, the contributing role of gender in developing EFL teachers' self-regulation skills was highlighted.

In another study by Kamyabi Gol and Royaei (2013), the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' self-regulation and job performance was explored. The outcomes substantiated a significant correlation between teachers' self-regulation and job performance. Furthermore, the data analyses indicated that mastery goal orientation among sub-components of self-regulation was the best predicator of job performance.

In like manner, Ghonsooli and Ghanizadeh (2011) examined the relationship between EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their self-regulation. It also investigated the relationships between self-regulation, teaching experience, age, and gender, respectively. The results indicated a significant relationship between teachers' self-regulation and self-efficacy beliefs. Significant correlations were also found between teachers' self-regulation, and their teaching experience as well as their age. However, no significant correlations were found between teachers' self-regulation and their gender.

2.3. English Language Teaching in Iran

In the 20th and 21st centuries, English language is considered by many as the international language and has dominated the context of foreign language learning and teaching in Iran (Akbari, 2015). Due to the spread of the English language as a lingua franca throughout the world (Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2012), English language acquisition is considered as a key priority which provides golden opportunities to employment, traveling, higher education, and even better life (Crystal, 1997).

Teaching English as a foreign language is a challenging task in developing countries particularly in Iran (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006). Unlike other Asian counties such as Japan in which English is used as medium of internationalization, in Iran learning English is only restricted to

educational setting (Farhady, Sajadi, Hezareh, & Hedayati, 2010). English is taught for academic purposes with an emphasis on reading skills and structure (Noora, 2008). Thus, the emphasis is on language usage rather than language use (Riazi, 2005). English is formally introduced at the first year of Middle school (recently called Secondary School Round 1). In the older system of education which came into effect after the Islamic Revolution in 1979, English was introduced in the second year of Middle School (Ghorbani, 2009). Students in Middle and High schools take between two and four hours of English instruction each week with different syllabi for different years which are revised from time to time. The syllabus and course content are prescribed by the ministry of education for all schools and teachers cannot change the course content or structure (Ghanizadeh & Heydarnejad, 2015). The current 'revised' syllabus used in public education aims to move beyond a focus on reading skills and to develop basic English proficiency; however, the course materials at Middle School primarily address alphabet recognition, pronunciation, and limited vocabulary instruction. At High School, this instruction continues to focus on reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary development, with little emphasis on writing beyond decontextualized sentence practice (Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi, & Mahmoodi, 2000). Listening is almost absent in the syllabus and speaking is limited to a few drills (mainly intended to practice grammar) or short dialogues to introduce language functions. Consequently, after six years of formal English instruction, Iranian students normally have minimal communication skills in English unless they have taken additional courses in private language institutes. The English learning curriculum at schools in Iran derived from the combination of Grammar translation method and Audiolingualism (Ghanizadeh & Heydarnejad, 2015; Ghonsooly, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2012; Noora, 2008). At schools, teachers usually read a text then translate the sentences and vocabularies. It is followed by explicit teaching of grammatical structures (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012).

Little by little, because of the shortcomings of the formal EFL program at schools to fulfill the practical and social needs of the learners, an increasing number of EFL institutes have been developed in Iran (Akbari, 2015). Iranian language learners prefer to attend private language centers to learn spoken language and communicate in English. According to Farzin-nia (1964), the first English language institute established in Iran was Iran-America society in 1925. This institute underwent some modifications after the Islamic Revolution in 1977 and its name was changed to Iran Language Institute (ILI).

According to Ghanizadeh & Heydarnejad (2015), private institutes and public schools are different from each other in many ways: English learning objectives, teaching methods, teachers and learner roles, and the number of students. Private language institutes offer courses at different levels and for a wide range of ages. Institute teachers give learners an active role which grows their motivation (Keihaniyan, 2011). At schools, decisions were mostly made by teachers who authoritatively held the classes whereas institute teachers play the role of facilitator in the learning process (Pishghadam & Navari, 2010). In private institutes, students are provided with opportunities to voice their opinions and participate in decision-making processes (Kazemi & Soleimani, 2013).

More recently, teachers of foreign languages in many countries, including Iran, have been encouraged to adopt an approach known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It refers to a diverse set of principles that reflect a communicative view of language and language learning and that can be used to support a wide variety of classroom procedures. This approach advocates

the development of communicative competence as a primary goal via the extensive use of the foreign language as a means of communication during classroom sessions (Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006).

Taken together, studying characteristics of Iranian English language teachers is worthwhile because it is in fact a kind of needs analysis intended to help teachers improve the quality of their teaching in an attempt to meet their students' needs.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 200 EFL English teachers, 100 EFL high school (45 male and 55 female) and 100 private institute teachers (32 male and 68 female) who were all teaching at intermediate to upper intermediate levels in different cities of Iran. They were all selected according to convenience sampling or opportunity sampling. It was attempted to include teachers from different age groups, with different years of teaching experience, and of both genders to ensure generalizability. The researcher of the present thesis was herself a teacher teaching both in high schools and private language institutes of Gonabad a city in the northeast of Iran, from which most of the participants were drawn (40 high school and 30 institute teachers). Moreover, the researcher's classmates and previous colleagues who were living in other cities kindly undertook the task of collecting the data from the rest of the participants.

The profile of the teachers is as follows: High school teachers were between 23 and 52 years old with 1 to 30 years of teaching experience. Out of 100 high school teachers, 45 were male and 55 were female. Among them, 65 had majored in English language teaching, 26 in English translation, six in English literature, and three in linguistics. Seven teachers were PhD candidates, 36 held an MA degree or were MA students, and the rest had a BA degree.

Institute teachers' ages varied from 23 to 46 years old with 1 to 23 years of experience. They were 32 male and 68 female. The majority had majored in different branches of English, i.e., English teaching (39), English translation (21), English literature (20), linguistics (11) and the rest had certificate in different majors except English with the necessary supplementary qualifications to teach English. Among them, 11 teachers were PhD candidates, 51 had an MA degree or were MA students and 38 held a BA degree.

3.2. Instrument

3.2.1. Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT)

Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) designed and validated by Frenzel, Pekrun, and Goetz (2013) was used to assess enjoyment, anxiety, and anger. Moreover, by reviewing the literature, Khajavi, Ghonsooly, and Hosseini Fatemi (2016) developed items for pride, shame, and boredom. Each emotion was measured by four items on a six-point Likert type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. This questionnaire is in Persian. It was translated into English by the researcher because the other questionnaire used in the present study was in English. Then, it was proofread by two experts in the fields of translation and teaching. The total Cronbach's alpha of this questionnaire was .85 which showed an acceptable reliability for the scale.

3.2.1. Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS)

To assess teacher self-regulation, the Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS) was utilized, designed and validated by Yesim et al. (2009). This questionnaire was developed based on Zimmerman's self-regulation model and semi-structured interviews with pre-service and in-service teachers. It consists of 40 items on a 6 point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (one) to 'strongly agree' (six). In addition to these items, one item was included as a filler item and was not used in further analyses.

In this study, the total reliability of the scale estimated via Cronbach's alpha, was.81 which showed acceptable reliability.

3.3. Procedure

3.3.1. Data Collection

The process of data collection was started in February and ended in April, 2016. This study was undertaken in different high schools and private language institutes in Iran. After getting the managers' permission, the EFL teachers received Emotions Questionnaire for Teachers (EQT) and Teacher Self-Regulation Scale (TSRS). For the purpose of receiving reliable data, the aim of completing the questionnaire was explained and the participants were assured that their views would be confidential. Furthermore, the questionnaires were coded numerically and the participants were asked to answer them anonymously. They were just required to provide demographic information such as gender, age, teaching experience, and educational level. It took approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires. As an incentive, the participants were given the opportunity to receive feedback about their performance on the instruments by presenting their codes.

3.3.2. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data in this study the responses that were obtained from the questionnaires were tabulated and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 18). To summarize the characteristics of the variables, including mean, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation, descriptive statistics was depicted. Then, an independent-samples *t*-test was run to determine the discrepancies between public school and private language institute teachers with regard to teachers' emotions and self-regulatory strategies. Finally, to inspect the relationships between subscales of teacher emotion and teacher self-regulation, a Pearson product moment correlation formula was utilized.

4. RESULTS

To investigate high school and private institute teachers' emotional experiences, descriptive statistics were calculated. The results can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: *Descriptive Statistics: Emotion Subscales for High School/ Private Institute Teachers*

Emotion Subscales	Context	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
			Group Statistics		
Enjoyment	institute	100	5.17	.72	.07
	school	100	4.68	1.19	.11
Anxiety	institute	100	3.03	1.35	.13
	school	100	3.67	1.58	.15
Anger	institute	100	2.55	1.35	.13
	school	100	3.03	1.65	.16
Pride	institute	100	4.72	.90	.09
	school	100	4.36	1.11	.11
Shame	institute	100	3.22	1.38	.13
	school	100	3.79	1.45	.14
Boredom	institute	100	2.43	1.46	.14
	school	100	2.91	1.51	.15

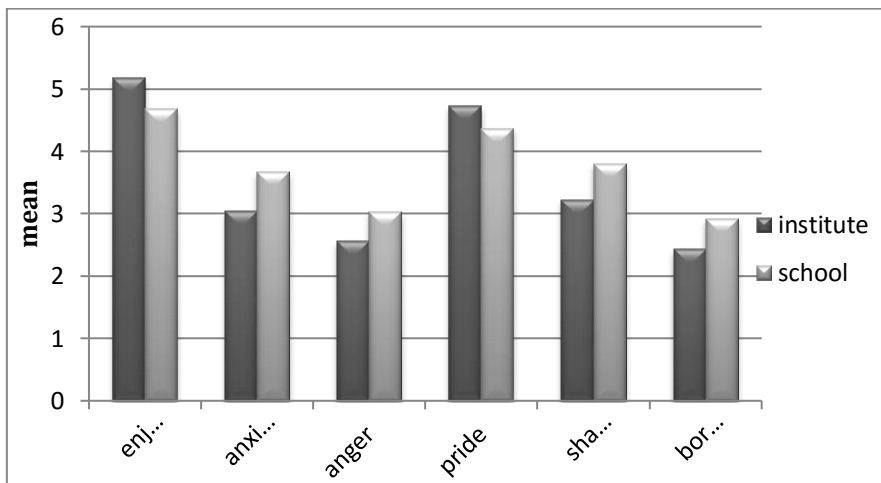The data are summarized in the following bar chart.

Figure 1. Bar Chart: Emotions Subscales for High School/ Private Institute Teachers

According to Table 1 and Figure 1, with regard to all emotion subscales, the mean scores of institute teachers were different from those of school teachers.

To examine whether there is any statistically significant difference between high school and private institute teachers with respect to the emotional experiences in their classes an independent samples *t*-test was run. Effect size (ES) was also employed to estimate the meaningfulness of statistically significant findings. Cohen's *d* was taken into account to examine the magnitude of the difference. Interpretation of Cohen's *d* is as follows: *d*=.2 small effect, *d*=.50 medium effect, *d*≥.80 large effect.

Table 2: *Independent Samples T-Test: Private Institute vs. High School Teachers regarding their Emotions*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Enjoyment	Equal variances assumed	19.28	.000	3.51	198	.001	.49	.14	.21	.76
	Equal variances not assumed			3.51	163.07	.001	.49	.14	.21	.76
Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	7.60	.006	-3.04	198	.003	-.63	.20	-1.04	-.22
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.04	193.09	.003	-.63	.20	-1.04	-.22
Anger	Equal variances assumed	11.24	.001	-2.22	198	.027	-.47	.21	-.89	-.05
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.22	190.55	.027	-.47	.21	-.89	-.05
Pride	Equal variances assumed	2.31	.130	2.48	198	.014	.35	.14	.07	.64
	Equal variances not assumed			2.48	190.11	.014	.35	.14	.07	.64
Shame	Equal variances assumed	1.72	.191	-2.84	198	.005	-.57	.20	-.96	-.17
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.84	197.47	.005	-.57	.20	-.96	-.17
Boredom	Equal variances assumed	1.144	.286	-2.30	198	.022	-.48	.211	-.90	-.07
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.30	197.75	.022	-.48	.211	-.90	-.07

Based on Table 2, there is a statistically significant difference between high school and private language institute teachers with respect to their emotional experiences in the classroom. Concerning enjoyment, private institute teachers enjoyed teaching more than high school teachers (t =3.51, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.49, small ES). Private institute teachers experienced anxiety (t=-3.04, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.43, small ES), anger (t=-2.22, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.31, small ES), shame (t=-2.84, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.40, small ES) and boredom (t=-2.30, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.32, small ES) less than high school teachers. With respect to pride, private institute teachers experienced more pride than high school teachers (t=2.48, p<.05 Cohen's *d*= 1.20, large ES).

The second research question examined whether there is any significant difference between high school and private institute teachers with respect to the most preferred self-regulatory strategies. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistic for teachers' self-regulation subscales.

Table 3: *Descriptive Statistics: Self-Regulation Subscales, High School /Private Institute Teachers*

Group Statistics

Self-Regulation	Context	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Goal setting	institute	100	5.28	.49	.04
	school	100	4.85	1.02	.10
Intrinsic interest	institute	100	5.20	.817	.08
	school	100	4.83	1.17	.11
Performance goal	institute	100	5.15	.538	.05
	school	100	4.80	1.00	.10
Master goal	institute	100	5.01	.67	.06
	school	100	4.71	1.00	.10
Self-instruction	institute	100	5.09	.65	.06
	School	100	4.61	1.04	.10
Emotional control	institute	100	4.94	.63	.06
	school	100	4.65	.99	.09
Self-evaluation	institute	100	4.99	.71	.07
	school	100	4.29	1.16	.11
Self-reaction	institute	100	4.88	.71	.07
	school	100	4.36	.90	.09
Help seeking	institute	100	4.87	.91	.09
	school	100	4.13	1.18	.11

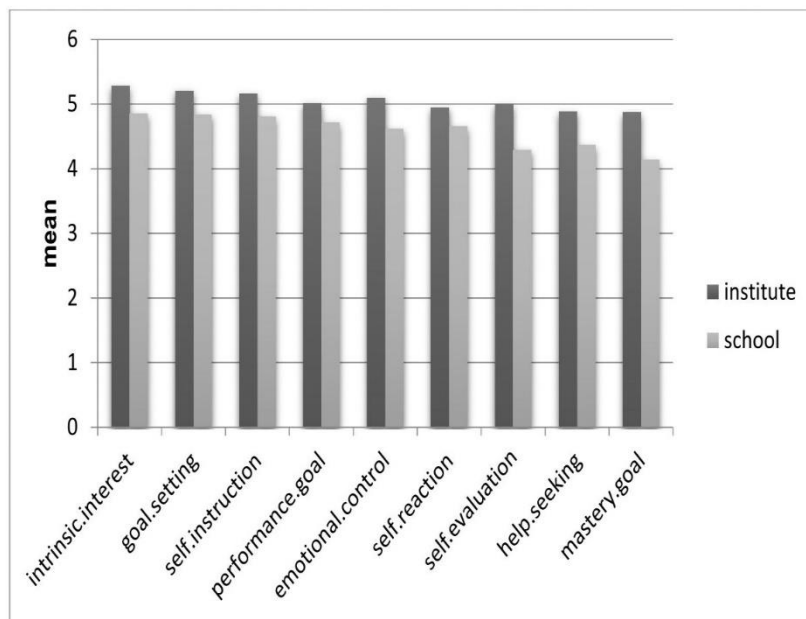These data are presented in the next bar chart.

Figure 2. Bar Chart: Teachers' Self-regulation Subscales for High School / Private Institute Teacher

As Table 3 and Figure 2 display, regarding goal setting, private institute teachers exhibited higher mean score than high school teachers. Institute teachers tended to intrinsic interest more than high school teachers. Regarding performance goal, private institute teachers got higher mean score than high school teachers. Comparing the mean scores of mastery goal, institute teachers exhibited higher mean score than high school teachers. Concerning self-instruction, institute teachers got higher mean score than high school teachers. Institute teachers controlled their emotion more than high school teachers. Based on the result, private institute teachers evaluated themselves more than high school teachers. Regarding self-reaction and help seeking institute teachers exhibited higher mean scores than high school teachers.

To see whether the above differences were statistically significant, independent-samples *t*-test was applied to the data.

Table 4: *Independent Samples T-Test:* High School vs. Private Institute Teachers regarding their Preferred Self- Regulatory Strategies

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
							Mean Differenc e	Std. Error Differenc e	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Goal setting	Equal variances assumed	31.56	.00	3.79	198	.000	.43	.11	.20	.65
	Equal variances not assumed			3.79	142.56	.000	.43	.11	.20	.65
Intrinsic interest	Equal variances assumed	7.92	.00	2.57	198	.011	.37	.14	.08	.65
	Equal variances not assumed			2.57	176.27	.011	.37	.14	.08	.65
Performance goal	Equal variances assumed	23.15	.00	3.09	198	.002	.35	.11	.12	.57
	Equal variances not assumed			3.09	151.85	.002	.35	.11	.12	.57
Mastery goal	Equal variances assumed	14.04	.00	2.47	198	.014	.30	.12	.06	.53
	Equal variances not assumed			2.47	172.88	.014	.30	.12	.06	.53
Self-instruction	Equal variances assumed	19.41	.00	3.88	198	.000	.47	.12	.23	.71
	Equal variances not assumed			3.88	166.18	.000	.47	.12	.23	.72
Emotional control	Equal variances assumed	15.84	.00	2.48	198	.014	.29	.11	.06	.52
	Equal variances not assumed			2.48	167.53	.01	.29	.11	.05	.52
Self-evaluation	Equal variances assumed	14.68	.00	5.13	198	.00	.70	.13	.43	.96
	Equal variances not assumed			5.13	164.67	.00	.70	.13	.43	.96
Self-reaction	Equal variances assumed	4.43	.037	4.53	198	.00	.52	.11	.29	.74
	Equal variances not assumed			4.53	187.88	.00	.52	.11	.29	.75
Help seeking	Equal variances assumed	6.21	.013	4.91	198	.00	.73	.15	.44	1.03
	Equal variances not assumed			4.91	185.87	.00	.73	.15	.44	1.03

According to Table 4, there is a statistically significant difference between private institute and high school teachers with respect to goal setting strategy (t=3.79, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.53, medium ES). About intrinsic interest, there is a statistically significant difference between private institute and high school teacher (t=2.57, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.36, small ES). The sig value for performance goal is significant which means that the difference between institute and high school teachers is significant statistically (t=3.09, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.43, small ES). Moreover, there are statistically significant differences between these two groups (private institute and high school teachers) regarding mastery goal (t=2.47, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.35, small ES), self-instruction (t=3.88, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.55, medium ES), emotional control (t=2.48, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.34, small ES), self-evaluation (t=5.13, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.72, medium ES), self-reaction (t=4.53, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.64, medium ES), and help seeking (t=4.91, p<.05, Cohen's *d*=.70, medium ES).

5. DISCUSSION

The result of the current research revealed a significant difference between high school and private language institute teachers with regard to emotions they experience in their classes. In both groups, positive emotions were more dominant than negative emotions, but the degree varied. Private institute teachers gained higher mean scores in positive emotions (enjoyment and pride) while high school teachers received higher mean scores in negative emotions (anger, anxiety, shame, and boredom). These differences might result from individual differences in the groups of students that they teach. Most of the students who attend language institutes are highly motivated to learn. Their classes are not formal and inflexible like schools. This is in line with a study by Kunter, Frenzel, Nagy, Baumert, and Pekrun, (2011) based on the context specificity of teaching enthusiasm and enjoyment as well as an interview data reported by Hargreaves (2000) which indicates that teachers' emotional experiences are related to factors resulting from the specific group of students who were taught by them.

In contrast to high schools where practice mainly the traditional grammar translation approaches presented by the ministry of education, private institutes present courses aligned with the most recent language learning methods and approaches (Ghanizadeh & Heydarnejad, 2015). In such situations, private institute teachers are more sensitive to address the active engagement of the learners and to make their teaching activities more effective for learners. They try to have good interaction with students, forming a rapport with them, and motivate students to learn because their positive and favorable personality psychologically support the learners' effective learning. According to Heydarnejad, Hosseini Fatemi and Ghosooly (2017), teachers with student-centered styles are more flexible to regulate their emotional experiences to provide non-threatening learning environment for the students. Institute teachers' sensitivity to be connected to and accepted by their learners as well as keeping rapport make them to be more expressive in their positive emotions. This is in line with the aims of private institute policy makers who are in search of providing non-threatening environment for language learning. This in turn attracts the attention of more learners and their parents to private language institutes.

Actually the research into teacher self-regulation is sparse, and almost all of those studies that have been reported, examined the self-regulatory processes of teachers as learners. They noted that teachers who believe in the key role of self-regulatory skills in their learning will teach

them to their students (Randi, 2004). Therefore, there is a dearth of information describing clearly what self-regulatory strategies EFL teachers experience in their classes. Considering all sub-components of teachers' self-regulatory strategies, the result demonstrated that high school teachers are different from private institute teachers. Institute teachers' mean scores in intrinsic interest, goal setting, self-instruction, performance goal, emotional control, self-reaction, self-evaluation, help seeking, and mastery goal were more than high school teachers' mean scores. Contrary to schools, private language institutes focused more on learners' needs, autonomy, and teachers' roles as facilitators. Both teachers and learners are encouraged to create a meaningful context and directly or indirectly highlight the implementation of self-regulated strategies such as taking advantage of students' feedback and control their emotions (Randi, 2004). These conditions enrich the quality of learning environment and it is sensible to assume this influences teachers' self-regulation as well as learners' self-regulation.

It is worth emphasizing that self-regulatory strategies not only assist students to take responsibility in their own learning but also help teachers in their own professional development (Yesim et al., 2009). That is to say, in a meaningful learning, students are supposed to actively self-regulate their learning processes. Students, in traditional teacher-fronted methods of language teaching such as formal context of schools, mainly depend on the teacher as the authority in the class who identifies their needs and prescribes the learning methods and procedure. On the other hand, in autonomous learner-centered methods, the goal of education is to produce independent self-regulated students who shoulder the responsibility of their own learning (Weimer, 2002). In the same line of inquiry, Zimmerman, Bonner, and Kovach (1996) stated that, the role of teachers in traditional settings where teachers themselves adjusts the pace of learning for the entire class is totally different from learner-centered classes. They believed that the teacher in learner-centered classes shifts the responsibility to learners by (a) asking them to self-monitor, (b) helping them to analyze their own data either individually or in small groups, and (c) helping them set goals and choose strategies in the light of self-monitored outcomes. In addition, the teacher may teach self-regulatory techniques by modeling self-monitoring and strategy-selection procedures. For example the teacher can: (a) demonstrate his or her own use of process-monitoring forms, (b) hypothesize strategy choices and evaluating outcomes, and (c) refine strategies based on the outcomes. Finally and more significantly, the teacher encourages students to self-monitor so they may improve their self-regulatory strategies.

6. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Taken together, the yielded results of the present study lead to this conclusion that teachers' emotions and self-regulatory strategies are critical in the process of effective teaching. Teaching is an emotional job. This is a profession with high rates of stress and burnout (Kokkinos, 2007). Therefore, teachers' awareness and management of their emotions can directly and indirectly affect their occupational well-being and emotional lives. By training, teachers could learn to practice emotion-focused strategies to regulate their enjoyment, anger, and anxiety during teaching.

The results of this research suggest some pedagogical implications for teacher trainers, institute supervisors, educational authorities, researchers as well as EFL teachers. Teacher trainers are suggested to make teachers familiar with the concepts of emotional experiences and

the importance of teachers' beliefs and perceptions in their pedagogical performance. This study encourages education authorities, school managers, and institute supervisors to consider the teachers' emotions and self-regulation as an effective element for academic and career success. Furthermore, in-service teacher training programs and teacher training courses (TTC) can pave the way for providing teachers with skills and knowledge necessary to implement in their classes.

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